Knowledge-Based Systems and Deductive Databases

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11 The Semantic Web

11.1 Knowledge representation
11.2 The Cyc system
11.3 Representation in the Semantic Web
• For expert systems and deductive databases we have used logics in the form of basic facts and simple rules
  – Datalog/Prolog rules
  – Fuzzy reasoning
  – …
• Is that **enough** to represent all real world knowledge?
Knowledge representation is concerned with how to formally think (or at least reason...)

- It needs...
  - A symbol system that represents a domain of discourse
  - A formalized reasoning system to allow inference (symbol manipulation)

- The representation instance is called a knowledge base

There is a vast variety of suggested symbol sets, languages and inference methods...

- With different expressiveness and different complexity
- Rule of thumb: the more expressive, the more complex
There are several representation frameworks that differ in their degree of expressiveness:

- Simple controlled vocabularies (catalogs, glossaries)
- Simple relations between entities (classifications, thesauri)
- Semantic networks (ontologies, frames)
- Logic systems (first order predicate logic, description logic)
- Multilayered extended semantic networks (MultiNet)
11.1 Knowledge Representation

• Basically every representation *abstracts* from the real world to the domain of discourse
  – Results of reasoning processes are then reapplied to the real world

![Diagram of knowledge representation process]

- Real World
- Representation of facts
- Inference
- KB
- New conclusions
- Map to KR language
- Map back to real world
Humans reason in natural language, but this is usually very ambiguous.

- “The chair was placed on the table. It was broken.”
  - What was broken?
  - It is not represented in the sentence…

- “The dog was placed on the table. It barked.”
  - Here it is clear, but still not represented in the sentence
  - And anyway, which dog was it?

- Good systems need three kinds of uniqueness: referential, semantic, and functional.
A necessary property of representation systems is **referential uniqueness**

- Symbolic representations have to **explicitly define** relations for **entity references**
  - All **ambiguity** with respect to entities must be eliminated in the internal representation

That means that all individual entities get a **unique** name

- Dog-1, Dog-2, Dog-3, …
- Unique names are called **instances** or **tokens**
11.1 Mapping the Real World

• “The chair (Chair-236543) was placed on the table (Table-334563232). It (Chair-236543) was broken.”

  – Now everything is clear and we can follow entities also through complex stories…

  – But problems arise with the actual uniqueness of names in distributed scenarios
  
  • Think about the complex management needed for DNS addresses and IPs in the Internet (IANA, ICANN)
  • Moreover, IPs can be changed, reused, etc.

How about other real world entities?
The second property of representation systems is **semantic uniqueness**. All symbols of internal representation must be unique. This means that also word-sense ambiguity has to be resolved.

- Problem of **homonyms**
- Money on a bank?
- To catch a ball..., to catch a thief..., to catch a cold...?
• Semantic uniqueness is important for using generalizing rules
  – All things that are *caught*, were *moving* before.
  – The ball was thrown, the thief was running, the cold was…?!?

• Again we need to disambiguate
  – riverbank, moneybank,…
  – catch_object, catch_illness,…
  – These simple measures lead to controlled vocabularies
11.1 Mapping the Real World

• The third property is functional uniqueness
  – Internal representations must uniquely express the functional roles
• This includes different sentence structures and the problem of synonyms, too
  – Tom catches the ball. The ball is caught by Tom. …
    • Who catches what? catcher: Tom – caught_thing: ball
  – Tom attends the lesson. Tom participates in the lesson, Tom took part in the lesson.


• Steps from a simple **linguistic sentence** to a computer-understandable **representation**

  Tom catches a ball.

  Tom12 catches a ball546.

  Tom12 catch_object ball546.

  catch_object(Tom12, ball546)
11.1 Linguistic Sentences

- Usually a **single predicate expression** is not enough to reflect the semantics of a sentence
  - “Tom catches a white football.”
    - `catch_object(Tom, football).`
    - `instance(football, ball).`
    - `color(football, white).`
  - But with only these predicates we lose some structure
    - The **functional role** within predicates is not clear
    - The information is derived from a **single** sentence and may only be valid for here
      - A football is always a ball, but not always white…
11.1 Linguistic Sentences

- The **slot assertion notation** assigns roles to the different arguments of predicates
  - `catch_object(Tom, football).
catch_object(Peter, beercan).
  - `instance(X0005, catch_object).
instance(X0006, catch_object).
catcher(X0005, Tom).
catcher(X0006, Peter).
caught(X0005, football).
caught(X0006, beercan).

