

1 Ontology Languages

- Elements of an ontology language
- Intensional and extensional level of an ontology language
- Ontologies vs. other formalisms

2 UML class diagrams as FOL ontologies

- Approaches to conceptual modelling
- Formalising UML class diagram in FOL
- Reasoning on UML class diagrams

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- **Syntax**
 - Alphabet
 - Languages constructs
 - Sentences to assert knowledge
- **Semantics**
 - Formal meaning
- **Pragmatics**
 - Intended meaning
 - Usage

The aspects of the domain of interest that can be modeled by an ontology language can be classified into:

- **Static aspects**
 - Are related to the structuring of the domain of interest.
 - Supported by virtually all languages.
- **Dynamic aspects**
 - Are related to how the elements of the domain of interest evolve over time.
 - Supported only by some languages, and only partially (cf. services).

Before delving into the dynamic aspects, we need a good understanding of the static ones. In this course, we concentrate essentially on the static aspects.

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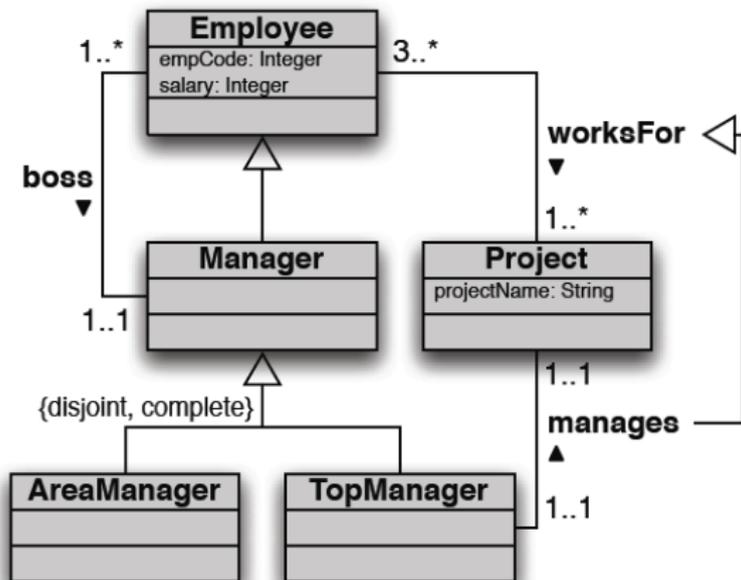
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An ontology language for expressing the intensional level usually includes:

- Concepts
- Properties of concepts
- Relationships between concepts, and their properties
- Axioms
- Queries

Ontologies are typically **rendered as diagrams** (e.g., Semantic Networks, Entity-Relationship schemas, UML Class Diagrams).

Example: ontology rendered as UML Class Diagram



Definition (Concept)

A **concept** is an element of an ontology that denotes a collection of instances (e.g., the set of “employees”).

We distinguish between:

- **Intensional definition:**
 - specification of **name, properties, relations,...**
- **Extensional definition:**
 - specification of the **instances**

Concepts are also called **classes, entity types, frames.**

Definition (Property)

A **property** is an element of an ontology that qualifies another element (e.g., a concept or a relationship).

Property definition (intensional and extensional):

- Name
- Type: may be either
 - atomic (integer, real, string, enumerated,...), or
e.g., **eye-color** → { **blue, brown, green, grey** }
 - structured (date, set, list,...)
e.g., **date** → **day/month/year**
- The definition may also specify a default value.

Properties are also called **attributes, features, slots, data properties**

Definition (Relationship)

A **relationship** is an element of an ontology that expresses an association among concepts.

We distinguish between:

- **Intensional definition:**
specification of involved **concepts**
e.g., **worksFor** is defined on **Employee** and **Project**
- **Extensional definition:**
specification of the instances of the relationship, called **facts**
e.g., **worksFor(domenico, tones)**

Relationships are also called **associations, relationship types, roles, object properties.**

Definition (Axiom)

An **axiom** is a logical formula that expresses at the intensional level a condition that must be satisfied by the elements at the extensional level.

Different kinds of axioms/conditions:

- subclass relationships, e.g., $\text{Manager} \sqsubseteq \text{Employee}$
- equivalences, e.g., $\text{Manager} \equiv \text{AreaManager} \sqcup \text{TopManager}$
- disjointness, e.g., $\text{AreaManager} \sqcap \text{TopManager} \equiv \perp$
- (cardinality) restrictions, e.g., each Employee worksFor at least 1 Project
- ...

Axioms are also called **assertions**.

A special kind of axioms are **definitions**.

At the extensional level we have individuals and facts:

- An **instance** represents an individual (or object) in the extension of a concept.
e.g., **domenico** is an instance of **Employee**
- A **fact** represents a relationship holding between instances.
e.g., **worksFor(domenico, tones)**

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- Ontology languages vs. knowledge representation languages:
 - Ontologies **are** knowledge representation schemas.
- Ontology vs. logic:
 - Logic is **the** tool for assigning semantics to ontology languages.
- Ontology languages vs. conceptual data models:
 - Conceptual schemas **are** special ontologies, suited for conceptualizing a **single** logical model (database).
- Ontology languages vs. programming languages:
 - Class definitions **are** special ontologies, suited for conceptualizing a **single** structure for computation.

- Graph-based
 - Semantic networks
 - Conceptual graphs
 - **UML class diagrams**, Entity-Relationship diagrams
- Frame-based
 - Frame Systems
 - OKBC (Open Knowledge Base Connectivity), XOL (XML-based ontology language)
- Logic-based
 - **Description Logics** (e.g., *SHOIQ*, *DLR*, **DL-Lite**, OWL,...)
 - Rules (e.g., RuleML, LP/Prolog, F-Logic)
 - First-Order Logic (e.g., KIF)
 - Non-classical logics (e.g., non-monotonic, probabilistic)

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Exercise

Requirements: We are interested in building a software application to manage filmed scenes for realizing a movie, by following the so-called "Hollywood Approach".

Every **scene** is identified by a code (a string) and is described by a text in natural language.

Every scene is filmed from different positions (at least one), each of this is called a **setup**. Every setup is characterized by a code (a string) and a text in natural language where the photographic parameters are noted (e.g., aperture, exposure, focal length, filters, etc.).

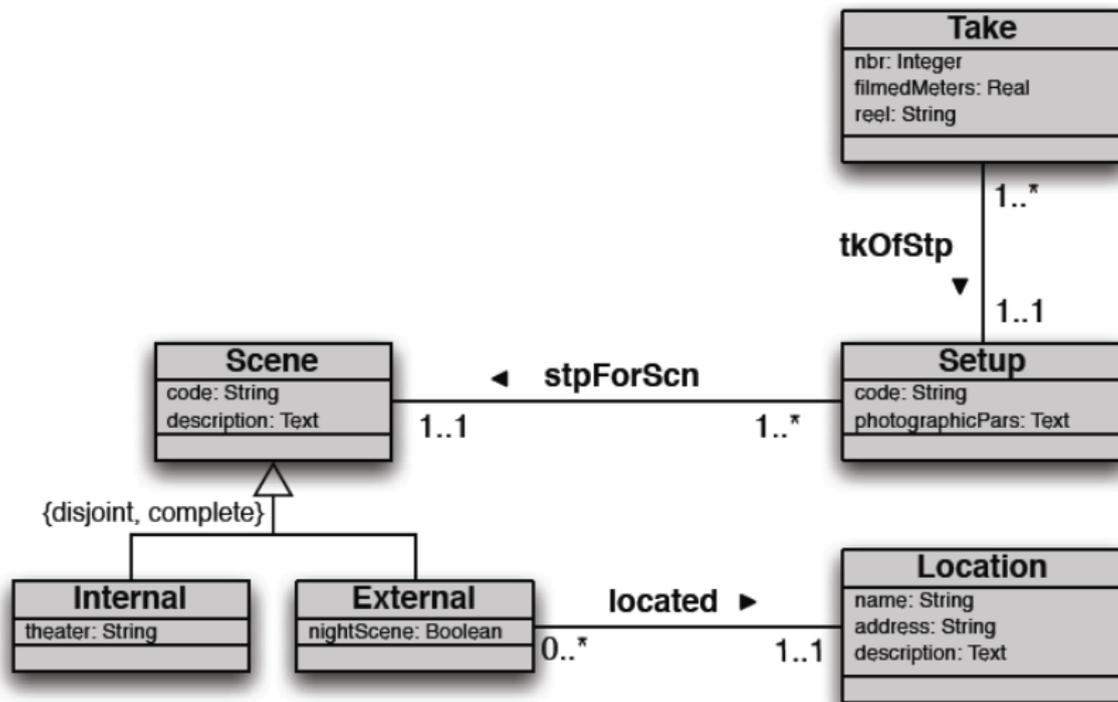
Note that a setup is related to a single scene.

