Semantic Technologies

Part 10: RDFS Rule-based Reasoning

Werner Nutt

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These slides are based on the Latex version of slides by Sebastian Rudolph of TU Dresden

- Overview
- What are Rules?
- Kinds of Rules
- Datalog
- Semantics of Rules
- Evaluating Datalog Programs

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Overview

- Rules
 - Llyod-Topor Transformation
- Datalog
 - Characterizations of Datalog Program Semantics
- Evaluating Datalog Programs
 - Naïve Evaluation
 - Semi-naïve Evaluation
- Rules for RDFS via a Triple Predicate
- Rules for RDFS via Direct Translation

Agenda

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- Basic elements of rules are atoms
 - ground atoms without free variables
 - non-ground atoms with free variables

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- Logic rules (fragments of predicate logic):
 - $F \rightarrow G$ equivalent to $\neg F \lor G$
 - logical extension of knowledge base → static
 - open world
 - declarative (describing)
- Procedural rules (e.g. production rules)
 - "If X then Y else Z"
 - executable commands → dynamic
 - operational (meaning = effect caused when executed)
- Logic programming et al. (e.g. PROLOG, F-Logic):
 - man(X) <- person(X) AND NOT woman(X)
 - approximation of logical semantics with operational aspects, built-ins are possible
 - a often closed-world
 - semi-declarative

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Predicate Logic as a Rule Language

Rules as implication formulae in predicate logic:

$$\underbrace{H}_{\text{head}} \leftarrow \underbrace{A_1 \wedge A_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge A_n}_{\text{body}}$$

→ semantically equivalent to disjunction:

$$H \vee \neg A_1 \vee \neg A_2 \vee \ldots \vee \neg A_n$$

- Implications often written from right to left(\leftarrow or :-)
- Constants, variables and function symbols allowed
- Quantifiers for variables are often omitted: free variables are often understood as universally quantified (i.e. rule is valid for all variable assignments)

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RDFS Rule-based Reasoning

Example:

$$\texttt{hasUncle}(x,z) \leftarrow \texttt{hasParent}(x,y) \land \texttt{hasBrother}(y,z)$$

- we use short names (hasUncle) instead of IRIs like http://example.org/Example#hasUncle
- we use x,y,z for variables

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Lloyd-Topor Transformation

Multiple heads in atoms are usually understood as conjunction

$$H_1, H_2, \dots, H_m \leftarrow A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$$
 equivalent to
$$H_1 \leftarrow A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$$

$$H_2 \leftarrow A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$$

$$\dots$$

$$H_m \leftarrow A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$$

Such a rewriting is also referred to as Lloyd-Topor transformation

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- Kinds of Rules

- Clause: disjunction of atomic and negated atomic propositions
 - Woman $(x) \vee Man(x) \leftarrow Person(x)$
- Horn clause: clause with at most one non-negated atom
 - \leftarrow Man(x) \wedge Woman(x)
- Definite clause: Horn clause with exactly one non-negated atom
 - Father(x) \leftarrow Man(x) \wedge hasChild(x, y)
- Fact: clause containing just one non-negated atom
 - Woman(gisela)

(12/54)

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Rules may also contain **function symbols**:

$$\mathsf{hasUncle}(x,y) \leftarrow \mathsf{hasBrother}(\mathsf{mother}(x),y)$$
$$\mathsf{hasFather}(x,\mathsf{father}(x)) \leftarrow \mathsf{Person}(x)$$

- → new elements are dynamically generated
- → not considered here
- → see logic programming

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- Datalog

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Horn rules without function symbols → Datalog rules

- logical rule language, originally basis of deductive databases
- knowledge bases ("programs") consisting of Horn clauses without function symbols
- decidable
- efficient for big data sets, due to refined optimizations
- a lot of research done in the late 1980s and the 1990s

Datalog as Extension of the Relational Calculus

Datalog can be conceived as extension of the relation calculus by recursion

$$T(x, y) \leftarrow E(x, y)$$

 $T(x, y) \leftarrow E(x, z) \wedge T(z, y)$

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 \sim computes the transitive closure (*T*) of the binary relation *E*, (e.g. if *E* contains the edges of a graph)

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a set of (ground) facts is also called an instance

