Knowledge Representation

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What is knowledge?

- 1. The state or fact of knowing.
- 2. Familiarity, awareness, or understanding gained through experience or study.
- 3. The sum or range of what has been perceived, discovered, or learned.
- 4. Learning; erudition: teachers of great knowledge.
- 5. Specific information about something.
- 6. Carnal knowledge.



Why do we want to represent it?

Knowledge Representation: Formal reconstruction of knowledge and its implementation.

- Encyclopedias are not always optimal
- Lots of redundant information, Cross-references, search for properties
- For Knowledge transmission, use something like our brain
- Feed computers with knowledge
- Let the computer think for us: intelligent action requires 70.000 ± 20.000 knowledge units per subject area.

What do we need to represent?

Like in nature: how do we recognize things? Define the criteria we need: optional and needed ones.

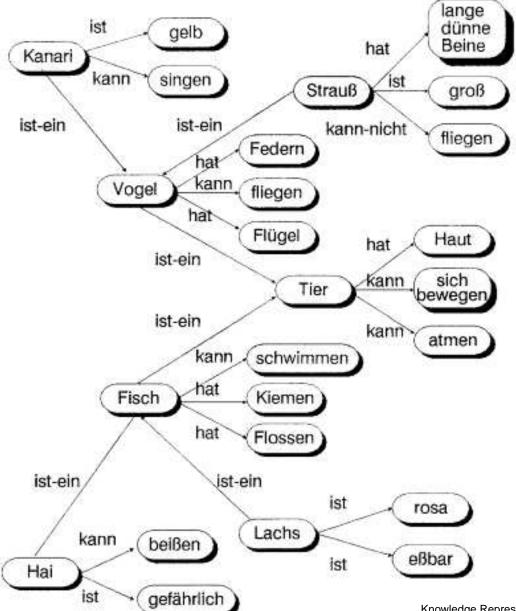


- Mouse: Mammalian
- Size: small
- Shape: ears, muzzle, short legs
- Exact acquisition of dimensions and relations

Use of fuzzy logic to identify slightly different elements



Semantic Network





How would we do that?







- Automatic acquisition still very problematic: semantic recognition in speech and pictures.
- What we need are double linked elements: to go from the mouse to its properties and to get from the properties to the mouse.
- Classify objects according to their properties: Let's try to define these properties

Ontology

- The subject of ontology is the study of the categories of things that exist or may exist in some domain.
- The product of such a study, called an ontology, is a catalog of the types of things that are assumed to exist in a domain of interest D from the perspective of a person who uses a language L for the purpose of talking about D.
- An uninterpreted logic, such as predicate calculus, conceptual graphs, or KIF, is ontologically neutral.
- It imposes no constraints on the subject matter or the way the subject may be characterized.

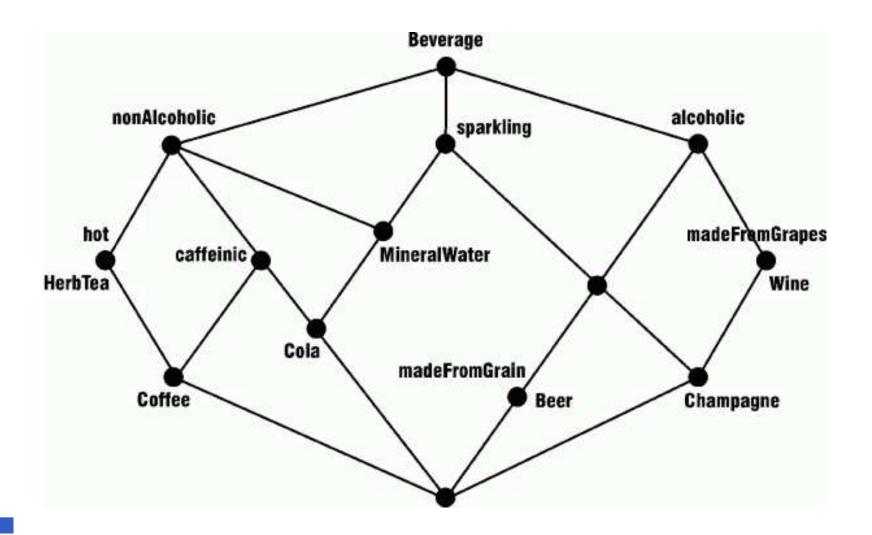


Ontology (2)

- By itself, logic says nothing about anything, but the combination of logic with an ontology provides a language that can express relationships about the entities in the domain of interest.
- An informal ontology may be specified by a catalog of types that are either undefined or defined only by statements in a natural language (Mouse example).
- A formal ontology is specified by a collection of names for concept and relation types organized in a partial ordering by the type-subtype relation (Drinks example).



Ontology (3)



Ontology (4)

- Formal ontologies are further distinguished by the way the subtypes are distinguished from their supertypes: an axiomatized ontology distinguishes subtypes by axioms and definitions stated in a formal language, such as logic or some computer-oriented notation that can be translated to logic;
- a prototype-based ontology distinguishes subtypes by a comparison with a typical member or prototype for each subtype. Large ontologies often use a mixture of definitional methods: formal axioms and definitions are used for the terms in mathematics, physics, and engineering; and prototypes are used for plants, animals, and common household items.



Uses of Knowledge-Based Systems

- Interpretation → Data-Mining
- Diagnosis
- Planing
- Robots
- Belief-Networks: Bayes-Nets
- Artificial Intelligence



Examples

feature scope of feature value

name letter string

age 0–100 years

sex male, female

height 0–2.10 m

weight 0–150 kg

address city name

occupation list of occupations

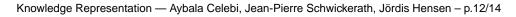
telephone number integer



Examples: SQL

Use relational algebra to define relational databases (tables) and use Structured Query Language (SQL) to store and retrieve information.

```
SELECT name FROM people
WHERE weight > '100' AND height < '1.75'
AND ( address = 'Darmstadt'
OR address = 'Griesheim');</pre>
```



Examples: PROLOG

```
father(rob, bev).
father(paul, rob).
                       father(jeff, aaron).
father(rob, ally).
mother(mary, rob).
                   mother(dorothy, bev).
mother(dorothy, ally). mother(ally, aaron).
parent(M,C) :- mother(M,C).
parent(F,C) :- father(F,C).
grandparent(Gparent, Gchild):-
     parent(Gparent,X), parent(X, Gchild).
:- sibling(bev, ally).
:- mother(M, rob); father(F, rob).
:- parent(X, rob).
```

Thank you for your attention!

References

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- [5] TOSCANA —a Graphical Tool for Analyzing and Exploring Data
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