For every setup, several **takes** may be filmed (at least one). Every take is characterized by a (positive) natural number, a real number representing the number of meters of film that have been used for shooting the take, and the code (a string) of the reel where the film is stored. Note that a take is associated to a single setup.

Scenes are divided into **internals** that are filmed in a theater, and **externals** that are filmed in a **location** and can either be "day scene" or "night scene". Locations are characterized by a code (a string) and the address of the location, and a text describing them in natural language.

Write a precise specification of this domain using any formalism you like!

Solution 1: Use conceptual modeling diagrams (UML)!



Good points:

- Easy to generate (it's the standard in software design).
- Easy to understand for humans.
- Well disciplined, well-established methodologies available.

Bad points:

- No precise semantics (people that use it wave hands about it).
- Verification (or better validation) done informally by humans.
- Machine incomprehensible (because of lack of formal semantics).
- Automated reasoning and query answering out of question.
- Limited expressiveness.^a

^aNot really a bad point, in fact.

Alphabet

$Scene(x)$, $Setup(x)$, $Take(x)$, $Internal(x)$, $External(x)$, $Location(x)$, $stpForScn(x, y)$, $tkOfStp(x, y)$, $located(x, y)$,...

Axioms

$\forall x, y. code_{Scene}(x, y) \rightarrow Scene(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. description(x, y) \rightarrow Scene(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x, y. code_{Setup}(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. photographicPars(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x, y. nbr(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Integer(y)$
 $\forall x, y. filmedMeters(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Real(y)$
 $\forall x, y. reel(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. theater(x, y) \rightarrow Internal(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. nightScene(x, y) \rightarrow External(x) \wedge Boolean(y)$
 $\forall x, y. name(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. address(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. description(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x. Scene(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | code_{Scene}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall x. Internal(x) \rightarrow Scene(x)$
 $\forall x. External(x) \rightarrow Scene(x)$
 $\forall x. Internal(x) \rightarrow \neg External(x)$
 $\forall x. Scene(x) \rightarrow Internal(x) \vee External(x)$

$\forall x, y. stpForScn(x, y) \rightarrow$
 $Setup(x) \wedge Scene(y)$
 $\forall x, y. tkOfStp(x, y) \rightarrow$
 $Take(x) \wedge Setup(y)$
 $\forall x, y. located(x, y) \rightarrow$
 $External(x) \wedge Location(y)$
 $\forall x. Setup(x) \rightarrow$
 $(1 \leq \#\{y | stpForScn(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall y. Scene(y) \rightarrow$
 $(1 \leq \#\{x | stpForScn(x, y)\})$
 $\forall x. Take(x) \rightarrow$
 $(1 \leq \#\{y | tkOfStp(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall x. Setup(y) \rightarrow$
 $(1 \leq \#\{x | stpForScn(x, y)\})$
 $\forall x. External(x) \rightarrow$
 $(1 \leq \#\{y | located(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
...

Good points:

- Precise semantics.
- Formal verification.
- Allows for query answering.
- Machine comprehensible.
- Virtually unlimited expressiveness^a.

^aNot necessarily a good point, in fact.

Bad points:

- Difficult to generate.
- Difficult to understand for humans.
- Too unstructured (making reasoning difficult), no well-established methodologies available.
- Automated reasoning may be impossible.

Solution 3: Use both!!!

Note these two approaches seem to be orthogonal, but in fact they can be used together cooperatively!!!

Basic idea

- Assign formal semantics to constructs of the conceptual design diagrams.
- Use conceptual design diagrams as usual, taking advantage of methodologies developed for them in Software Engineering.
- Read diagrams as logical theories when needed, i.e., for formal understanding, verification, automated reasoning, etc.

Added value

- Inherited from conceptual modeling diagrams: ease-to-use for humans
- inherit from logic: formal semantics and reasoning tasks, which are needed for formal verification and machine manipulation.

Important

The logical theories that are obtained from conceptual modeling diagrams are of a specific form.

- Their expressiveness is limited (or better, well-disciplined).
- One can exploit the particular form of the logical theory to simplify reasoning.
- The aim is getting:
 - decidability, and
 - reasoning procedures that match the intrinsic computational complexity of reasoning over the conceptual modeling diagrams.

We illustrate now what we get from interpreting conceptual modeling diagrams in logic. We will use:

- as conceptual modeling diagrams: **UML Class Diagrams**. Note: we could equivalently use Entity-Relationship Diagrams instead of UML.
- as logic: **First-Order Logic** to formally capture **semantics** and **reasoning**.

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The Unified Modeling Language (UML)

The **Unified Modeling Language (UML)** was developed in 1994 by unifying and integrating the most prominent object-oriented modeling approaches:

- Booch
- Rumbaugh: Object Modeling Technique (OMT)
- Jacobson: Object-Oriented Software Engineering (OOSE)

History:

- 1995, version 0.8, **Booch, Rumbaugh**; 1996, version 0.9, **Booch, Rumbaugh, Jacobson**; version 1.0 **BRJ + Digital, IBM, HP,...**
- UML 1.4.2 is industrial standard ISO/IEC 15901.
- Current version: 2.5.1 (December 2017): <http://www.omg.org/spec/UML/>
- 1999-today: **de facto standard object-oriented modeling language.**

References:

- Grady Booch, James Rumbaugh, Ivar Jacobson, "The unified modeling language user guide", Addison Wesley, 1999 (2nd ed., 2005)
- <http://www.omg.org/> → UML
- <http://www.uml.org/>

In this course we deal only with one of the most prominent components of UML: UML Class Diagrams.

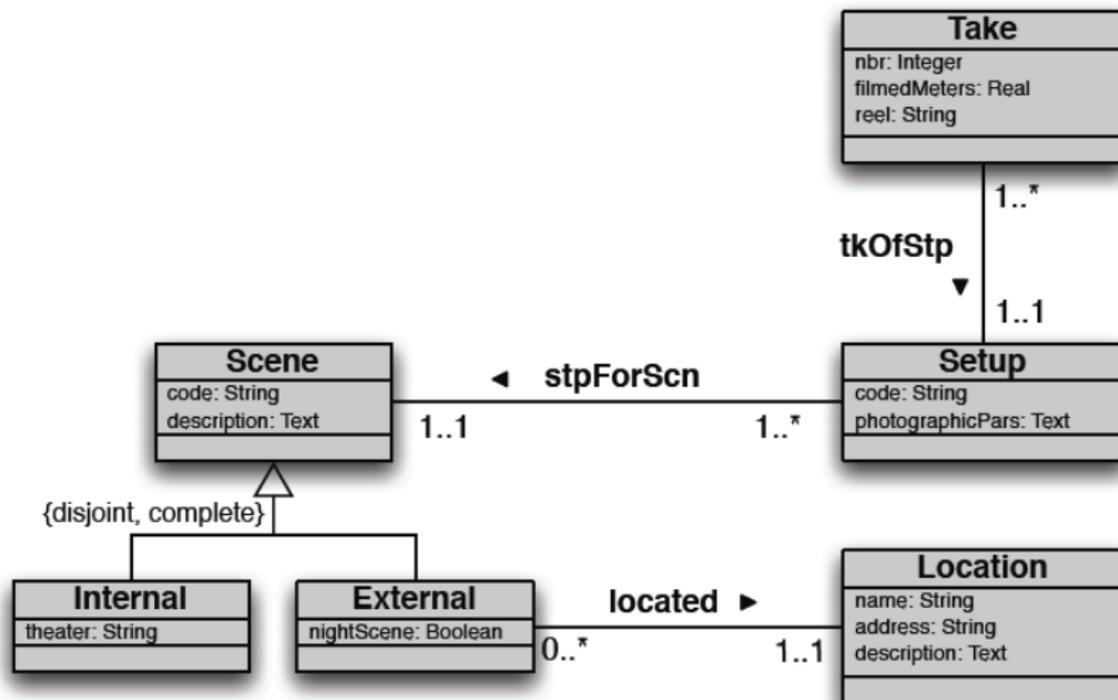
A UML Class Diagram is used to represent explicitly the information on a domain of interest (typically the application domain of software).