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Three different but equivalent ways to define the semantics:

- model-theoretically
- proof-theoretically
- via fixpoints

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RDFS Rule-based Reasoning

Rules are seen as logical sentences:

$$\forall x, y. (T(x, y) \leftarrow E(x, y))$$
$$\forall x, y. (T(x, y) \leftarrow E(x, z) \land T(z, y))$$

- not sufficient to uniquely determine a solution
- \rightarrow interpretation of T has to be minimal

Model-theoretic Semantics of Datalog

In principle, a Datalog rule

$$\rho \colon R_1(\bar{u}_1) \leftarrow R_2(\bar{u}_2), \ldots, R_n(\bar{u}_n)$$

represents the FOL sentence

$$\forall x_1,\ldots,x_n \left(R_1(\bar{u}_1)\leftarrow R_2(\bar{u}_2)\wedge\ldots\wedge R_n(\bar{u}_n)\right)$$

- x_1, \ldots, x_n are the rule's variables and \leftarrow is logical implication
- an instance I satisfies ρ , written $I \models \rho$, if and only if for every instantiation

$$R_1(\nu(\bar{u}_1)) \leftarrow R_2(\nu(\bar{u}_2)), \ldots, R_n(\nu(\bar{u}_n))$$

we find $R_1(\nu(\bar{u}_1))$ satisfied whenever $R_2(\nu(\bar{u}_2)),\ldots,R_n(\nu(\bar{u}_n))$ are satisfied

- An instance I is a model of a Datalog program P, if I satisfies every rule in P (seen as a FOL formula)
- The semantics of P for the input I is the minimal model that contains I (if it exists)
- Question: does such a model always exist?
- If so, how can we construct it?

Based on proofs for facts:

given:
$$E(a,b), E(b,c), E(c,d)$$

 $T(x,y) \leftarrow E(x,y)$ (1)
 $T(x,y) \leftarrow E(x,z) \wedge T(z,y)$ (2)

- (a) E(c,d) is a given fact
- (b) T(c,d) follows from (1) and (a)
- (c) E(b,c) is a given fact
- (d) T(b,d) follows from (c), (b) and (2)
- (e) ...

Proof-theoretic Semantics of Datalog

- Programs can be seen as "factories" that produce all provable facts (deriving new facts from known ones in a **bottom-up** way by applying rules)
- Alternative: top-down evaluation; starting from a to-be-proven fact, one looks for lemmata needed for the proof (→ Resolution)

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Proof-theoretic Semantics of Datalog

A fact is provable, if it has a proof, represented by a proof-tree:

Definition

A proof tree for a fact A for an instance I and a Datalog program P is a labeled tree in which

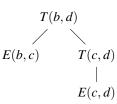
- every node is labeled with a fact
- every leaf is labeled with a fact from I
- the root is labeled with A
- **o** for each internal leaf there exists an instantiation $A_1 \leftarrow A_2, \ldots, A_n$ of a rule in P, such that the node is labeled with A_1 and its children with A_2,\ldots,A_n

Based on proofs for facts:

given:
$$E(a,b), E(b,c), E(c,d)$$

 $T(x,y) \leftarrow E(x,y)$
 $T(x,y) \leftarrow E(x,z) \wedge T(z,y)$

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- (e) ...



(1)

(2)

Fixpoint Semantics

Defines the semantics of a Datalog program as the solution of a fixpoint equation

- procedural definition (iteration until fixpoint reached)
- given an instance I and a Datalog program P, we call a fact A a direct consequence for P and I, if
 - A is contained in I or
 - $A \leftarrow A_1, \dots, A_n$ is an instance of a rule from P, such that $A_1,\ldots,A_n\in I$
- then we can define a "direct consequence"-operator that computes, starting from an instance, all direct consequences
- similar to the bottom-up proof-theoretic semantics, but shorter proofs are always generated earlier than longer ones

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- compatible with other approaches that are based on FOL (e.g. description logics)
- conjunctions in rule heads and disjunction in bodies unnecessary
- other (non-monotonic) semantics definitions possible
 - well-founded semantics
 - stable model semantics
 - answer set semantics
- for Horn rules, these definitions do not differ
- production rules/procedural rules conceive the consequence of a rule as an action "If-then do"
 - → not considered here