- These expressions also express functional structure
• But this has also another useful effect we can now use **reification** on statements

  – The statement “instance(X0005, catch_object).” tells us about a certain event now named ‘X0005’
    • A (binary) **relation** between some person and a football

  – **Reifying** a relationship means viewing it as an entity
    • The purpose is to make it explicit, when additional information needs to be added to it
    • Basically this allows to make statements over statements

  – Consider the following sentence “Peter believes that Tom caught the football.”
    • believes(Peter, X0005).
11.1 Linguistic Sentences

- The **slot and filler notation** (frames) now combines different slot assertions to provide a structured expression
  - The resulting expression is object- or event-centered
    - instance(X0005, catch_object).
    - catcher(X0005, Tom).
    - caught(X0005, football).
    - Is joined to
    - catch_object( X0005, (catcher Tom),(caught football))
• The notations of **frames** with slots and fillers was introduced by Marvin Minsky at MIT
  
  – Basically frames are **objects** without methods
  
  – They are embedded in a natural and hierarchical **inheritance** structure: lower frames inherit the current fillers from upper frames’ slots
  
  – Frames correspond to **stereotypes** or **prototypes** in human thinking
    
    • They describe what is expected of some object
11.2 The Cyc System

- **Cyc** tries to use knowledge representation as a base of building a real AI system
  - Started in 1984 by Douglas Lenat in Austin, TX
  - Best funded AI project of all times: $60 Million
  - First developed at the Microelectronics and Computer Technology Corporation (MCC), founding of Cycorp
11.2 The Cyc System

• The aim is to create a program with enough understanding such that it can learn from books

  – To do this Cyc needs the common knowledge of a student in first grade

  • However, the world knowledge of children at this age is already quite large

  • This is especially true for understanding stories: e.g., if somebody stands ‘in front of the window’, he/she is still inside the house

  • Seems trivial, but is a lot off work to encode…
• Facts and rules are encoded by humans and tested for consistency by the system
  – If facts contradict each other, humans needs to resolve them
  – After 10 years about one million rules had been encoded and half of them were used by the system
  – Many conflicts could not easily be resolved, although a small child learns to manage the inconsistencies
    • Think about fairy tales: a witch is an evil, old woman, but then witches do not exist…
11.2 The Cyc System

• It is conjectured by the Cyc team that about 10 million rules (called assertions in Cyc) will suffice model “intelligence”

• Currently, Cyc contain around 200,000 terms, and each has several dozens of assertions

• Thus, Cyc is what is sometimes called a GOFAI, or 'Good Old Fashioned Artificial Intelligence”

  – i.e. takes a huge set of common sense propositions and generates further propositions via inductive and deductive inference
11.2 The Cyc System

- Cyc introduced **CycL** as an representation language for knowledge
  - Based first-order logic, syntax similar to LISP
- Using CycL, the **knowledge base** is created
  - Knowledge base contains classification of things (starting with the most general category: Thing)
  - Divided in thousands of ‘microtheories’
    - Microtheories contain a bundle of assertions sharing a set of common assumptions
    - Focus on either a certain domain, a particular level of detail, or time interval, etc.
11.2 The Cyc System

• **General knowledge:** things, intangible things, physical objects, individuals, collections, sets, relations...
  – Domain-specific knowledge, for example:
  – Political geography: general information (e.g. What is a border?) and specific information about towns, cities, countries and international organizations Human anatomy and physiology
  – Chemistry
  – lots of others - see Cycorp web page
11.2 The Cyc System

• What does Cyc contain?
11.2 The Cyc System

• The Cyc system comes in two flavors
  – The “real” Cyc
    • Contains all terms, assertions, and also reasoning capabilities
  – OpenCyc
    • Open Source
    • Contains all terms, and all basic assertions
      – No proprietary assertions
      – No reasoning
    • Open Cyc available as CycL knowledgebase or as “semantic web edition” either online or as OWL
      – Web edition provides permanent endpoints for terms
11.2 OpenCyc