Note: This is exactly the goal of all conceptual modeling formalism, such as Entity-Relationship Diagrams (standard in Database design) or Ontologies.

The UML class diagram models the domain of interest in terms of:

- objects grouped into **classes**;
- **associations**, representing relationships between classes;
- **attributes**, representing simple properties of the instances of classes;
Note: here we do not deal with “operations”.
- **sub-classing**, i.e., ISA and generalization relationships.

Example of a UML Class Diagram



UML Class Diagrams are used in various phases of a software design:

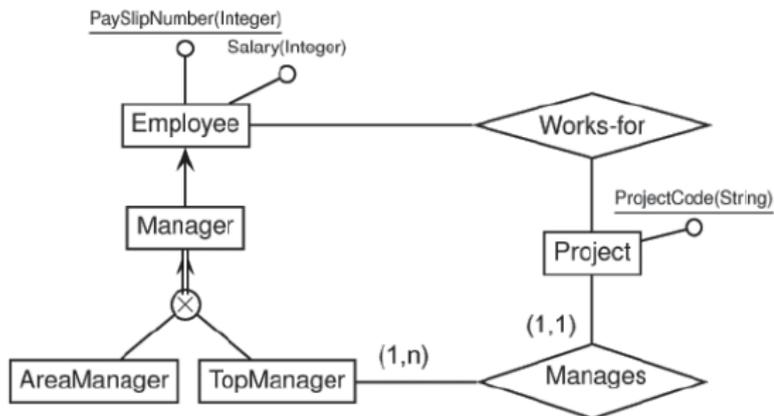
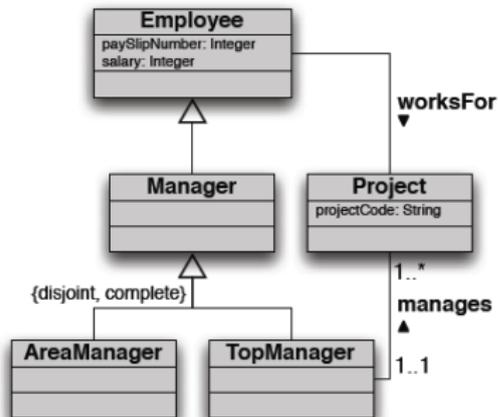
- 1 During the so-called **analysis**, where an abstract precise view of the domain of interest needs to be developed.
↪ the so-called “**conceptual perspective**”.
- 2 During **software development**, to maintain an abstract view of the software to be developed.
↪ the so-called “**implementation perspective**”.

In this course we focus on 1!

UML Class Diagrams and ER Schemas

UML class diagrams (when used for the conceptual perspective) closely resemble Entity-Relationship (ER) Diagrams.

Example of UML vs. ER:



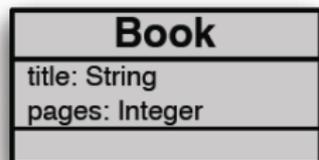
Definition (Class)

A **class** in UML models a **set of objects** (its “instances”) that share certain common properties, such as **attributes**, **operations**, etc.

Each class is characterized by:

- a **name** (which must be unique in the whole class diagram),
- a **set of (local) properties**, namely **attributes** and **operations** (see later).

Example



- the name of the class is 'Book'
- the class has two properties (attributes)

Definition (Instances)

The objects that belong to a class are called **instances** of the class. They form a so-called **instantiation** (or **extension**) of the class.

Example

Here are some possible instantiations of our class Book:

$\{book_a, book_b, book_c, book_d, book_e\}$

$\{book_\alpha, book_\beta\}$

$\{book_1, book_2, book_3, \dots, book_{500}, \dots\}$

Which is the actual instantiation?

We will know it only at run-time!!! - We are now at design time!

A class represents a set of objects. ... But which set? We don't actually know.
So, how can we assign a semantics to such a class?

Definition (Class representation)

We represent a **class** as a **FOL unary predicate!**

Example

For our class *Book*, we introduce a predicate $Book(x)$.

Definition (Association)

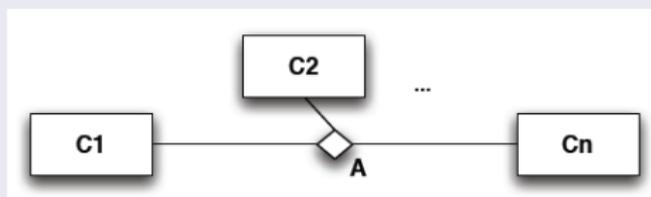
An **association** in UML models a **relationship** between two or more classes.

- At the instance level, an association is a relation between the instances of two or more classes.
- Associations model properties of classes that are **non-local**, in the sense that they involve other classes.
- An association between n classes is a property of each of these classes.

Example



Definition (Association representation)



We can represent an *n*-ary association *A* among classes C_1, \dots, C_n as an *n*-ary predicate *A* in FOL.

We assert that the components of the predicate must belong to the classes participating in the association:

$$\forall x_1, \dots, x_n. A(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow C_1(x_1) \wedge \dots \wedge C_n(x_n)$$

Example

$$\forall x_1, x_2. \textit{writtenBy}(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow \textit{Book}(x_1) \wedge \textit{Author}(x_2)$$

Definition (Multiplicity Constraints)

On binary associations, we can place **multiplicity constraints**, i.e., a minimal and maximal number of tuples in which every object participates as first (second) component.

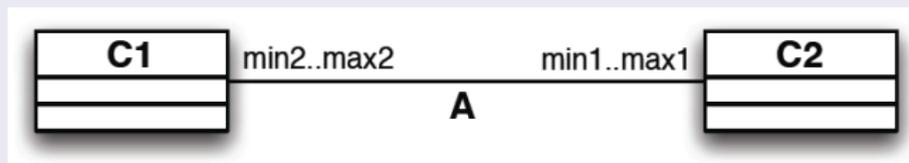
Example



Note: UML multiplicities for associations are **look-across** and are not easy to use in an intuitive way for n -ary associations. So typically they are not used at all.

In contrast, in ER Schemas, multiplicities are not look-across and are easy to use, and widely used.

Definition (Multiplicity constraint representation)



Multiplicities of binary associations are easily expressible in FOL:

$$\forall x_1. C_1(x_1) \rightarrow (\min_1 \leq \#\{x_2 | A(x_1, x_2)\} \leq \max_1)$$

$$\forall x_2. C_2(x_2) \rightarrow (\min_2 \leq \#\{x_1 | A(x_1, x_2)\} \leq \max_2)$$

Example

$$\forall x. Book(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | written_{by}(x, y)\})$$

Note: this is an abbreviation for a FOL formula expressing the cardinality of the set of possible values for y .

We use expressions $m \leq \#\{x|\varphi(x)\}$ and $\#\{x|\varphi(x)\} \leq n$ as abbreviations.