- from the database perspective (and opposed to logic programming) one distinguishes facts and rules
- within rules, we distinguish extensional and intensional predicates
- extensional predicates (also: extensional database edb) are those not occurring in rule heads (in our example: relation E)
- intensional predicates (also: intensional database idb) are those occurring in at least one head of a rule (in our example: relation T)
- semantics of a datalog program can be understood as a mapping of given instances over edb predicates to instances of idb predicates

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Datalog in Practice

Datalog in Practice:

- several implementations available
- some adaptations for Semantic Web: XSD types, URIs (e.g. \rightarrow IRIS)

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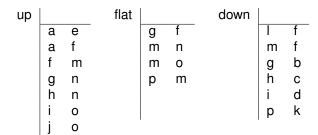
Evaluating Datalog Programs

- Top-down or bottom-up evaluation
- Direct evaluation versus compilation into an efficient program
- Here:
 - Naïve bottom-up Evaluierung
 - Semi-naïve bottom-up Evaluierung

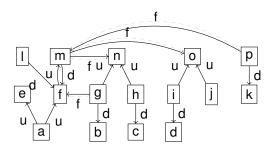
Given Datalog programm:

$$\begin{aligned} rsg(x,y) &\leftarrow flat(x,y) \\ rsg(x,y) &\leftarrow up(x,x_1), rsg(y_1,x_1), down(y_1,y) \end{aligned}$$

Given data:

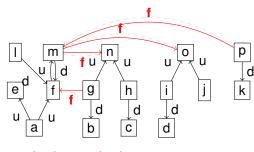


Reverse-Same-Generation - Visualization



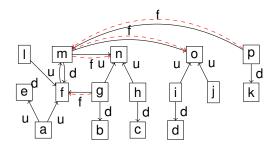
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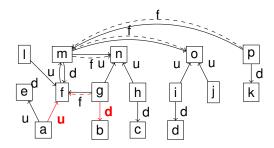
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Reverse-Same-Generation - Visualization



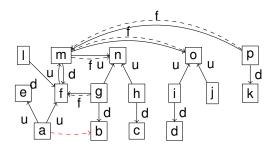
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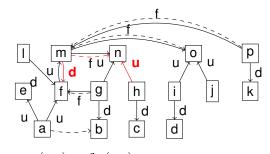
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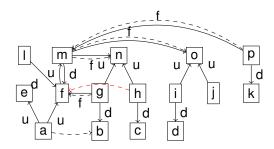
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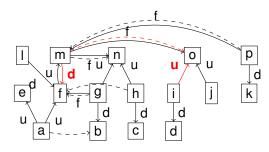
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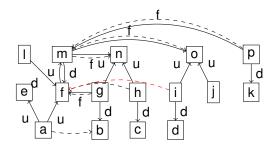
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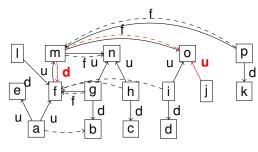
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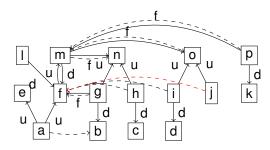


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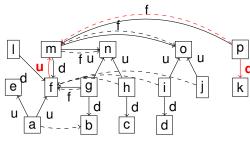
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$$rsg(x, y) \leftarrow flat(x, y)$$

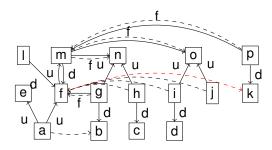
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Reverse-Same-Generation - Visualization



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Naïve Algorithm for Computing rsg

```
rsg(x, y) \leftarrow flat(x, y)
rsg(x, y) \leftarrow up(x, x_1), rsg(y_1, x_1), down(y_1, y)
```

Algorithm 1 RSG

```
rsg := \emptyset
repeat
     rsg := rsg \cup flat \cup \pi_{16}(\sigma_{2=4}(\sigma_{3=5}(up \times rsg \times down)))
until fixpoint reached
```

```
rsg^{i+1} := rsg^i \cup flat \cup \pi_{16}(\sigma_{2=4}(\sigma_{3=5}(up \times rsg \times down)))
Level 0:
Level 1: \{(g,f), (m,n), (m,o), (p,m)\}
             Level 1 \cup {(a,b),(h,f),(i,f),(j,f),(f,k)}
Level 2:
Level 3:
             Level 2 \cup {(a, c), (a, d)}
Level 4:
             Level 3
```