- OpenCyc knowledge base web entry for „student“
  - http://sw.opencyc.org/concept/Mx4rvViNGpwpEbGdr
cN5Y29ycA
• OpenCyc knowledge base web entry for „Kurt Gödel“
  – http://sw.opencyc.org/concept/Mx4rvarT5ZwpEbGdrcN5Y29ycA
11.2 The Cyc System

• However, due to its inductive nature Cyc has several problems
  
  – Conclusions are only valid as long as all assertions and facts are valid
    
    • Hidden inconsistencies break the reasoning process
  
  – “Animals are dumb”, “Humans are animals”, “Scientists are humans who develop scientific theories”, “To develop scientific theories, one needs to be clever”
    
    • ⇒ “There are no scientists”
11.2 The Cyc System

• Also, even consistent data will lead to false conclusions when the dataset is **unrepresentative** for the real world

  – At one point, Cyc contained many famous persons
    • Like the dead organism Gödel…

  – Based on this knowledge, it reasoned that all people are famous
    • … because each person it knew was famous
    • So, from Cyc’s viewpoint this deduction was completely valid
• What can Cyc be used for?
  – The Cyc company itself offers some ideas:
  – Directed marketing
    • Use a person's buying history to infer their hobbies, interests, occupation, physical needs and preferences, etc. From that model, decide which products to try to sell them, and what "argument" to use to convince them they should buy the product.
  – Data base integration
    • Use that same sort of "articulation" approach to have several heterogeneous data bases all relate their contents to one central knowledge base.
11.2 The Cyc System

- **Machine translation of technical documents**
  - Use Cyc to interpret the words encountered in natural language to generate a meaningful translation

- **Language understanding**
  - As above, use to understand certain texts and mine for its meaning

- **Security**
  - One of Cyc’s major sponsors…
  - CycSecure is able to scan security relevant documents and network traffic in order to identify potential security risks or breaches
11.3 Knowledge on the Web

• Representing knowledge is also useful for annotating information on the Web
  – Web pages are uniquely identified by their URLs
  – Information like the author, change date, etc. of a Web site can be represented
  – Remember: the WWW started as a telephone directory at CERN
11.3 Knowledge on the Web

• The current Web represents information using
  – Natural language
  – Graphics, multimedia, page layout

• Humans can process this easily...
  – Can deduce facts from partial information
  – Can create mental associations
  – Are used to various sensory information

• Information is searched by using techniques from information retrieval (IR) or page ranking
  – Still, the information on a page is not understood
11.3 Knowledge on the Web

• **Tasks** often require to combine data on the Web
  – Hotel and travel information may come from different sites
  – Searches in different digital libraries

• Again, humans **combine** these information quite easily
  – even if different terminologies are used
11.3 Knowledge on the Web

• What is needed?
  – Data should be available for **machines** for further processing
  – Data should be possibly **combined**, or **merged** on a Web scale
  – Often, data may describe **other** data

• Moreover, the data is to be exchanged by itself, like my calendar or my travel preferences
  – Machines may also need to **reason** about that data
Still, although Web sites are uniquely identifiable, their information is not.

- But if items on or in relation to Web sites are identified and assigned a unique identifier, we can properly represent knowledge.

- So-called URIs (uniform resource identifier)
11.3 The Semantic Web

• The goal of the semantic web is not to understand natural language, but provide web pages in an computer readable form.

The Semantic Web is about two things. It is about common formats for integration and combination of data drawn from diverse sources, where on the original Web mainly concentrated on the interchange of documents. It is also about language for recording how the data relates to real world objects. That allows a person, or a machine, to start off in one database, and then move through an unending set of databases which are connected not by wires but by being about the same thing.
But the vision of the **Semantic Web** is much broader

- Tim Berners Lee’s *article* in Scientific American, May 2001 presents a *vision* of the future Internet

- Describes a story of a guy named Pete looking for medical care for his mom
  
  - He uses a **Semantic Web Agent**
  
  - The agent is able to plan complex tasks by just accessing information in the internet
  
  - E.g. Finding a specialist doctor within direct vicinity of Peter’s home, offering the exact treatment necessary, available for a meeting at times fitting into Peter’s schedule.
11.3 Building Blocks