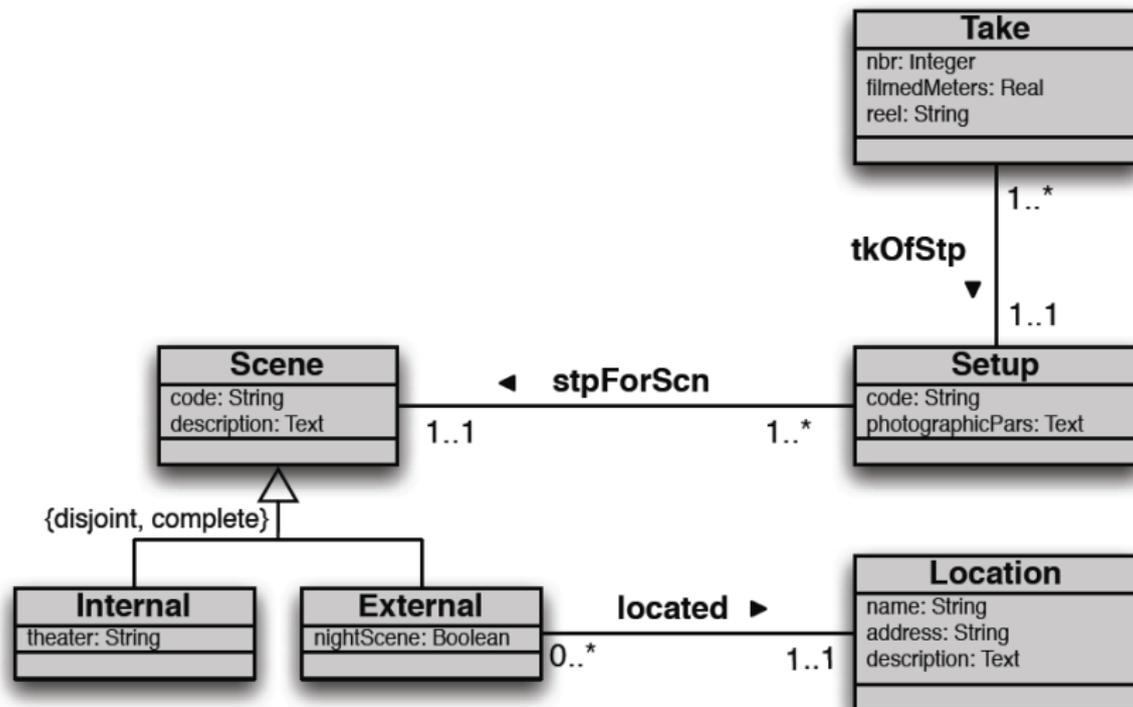
Minimum cardinality $m \leq \#\{x|\varphi(x)\}$

$$m \leq \#\{x|\varphi(x)\} = \exists x_1, \dots, x_m. (\varphi(x_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \varphi(x_m) \wedge \bigwedge_{\substack{1 \leq i < m \\ i < j \leq m}} x_i \neq x_j)$$

Maximum cardinality $\#\{x|\varphi(x)\} \leq n$

$$\#\{x|\varphi(x)\} \leq n = \forall x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}. ((\varphi(x_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \varphi(x_{n+1})) \rightarrow \bigvee_{\substack{1 \leq i < n \\ i < j \leq n+1}} x_i = x_j)$$

Note: We need FOL with equality



In our example...

Alphabet

Scene(x), Setup(x), Take(x), Internal(x), External(x), Location(x), stpForScn(x, y), tkOfStp(x, y), located(x, y),...

Axioms

$\forall x, y. \text{code}_{Scene}(x, y) \rightarrow Scene(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{description}(x, y) \rightarrow Scene(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{code}_{Setup}(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{photographicPars}(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{nbr}(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Integer(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{filmedMeters}(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Real(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{reel}(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{theater}(x, y) \rightarrow Internal(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{nightScene}(x, y) \rightarrow External(x) \wedge Boolean(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{name}(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{address}(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{description}(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x. Scene(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | \text{code}_{Scene}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall x. Internal(x) \rightarrow Scene(x)$
 $\forall x. External(x) \rightarrow Scene(x)$
 $\forall x. Internal(x) \rightarrow \neg External(x)$
 $\forall x. Scene(x) \rightarrow Internal(x) \vee External(x)$

$\forall x, y. \text{stpForScn}(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge Scene(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{tkOfStp}(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Setup(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{located}(x, y) \rightarrow External(x) \wedge Location(y)$
 $\forall x. Setup(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | \text{stpForScn}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall y. Scene(y) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{x | \text{stpForScn}(x, y)\})$
 $\forall x. Take(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | \text{tkOfStp}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall x. Setup(y) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{x | \text{stpForScn}(x, y)\})$
 $\forall x. External(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | \text{located}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
...

The most interesting multiplicities are:

- 0..* : unconstrained
- 1..* : mandatory participation
- 0..1 : functional participation (the association is a partial function)
- 1..1 : mandatory and functional participation (the association is a total function)

Definition (In FOL)

- 0..* : no constraint
- 1..* : $\forall x.(C_1(x) \rightarrow \exists y.A(x, y))$
- 0..1 : $\forall x.(C_1(x) \rightarrow \forall y, y'.(A(x, y) \wedge A(x, y') \rightarrow y = y'))$
(or simply $\forall x, y, y'.(A(x, y) \wedge A(x, y') \rightarrow y = y')$)
- 1..1 : $(\forall x.(C_1(x) \rightarrow \exists y.A(x, y))) \wedge (\forall x, y, y'.(A(x, y) \wedge A(x, y') \rightarrow y = y'))$

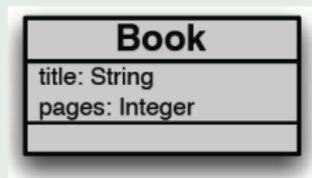
Definition (Attribute)

An **attribute** models a local property of a class.

It is characterized by:

- a **name** (which is unique only in the class it belongs to),
- a **type** (a collection of possible values),
- and possibly a **multiplicity**.

Example



- The name of one of the attributes is 'title'.
- Its type is 'String'.

Attributes (without explicit multiplicity) are:

- **mandatory** (must have at least a value), and
- **single-valued** (can have at most one value).

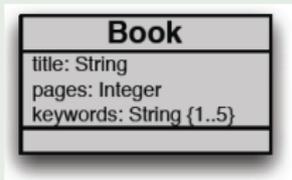
That is, they are **total functions** from the instances of the class to the values of the type they have.

Example

$book_3$ has as value for the attribute 'title' the String: "The little digital video book".

More generally, attributes may have an explicit **multiplicity** (similar to that of associations).

Example



- The attribute 'title' has an implicit multiplicity of 1..1.
- The attribute 'keywords' has an explicit multiplicity of 1..5.

Note: When the multiplicity is not specified, then it is assumed to be 1..1

Since **attributes** may have a multiplicity different from 1..1, they are better formalized as **binary predicates**, with suitable **assertions** representing types and multiplicity.

Definition (Attribute representation)

Given an **attribute** att of a class C with type T and multiplicity $i..j$, we capture it in FOL as a **binary predicate** $att_C(x, y)$ with the following assertions:

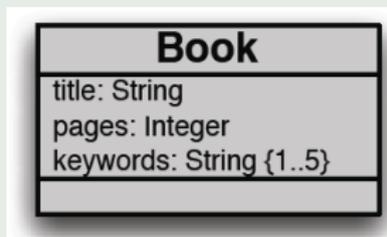
- An assertion for the attribute **type**:

$$\forall x, y. att_C(x, y) \rightarrow C(x) \wedge T(y)$$

- An assertion for the **multiplicity**:

$$\forall x. C(x) \rightarrow (i \leq \#\{y | att_C(x, y)\} \leq j)$$

Example



$$\forall x, y. title_B(x, y) \rightarrow Book(x) \wedge String(y)$$

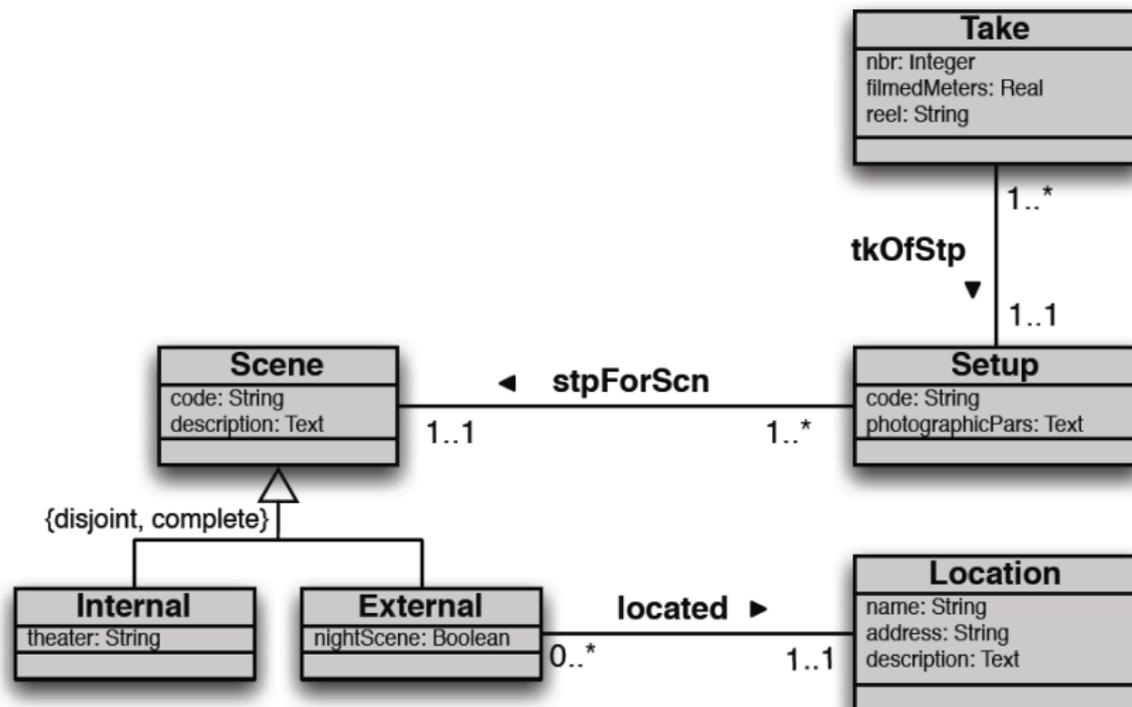
$$\forall x. Book(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | title_B(x, y)\} \leq 1)$$

$$\forall x, y. pages_B(x, y) \rightarrow Book(x) \wedge Integer(y)$$

$$\forall x. Book(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | pages_B(x, y)\} \leq 1)$$

$$\forall x, y. keywords_B(x, y) \rightarrow Book(x) \wedge String(y)$$

$$\forall x. Book(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | keywords_B(x, y)\} \leq 5)$$



Alphabet

Scene(x), Setup(x), Take(x), Internal(x), External(x), Location(x), stpForScn(x, y), tkOfStp(x, y), located(x, y),...

Axioms

$\forall x, y. \text{code}_{Scene}(x, y) \rightarrow Scene(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{description}(x, y) \rightarrow Scene(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{code}_{Setup}(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{photographicPars}(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{nbr}(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Integer(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{filmedMeters}(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Real(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{reel}(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{theater}(x, y) \rightarrow Internal(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{nightScene}(x, y) \rightarrow External(x) \wedge Boolean(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{name}(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{address}(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{description}(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x. Scene(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | \text{code}_{Scene}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall x. Internal(x) \rightarrow Scene(x)$
 $\forall x. External(x) \rightarrow Scene(x)$
 $\forall x. Internal(x) \rightarrow \neg External(x)$
 $\forall x. Scene(x) \rightarrow Internal(x) \vee External(x)$

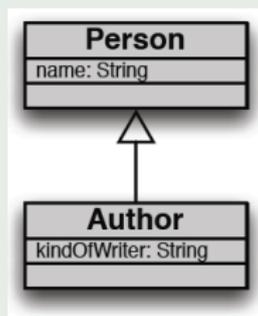
$\forall x, y. \text{stpForScn}(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge Scene(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{tkOfStp}(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Setup(y)$
 $\forall x, y. \text{located}(x, y) \rightarrow External(x) \wedge Location(y)$
 $\forall x. Setup(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | \text{stpForScn}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall y. Scene(y) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{x | \text{stpForScn}(x, y)\})$
 $\forall x. Take(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | \text{tkOfStp}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall x. Setup(y) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{x | \text{stpForScn}(x, y)\})$
 $\forall x. External(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | \text{located}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
...

The ISA relationship is of particular importance in conceptual modeling: a class C ISA a class C' if every instance of C is also an instance of C' .

Generalization

In UML, the **ISA relationship** is modeled through the notion of **generalization**.

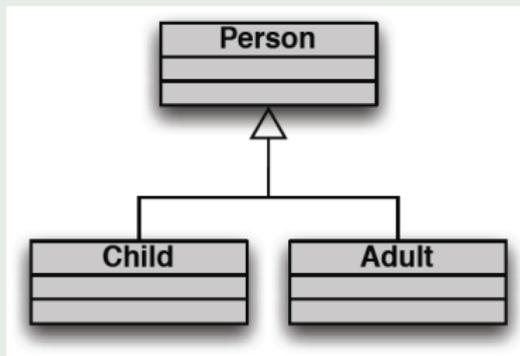
Example



The attribute 'name' is inherited by 'Author'.

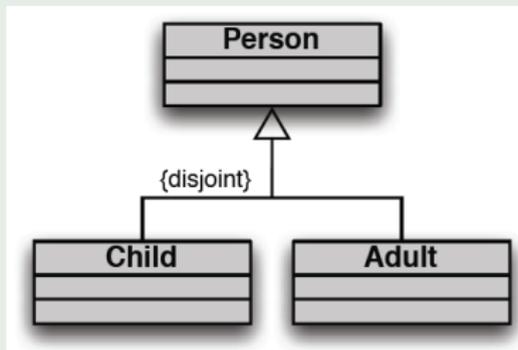
A **generalization** involves a **superclass** (base class) and one or more subclasses: every instance of each **subclass** is also an instance of the superclass.

Example



The ability of having more subclasses in the same generalization, allows for placing suitable **constraints** on the classes involved in the generalization.

Example

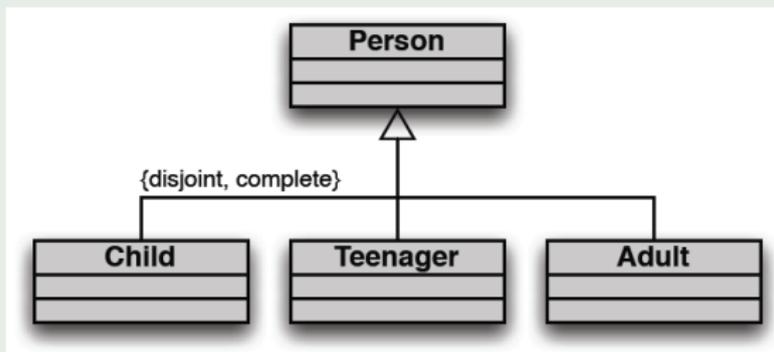


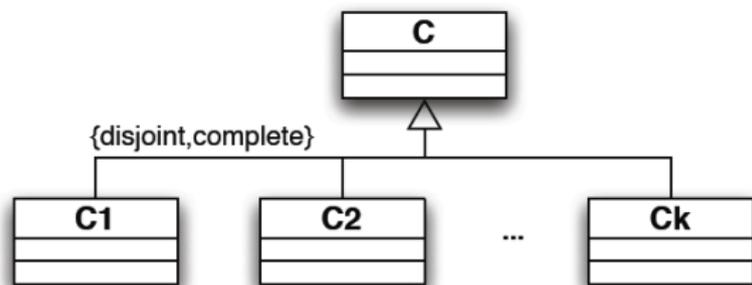
Generalizations with constraints (cont'd)

Most notable and used constraints:

- **Disjointness**, which asserts that different subclasses cannot have common instances (i.e., an object cannot be at the same time instance of two disjoint subclasses).
- **Completeness** (aka “covering”), which asserts that every instance of the superclass is also an instance of at least one of the subclasses.