- The architecture of Semantic Web technology
  - So-called Semantic Web stack
  - We will work our way through from the bottom up

Basic encoding of information
11.3 Encoding Knowledge

- All resources are described by the resource description framework (RDF)
  - Development started in 1997
  - Became a **W3C recommendation** in 2004
  - Idea: use XML to define metadata, i.e. data about data

- The RDF standard deals with two topics
  - The abstract model: how to encode knowledge?
    - [http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-concepts/](http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-concepts/)
  - How to denote such statements in XML?
    - [http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-syntax-grammar/](http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-syntax-grammar/)
11.3 Encoding Knowledge

- RDF allows to decompose knowledge into small pieces, called **triples**
  - Basically knowledge is broken down into a labeled, directed graph
  - Each edge in the graph represents a fact, or a relation between two things
11.3 Encoding Knowledge

• The graph structure...

• ...Can be broken down to triples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Start node</th>
<th>Edge label</th>
<th>End node</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bruce Willis</td>
<td>played_in</td>
<td>Die Hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die Hard</td>
<td>is_a</td>
<td>Movie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die Hard</td>
<td>released_in</td>
<td>1988</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These triples are often referred to as **subject**, **predicate**, and **object**

- A fact is expressed as a Subject-Predicate-Object **triple**, also known as a **statement**
- Names of subjects and predicates are **URIs**
  - Global in scope: always referring to the same entity in any RDF document in which they appear
- Names of objects can be URIs, but also be given as text values, called **literal values**, which may or may not be typed
  - E.g., Die Hard’s release date 1988 is a literal value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Start node</th>
<th>Edge label</th>
<th>End node</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td>predicate</td>
<td>object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11.3 Encoding Knowledge

• A quick note on URIs in RDF
  – RDF uses **URI references** which are URIs, together with an optional fragment identifier at the end
    • The URI reference http://www.w3c.org/index#section2 consists of the URI http://www.w3c.org/index and the fragment identifier section2 (separated by the # character)
  – Since URIs can be quite long, in RDF notations they are usually abbreviated using the concept of **namespaces** from **XML**
    • A namespace with a certain URI can be assigned to a prefix
    • E.g., prefix: w3c is assigned URI: http://www.w3c.org/
    • Now w3c:index means http://www.w3c.org/index
But consider that some information has a \textbf{structure} provided by literals about a resource

\begin{itemize}
\item This leads to \textbf{structured property values}, like e.g., addresses consisting of streets, cities, Zip codes
\item One possibility is to create an intermediate node representing the \textbf{concept} of the structure
  \begin{itemize}
  \item Such a node would need a new URI
  \item All literals concerning the concept would connect to this URI, but otherwise it is rather useless…
  \end{itemize}
\item The second possibility is to use a \textbf{blank node} or anonymous resource
\end{itemize}
11.3 Encoding Knowledge

• But for storing blank nodes in triples, they need a unique name, so-called blank node identifiers.
11.3 RDF/XML

- Remember: resources are identified by URIs and described in terms of properties and values
  - http://www.example.org/bruce_willis identifies a person whose name is ‘Bruce Willis’ and who starred in the movie ‘Die Hard’
To represent statements in a *machine-processable* way RDF uses **XML**

— It defines a specific XML markup language RDF/XML

```
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<rdf:RDF xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"
         xmlns:ex="http://www.example.org/">
  <rdf:Description rdf:about="http://www.example.org/bruce_willis">
    <ex:starred_in>
      <ex:movie rdf:resource="http://www.example.org/die_hard"/>
    </ex:starred_in>
  </rdf:Description>
  <rdf:Description rdf:about="http://www.example.org/bruce_willis">
    <ex:full_name> "Bruce Willis" </ex:full_name>
  </rdf:Description>
</rdf:RDF>
```
11.3 RDF/XML

- Let us go through the simplified example…
  - File is XML version 1.0
  - Namespace declarations
  - Description ‘about’ a subject using a predicate and a literal
  - If the object had been a resource it would be written rdf:resource= "..."

```xml
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<rdf:RDF xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"
    xmlns:ex="http://www.example.org/">
    <rdf:Description rdf:about="http://www.example.org/bruce_willis">
        <ex:full_name> "Bruce Willis" </ex:full_name>
    </rdf:Description>
</rdf:RDF>
```
• RDF applications sometimes need to describe other RDF statements using RDF
  – E.g., to record when statements were made, who made them, … so-called provenance information
  – RDF provides a built-in vocabulary intended for describing RDF statements
    • A description of a statement using this vocabulary is called reification of the statement
The RDF reification vocabulary consists of:

- The type `rdf:Statement`
- The properties `rdf:subject`, `rdf:predicate`, and `rdf:object`
- For example, we might be interested in who actually provided Bruce Willis’ year of birth.