Example

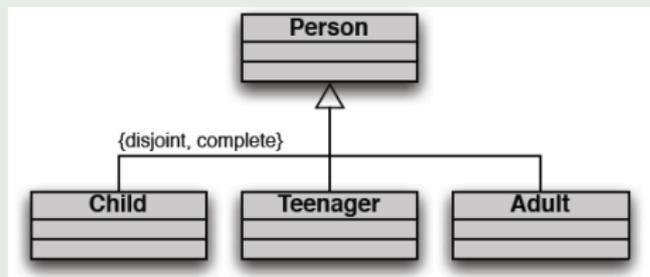




Definition (Generalization representation)

- ISA: $\forall x. C_i(x) \rightarrow C(x)$, for $1 \leq i \leq k$
- Disjointness: $\forall x. C_i(x) \rightarrow \neg C_j(x)$, for $1 \leq i < j \leq k$
- Completeness: $\forall x. C(x) \rightarrow \bigvee_{i=1}^k C_i(x)$

Example



$$\forall x. \text{Child}(x) \rightarrow \text{Person}(x)$$

$$\forall x. \text{Teenager}(x) \rightarrow \text{Person}(x)$$

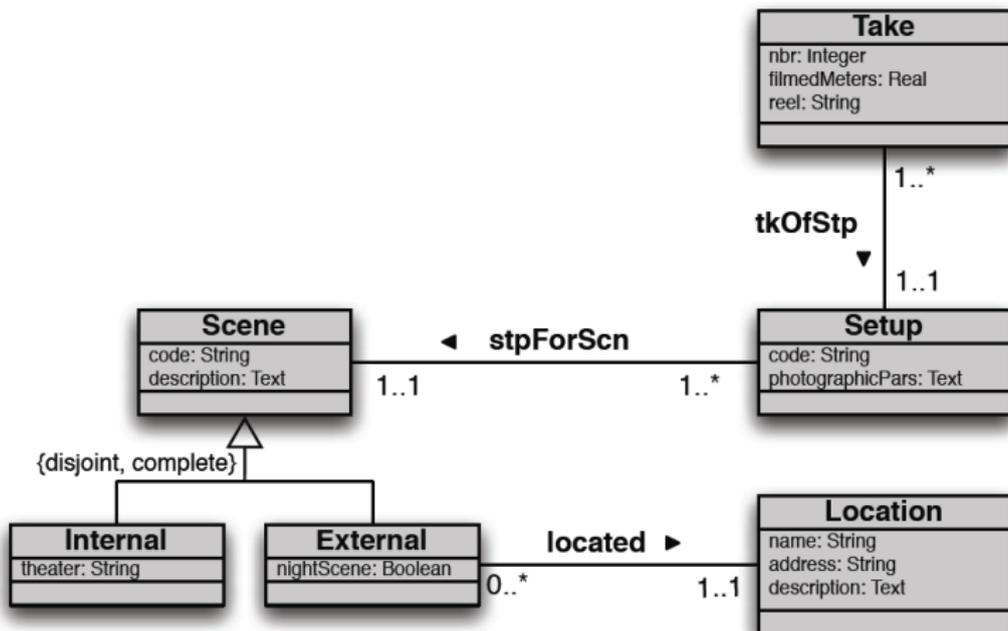
$$\forall x. \text{Adult}(x) \rightarrow \text{Person}(x)$$

$$\forall x. \text{Child}(x) \rightarrow \neg \text{Teenager}(x)$$

$$\forall x. \text{Child}(x) \rightarrow \neg \text{Adult}(x)$$

$$\forall x. \text{Teenager}(x) \rightarrow \neg \text{Adult}(x)$$

$$\forall x. \text{Person}(x) \rightarrow (\text{Child}(x) \vee \text{Teenager}(x) \vee \text{Adult}(x))$$



Alphabet

$Scene(x)$, $Setup(x)$, $Take(x)$, $Internal(x)$, $External(x)$, $Location(x)$, $stpForScn(x, y)$, $tkOfStp(x, y)$, $located(x, y)$,...

Axioms

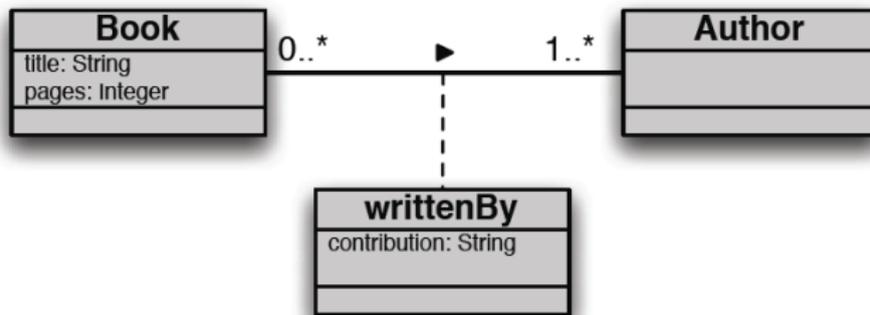
$\forall x, y. code_{Scene}(x, y) \rightarrow Scene(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. description(x, y) \rightarrow Scene(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x, y. code_{Setup}(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. photographicPars(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x, y. nbr(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Integer(y)$
 $\forall x, y. filmedMeters(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Real(y)$
 $\forall x, y. reel(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. theater(x, y) \rightarrow Internal(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. nightScene(x, y) \rightarrow External(x) \wedge Boolean(y)$
 $\forall x, y. name(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. address(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge String(y)$
 $\forall x, y. description(x, y) \rightarrow Location(x) \wedge Text(y)$
 $\forall x. Scene(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | code_{Scene}(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall x. Internal(x) \rightarrow Scene(x)$
 $\forall x. External(x) \rightarrow Scene(x)$
 $\forall x. Internal(x) \rightarrow \neg External(x)$
 $\forall x. Scene(x) \rightarrow Internal(x) \vee External(x)$

$\forall x, y. stpForScn(x, y) \rightarrow Setup(x) \wedge Scene(y)$
 $\forall x, y. tkOfStp(x, y) \rightarrow Take(x) \wedge Setup(y)$
 $\forall x, y. located(x, y) \rightarrow External(x) \wedge Location(y)$
 $\forall x. Setup(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | stpForScn(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall y. Scene(y) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{x | stpForScn(x, y)\})$
 $\forall x. Take(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | tkOfStp(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
 $\forall x. Setup(y) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{x | stpForScn(x, y)\})$
 $\forall x. External(x) \rightarrow (1 \leq \#\{y | located(x, y)\} \leq 1)$
...

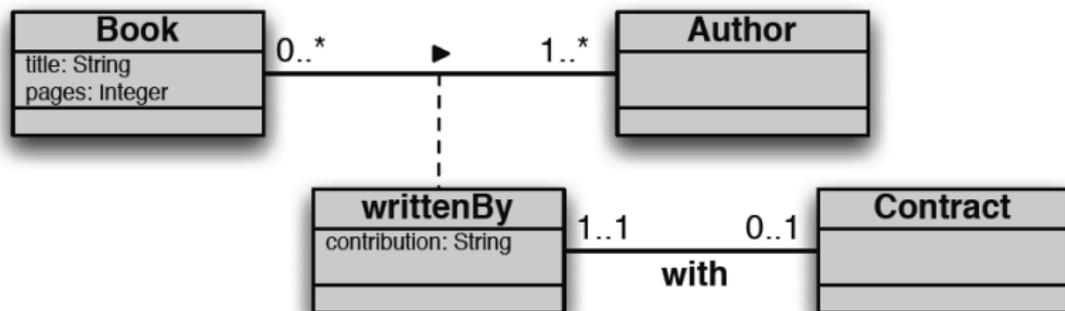
Sometimes we may want to assert properties of associations. In UML to do so we resort to **association classes**:

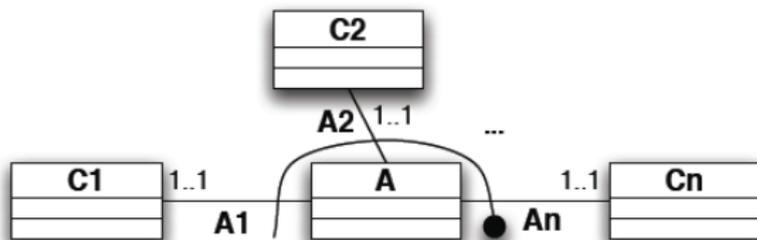
- That is, we associate to an association a class whose instances are in **bijection** with the tuples of the association.
- Then, we use the association class exactly as a UML class (modeling local and non-local properties).