Here is an example:

```
<rdf:Description rdf:about="http://www.example.org/bruce_willis">
  <ex:born_in>"1955"</ex:born_in>
</rdf:Description>
```

The URL `http://www.example.org/bruce_willis` represents Bruce Willis, and `http://www.example.org#born_in` represents the property of birth year, with the value `1955`.
To be able to describe the statement, we need to \textbf{reify} it first, e.g., as triple “#triple15667” and can then add information about the triple

\begin{verbatim}
<rdf:Description rdf:about="http://www.example.org/bruce_willis">
  <ex:born_in> "1955" </ex:born_in>
</rdf:Description>

<rdf:Statement rdf:about="#triple15667">
  <rdf:subject rdf:resource=" http://www.example.org/bruce_willis "/>
  <rdf:predicate rdf:resource="ex:born_in"/>
  <rdf:object > "1955" </rdf:object>
</rdf:Statement>

<rdf:Description rdf:about="#triple15667">
</rdf:Description>
\end{verbatim}
• Using reification needs careful considerations
  – The subject of the reification triples should identify a particular instance of a triple in a particular RDF document
    • There could be several triples that have the same subject, predicate, and object, but RDF provides no way to distinguish between them
    • This can be (to some degree) remedied by using triple identifiers directly in the predicate of some instance

```xml
<rdf:Description rdf:about="http://www.example.org/bruce_willis">
  <ex:born_in rdf:ID="#triple15667">"1955"</ex:born_in>
</rdf:Description>
```
• For more details on the exact syntax see W3C’s RDF/XML Syntax Specification
  – Accepted as W3C recommendation in 2004
  – http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-syntax-grammar/
• **RDF Schema** defines valid RDF statements
  – Officially called **RDF Vocabulary Description Language**
  – Provides the basic elements for the description of vocabulary **ontologies**

• Why do we need vocabularies?
  – RDF itself allows the use of any URI reference
    • *e.g.* `moviedb:played_in` or `mdb:acts_in`
    • However, often it is beneficial to restrict the possible terms and/or relations in order to increase interoperability between RDF documents
      – Think of integration…
• Without controlled vocabulary, shared domain ontologies are hard to realize
  
  – \texttt{starred\_in} \equiv \texttt{acts\_in} ??

\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{http://www.example.org/die\_hard}
  \item \texttt{http://www.example.org/bruce\_willis}
  \item \texttt{http://www.mdb.com/actor/bruce\_willis}
  \item \texttt{http://www.mdb.com/movie\_die\_hard}
  \item \texttt{http://www.mdb.com\#acts\_in}
\end{itemize}


11.3 RDF Schema

- RDF-S provides the **building blocks** for creating **vocabularies** (or also called **schemas**)
  - RDF Schema does **not provide** actual application-specific classes and properties
  - Instead RDF Schema provides the framework to describe application-specific classes and properties
  - It provides means for relating certain URI resources using **predefined semantics**
    - Groups resources into classes and properties
    - Relations among those classes and properties possible
  - Later, other RDF files may use domain vocabularies defined using RDF-S
11.3 RDF Schema

• First of all, RDF vocabulary written in RDF-S are valid RDF graphs themselves
  – RDF-S mainly provides predefined edge labels and end labels

• RDF-S Classes
  – All used resources can be divided into groups called “classes”
    • Similar to classes in OO languages like Java
    • Classes may have subclasses (and thus inheritance)
    • Membership to a class is indicated by `rdf:type`, subclasses by `rdfs:subClassOf`
11.3 RDF Schema

- Example:
  - `mdb:Movie  rdf:type  rdfs:Class`
  - `mdb:Comedy  rdfs:subClassOf  mdb:Movie`
  - `mdb:ActionMovie  rdfs:subClassOf  mdb:Movie`

- i.e. Movie is a class of specific “things”, ActionMovies are specialized movies (thus each ActionMovie is also a Movie)

- The characteristics of classes can be described using **properties**
  - Technically, properties are also classes but are only used to further describe their associated base classes
• RDF-S provides further facilities to describe the nature of properties and classes
  – Like its range, domain, type, etc.

• Example:
  – mdb:Movie  rdf:type  rdfs:Class
  mdb:Person  rdf:type  rdfs:Class
  mdb:has_cast  rdf:type  rdfs:Property
  mdb:has_cast  rdfs:domain  mdb:Person
  mdb:has_cast  rdfs:range  mdb:Movie

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11.3 RDF Schema

• Note: Properties in RDF-S differ slightly from those used in OO languages
  – OO:
    • Properties are part of the class definition
  – RDF-S:
    • Properties are defined on their own and assigned to classes via their range and domain.
    • Multiple ranges and/or domains are possible
      – e.g. has_cast might have two ranges, namely mdb:Movie and tdb:TheaterPerformance
11.3 RDF Schema

• Using RDF-S within a RDF knowledgebase:
  – Instances are usually defined within their own document
  – Schema is imported

```xml
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<rdf:RDF xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"
         xmlns:mdb="http://www.mdb.org/schemas/movieSchema#">

  <mdb:Movie rdf:ID="DieHard">
    <mdb:hasCast rdf:resource="mdb:BruceWillis" />
  </mdb:Movie>

  <mdb:Person rdf:ID="BruceWillis" />

</rdf:RDF>
```
11.3 RDF Schema

• RDF-S provides much **additional semantics** for specifying schemas
  – data types, typed literals, comments, labels, enumerations, references, etc.
  • See next slides…
  – The full standard is available under: http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-schema/
### 11.3 RDF Schema - Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Class of</th>
<th>rdfs:subClassOf</th>
<th>rdf:type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>all resources</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
<td>all classes</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdfs:Literal</td>
<td>literal values</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdfs:Datatype</td>
<td>datatypes</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdf:XMLLiteral</td>
<td>XML literal values</td>
<td>rdfs:Literal</td>
<td>rdfs:Datatype</td>
</tr>
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<td>rdf:Property</td>
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<td>rdfs:Class</td>
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<td>rdfs:Container</td>
<td>containers</td>
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<td>rdfs:Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdf:Bag</td>
<td>unordered containers</td>
<td>rdfs:Container</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdf:Seq</td>
<td>ordered containers</td>
<td>rdfs:Container</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdf:Alt</td>
<td>containers of alternatives</td>
<td>rdfs:Container</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>rdfs:_1... properties expressing membership</td>
<td>rdf:Property</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
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### 11.3 RDF Schema - Properties

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Relates</th>
<th>rdfs:domain</th>
<th>rdfs:range</th>
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<tr>
<td>rdfs:range</td>
<td>restricts subjects</td>
<td>rdf:Property</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
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<td>rdfs:domain</td>
<td>restricts objects</td>
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<td>rdfs:Class</td>
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<td>instance of</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
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<tr>
<td>rdfs:subClassOf</td>
<td>subclass of</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
<td>rdfs:Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdfs:subPropertyOf</td>
<td>subproperty of</td>
<td>rdf:Property</td>
<td>rdfs:Property</td>
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<tr>
<td>rdfs:label</td>
<td>human readable label</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>rdfs:Literal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdfs:comment</td>
<td>human readable comment</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>rdfs:Literal</td>
</tr>
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<td>rdfs:member</td>
<td>container membership</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
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<td>rdfs:seeAlso</td>
<td>further information</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
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<tr>
<td>rdfs:isDefinedBy</td>
<td>definition</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
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<td>rdf:value</td>
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<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdf:object</td>
<td>object of statement</td>
<td>rdf:Statement</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
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<tr>
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<td>rdf:subject</td>
<td>subject of of statement</td>
<td>rdf:Statement</td>
<td>rdfs:Resource</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Taxonomies & Ontologies
  – Knowledge representation
  – Reasoning
  – DAML+OIL
  – OWL