Association class - Example



Association class - Example (cont'd)





Definition

Association Class Representation FOL Assertions are needed for stating a bijection between instances of the association class and instances of the association:

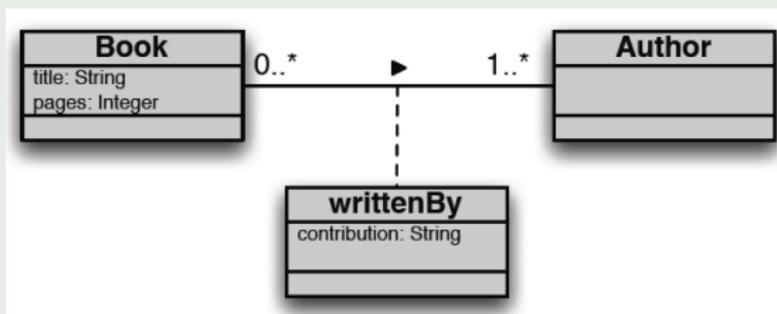
$$\forall x, y. A_i(x, y) \rightarrow A(x) \wedge C_i(y), \quad \text{for } i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$$

$$\forall x. A(x) \rightarrow \exists y. A_i(x, y), \quad \text{for } i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$$

$$\forall x, y, y'. A_i(x, y) \wedge A_i(x, y') \rightarrow y = y', \quad \text{for } i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$$

$$\forall x, x', y_1, \dots, y_n. \bigwedge_{i=1}^n (A_i(x, y_i) \wedge A_i(x', y_i)) \rightarrow x = x'$$

Example



$$\forall x, y. wb_1(x, y) \rightarrow writtenBy(x) \wedge Book(y)$$

$$\forall x, y. wb_2(x, y) \rightarrow writtenBy(x) \wedge Author(y)$$

$$\forall x. writtenBy(x) \rightarrow \exists y. wb_1(x, y)$$

$$\forall x. writtenBy(x) \rightarrow \exists y. wb_2(x, y)$$

$$\forall x, y, y'. wb_1(x, y) \wedge wb_1(x, y') \rightarrow y = y'$$

$$\forall x, y, y'. wb_2(x, y) \wedge wb_2(x, y') \rightarrow y = y'$$

$$\forall x, x', y_1, y_2. wb_1(x, y_1) \wedge wb_1(x', y_1) \wedge wb_2(x, y_2) \wedge wb_2(x', y_2) \rightarrow x = x'$$

1 Ontology Languages

- Elements of an ontology language
- Intensional and extensional level of an ontology language
- Ontologies vs. other formalisms

2 UML class diagrams as FOL ontologies

- Approaches to conceptual modelling
- Formalising UML class diagram in FOL
- Reasoning on UML class diagrams

Definition (Class Consistency)

A class is **consistent**, if the class diagram admits an instantiation in which the class has a non-empty set of instances.

Theorem

Let Γ be the set of FOL assertions corresponding to the UML Class Diagram, and $C(x)$ the predicate corresponding to a class C of the diagram.

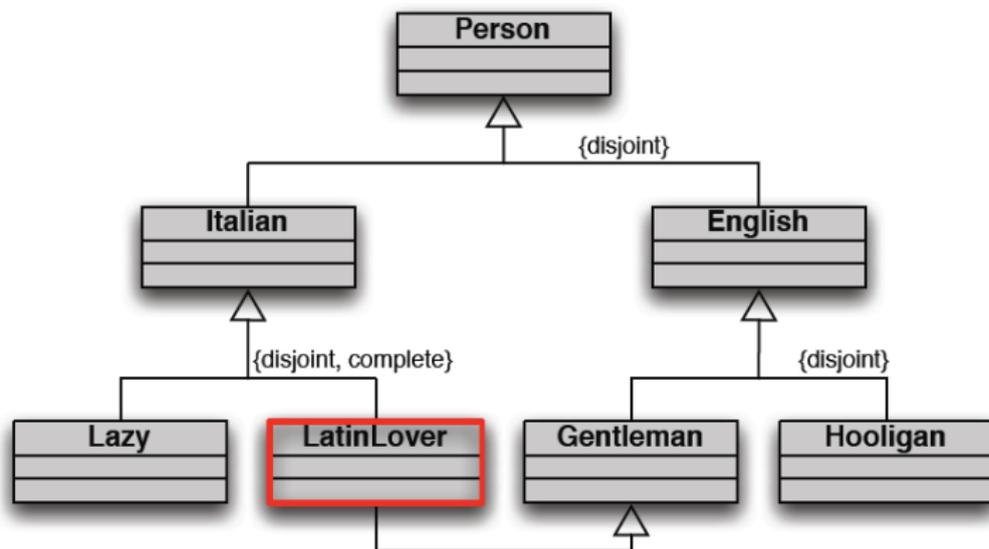
Then C is consistent iff

$$\Gamma \not\models \forall x.C(x) \rightarrow \text{false}$$

i.e., there exists a model of Γ in which the extension of $C(x)$ is not the empty set.

Note: Corresponding FOL reasoning task: **satisfiability**.

Class consistency: example (by E. Franconi)



$\Gamma \models \forall x. \text{LatinLover}(x) \rightarrow \text{false}$

Definition (Class Diagram Consistency)

A class diagram is **consistent**, if it admits an instantiation, i.e., if its classes can be populated without violating any of the conditions imposed by the diagram.

Theorem

Let Γ be the set of FOL assertions corresponding to the UML Class Diagram.
Then, **the diagram is consistent** iff

Γ is satisfiable

i.e., Γ admits at least one model. (Remember that FOL models cannot be empty.)

Note: Corresponding FOL reasoning task: **satisfiability**.

Definition (Class Subsumption)

A class C_1 **is subsumed by** a class C_2 (or C_2 subsumes C_1), if the class diagram implies that C_2 is a generalization of C_1 .

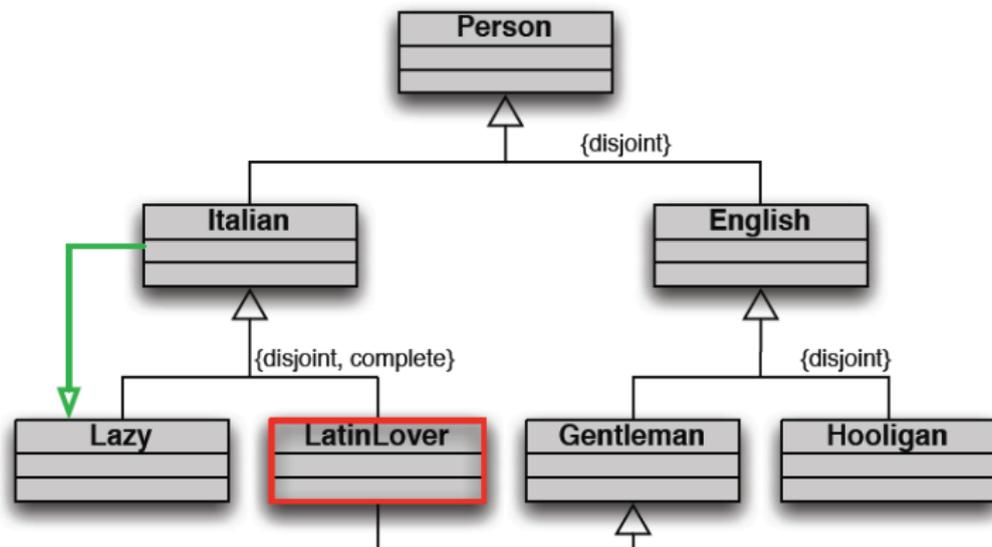
Theorem

Let Γ be the set of FOL assertions corresponding to the UML Class Diagram, and $C_1(x)$, $C_2(x)$ the predicates corresponding to the classes C_1 , and C_2 of the diagram. Then C_1 **is subsumed by** C_2 iff

$$\Gamma \models \forall x. C_1(x) \rightarrow C_2(x)$$

Note: Corresponding FOL reasoning task: [logical implication](#).

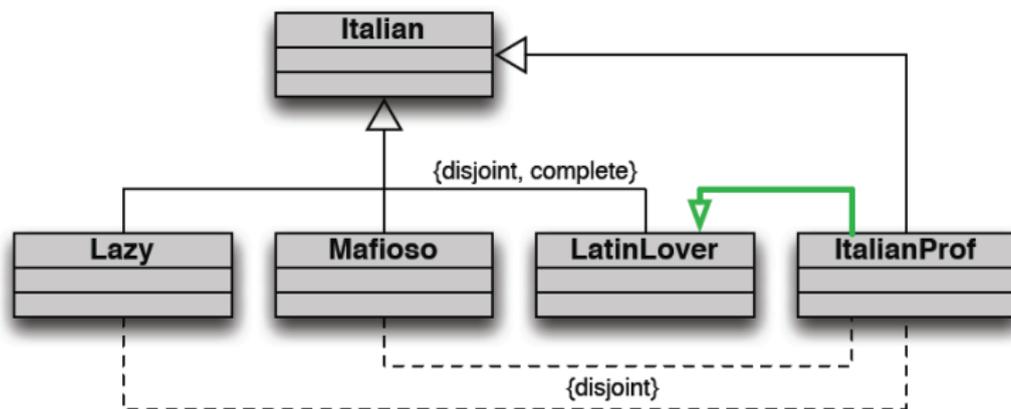
Class subsumption: example



$\Gamma \models \forall x. LatinLover(x) \rightarrow false$

$\Gamma \models \forall x. Italian(x) \rightarrow Lazy(x)$

Class subsumption: another example (by E. Franconi)



$$\Gamma \models \forall x. \text{ItalianProf}(x) \rightarrow \text{LatinLover}(x)$$

Note: this is an example of reasoning by cases.

Definition (Class Equivalence)

Two classes C_1 and C_2 are **equivalent**, if C_1 and C_2 denote the same set of instances in all instantiations of the class diagram.

Theorem

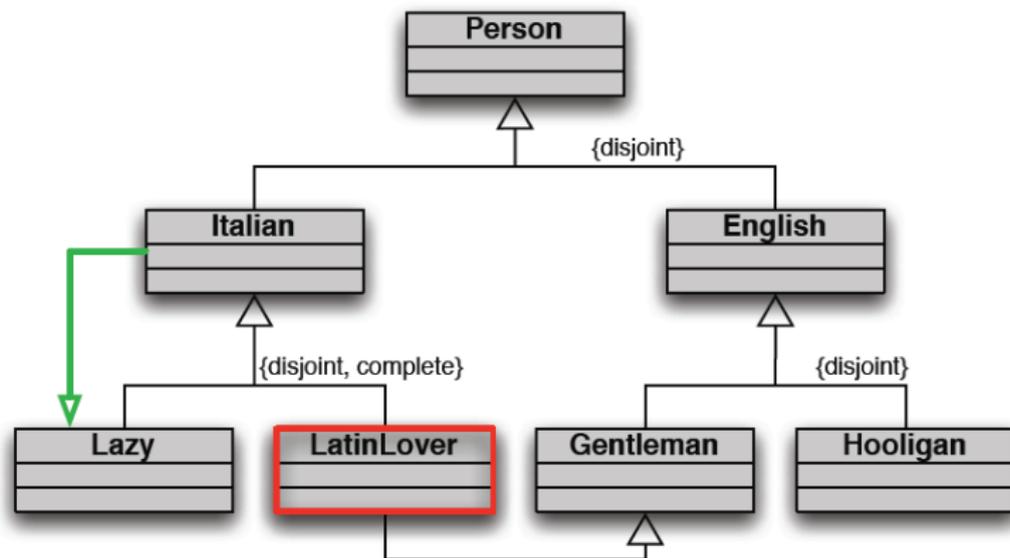
Let Γ be the set of FOL assertions corresponding to the UML Class Diagram, and $C_1(x), C_2(x)$ the predicates corresponding to the classes C_1 , and C_2 of the diagram. Then **C_1 and C_2 are equivalent** iff

$$\Gamma \models \forall x. C_1(x) \leftrightarrow C_2(x)$$

Note:

- If two classes are equivalent, then one of them is redundant.
- Determining equivalence of two classes allows for their merging, thus reducing the complexity of the diagram.

Class equivalence: example



$\Gamma \models \forall x. ItalianLover(x) \rightarrow false$

$\Gamma \models \forall x. Italian(x) \rightarrow Lazy(x)$

$\Gamma \models \forall x. Lazy(x) \equiv Italian(x)$

Forms of reasoning: implicit consequence

The properties of various classes and associations may interact to yield stricter multiplicities or typing than those explicitly specified in the diagram.

More generally...

Definition (Implicit Consequence)

A property \mathcal{P} is an **(implicit) consequence** of a class diagram if \mathcal{P} holds whenever all conditions imposed by the diagram are satisfied.

Theorem

Let Γ be the set of FOL assertions corresponding to the UML Class Diagram, and \mathcal{P} (the formalization in FOL of) the property of interest

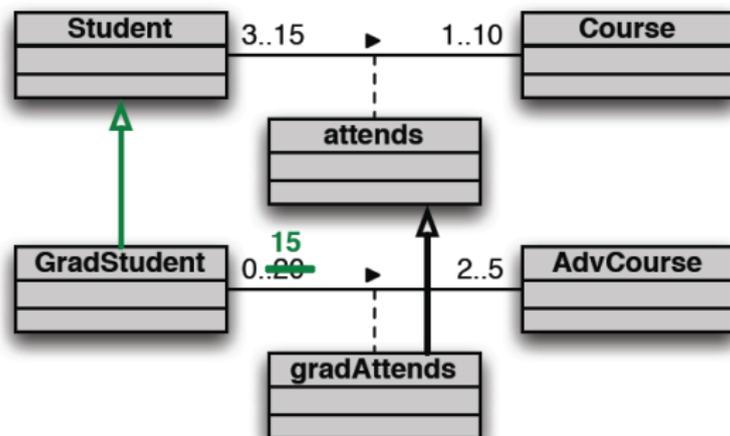
Then \mathcal{P} is an **implicit consequence** iff

$$\Gamma \models \mathcal{P}$$

i.e., the property \mathcal{P} holds in every model of Γ .

Note: Corresponding FOL reasoning task: **logical implication**.

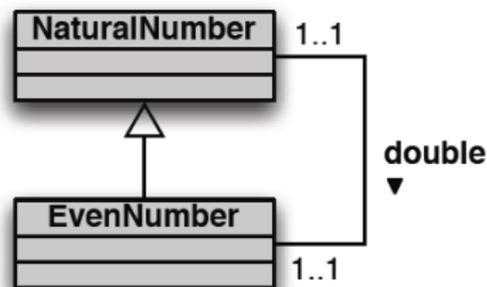
Implicit consequences: example



$\Gamma \models \forall x. AdvCourse(x_2) \rightarrow \#\{x_1 | gradAttends(x_1, x_2)\} \leq 15$

$\Gamma \models \forall x. GradStudent(x) \rightarrow Student(x)$

$\Gamma \not\models \forall x. AdvCourse(x) \rightarrow Course(x)$



- Due to the multiplicities, the classes *NaturalNumber* and *EvenNumber* are in bijection.
As a consequence, in every instantiation of the diagram, “the classes *NaturalNumber* and *EvenNumber* contain the same number of objects”.
- Due to the ISA relationship, every instance of *EvenNumber* is also an instance of *NaturalNumber*, i.e., we have that

$$\Gamma \models \forall x. \text{EvenNumber}(x) \rightarrow \text{NaturalNumber}(x)$$

Question: Does also the reverse implication hold, i.e.,

$$\Gamma \models \forall x. \text{NaturalNumber}(x) \rightarrow \text{EvenNumber}(x) \quad ?$$

- if the domain is **infinite**, the implication **does not hold**.
- If the domain is **finite**, the implication **does hold**.

Finite model reasoning: means reasoning only with respect to models with a finite domain.

- Finite model reasoning is interesting for standard databases.
- The previous example shows that in UML Class Diagrams, finite model reasoning is **different** from unrestricted model reasoning.

In the above examples reasoning could be easily carried out on intuitive grounds. However, two questions come up.

1. Can we develop sound, complete, and terminating procedures for reasoning on UML Class Diagrams?

- We cannot do so by directly relying on FOL!
- But we can use specialized logics with better computational properties. A form of such specialized logics are **Description Logics**.

2. How hard is it to reason on UML Class Diagrams in general?

- What is the worst-case situation?
- Can we single out **interesting fragments** on which to reason efficiently?

Note: all what we have said holds for Entity-Relationship Diagrams as well