Naïve Algorithm for Evaluating Datalog Programs

- Redundant computations (all elements of the preceding level are taken into account)
- On each level, all elements of the preceding level are re-computed
- Monotone (rsg is extended more and more)

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Focus on facts that have been newly computed on the preceding level

Algorithm 2 RSG'

$$\begin{array}{l} \Delta^{1}_{rsg}(x,y) := \mathit{flat}(x,y) \\ \Delta^{i+1}_{rsg}(x,y) := \mathit{up}(x,x_{1}), \Delta^{i}_{rsg}(y_{1},x_{1}), \mathit{down}(y_{1},y) \end{array}$$

- not recursive
- no Datalog program (set of rules is infinite)
- for each input I and Δ_{rsg}^{i} (the newly computed instances on level i),

$$rsg^{i+1} - rsg^i \subseteq \Delta_{rsg}^{i+1} \subseteq rsg^{i+1}$$

- RSG(I)(rsg) = $\bigcup_{1 \leq i} (\Delta_{rsg}^i)$
- less redundancy

An Improvement

But:
$$\Delta_{rsg}^{i+1} \neq rsg^{i+1} - rsg^{i}$$

e.g.: $(g,f) \in \Delta_{rsg}^{2}, (g,f) \notin rsg^{2} - rsg^{1}$
 $\sim rsg(g,f) \in rsg^{1}$, because $flat(g,f)$,
 $\sim rsg(g,f) \in \Delta_{rsg}^{2}$, because $up(g,n), rsg(m,n), down(m,f)$

• idea: use $rsg^i - rsg^{i-1}$ instead of Δ^i_{rsg} in the second "rule" of RSG'

Algorithm 3 RSG"

$$\begin{split} & \Delta_{rsg}^{1}(x,y) := flat(x,y) \\ & rsg^{1} := \Delta_{rsg}^{1} \\ & tmp_{rsg}^{i+1}(x,y) := up(x,x_{1}), \Delta_{rsg}^{i}(y_{1},x_{1}), down(y_{1},y) \\ & \Delta_{rsg}^{i+1}(x,y) := tmp_{rsg}^{i+1} - rsg^{i} \\ & rsg^{i+1} := rsg^{i} \cup \Delta_{rsg}^{i+1} \end{split}$$

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How can we translate an inference rule into a Datalog rule?

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$$rdf: type(u, x) \leftarrow rdfs: domain(a, x) \wedge a(u, y)$$

How can we translate an inference rule into a Datalog rule?

$$rdf: type(u, x) \leftarrow rdfs: domain(a, x) \wedge a(u, y)$$

Problem: no strict separation between data and schema (predicates)

$$\frac{\text{a rdfs:domain x . u a y .}}{\text{u rdf:type x .}} \text{ rdfs2}$$

$$\text{rdf:type}(u,x) \leftarrow \text{rdfs:domain}(a,x) \wedge a(u,y)$$

Solution: use a triple predicate

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Overview

 $Triple(u, rdf : type, x) \leftarrow Triple(a, rdfs : domain, x) \land Triple(u, a, y)$

Overview

$$\mathit{Triple}(u, \mathtt{rdf} : \mathtt{type}, x) \leftarrow \mathit{Triple}(a, \mathtt{rdfs} : \mathtt{domain}, x) \land \mathit{Triple}(u, a, y)$$

Usage of just one predicate reduces optimization potential

Overview

Datalog Rules for RDFS (no Datatypes & Literals)

$$Triple(u, rdf: type, x) \leftarrow Triple(a, rdfs: domain, x) \land Triple(u, a, y)$$

- Usage of just one predicate reduces optimization potential
- All (newly derived) triples are potential candidates for any rule

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Datalog Rules for RDFS (no Datatypes & Literals)

$$Triple(u, rdf: type, x) \leftarrow Triple(a, rdfs: domain, x) \land Triple(u, a, y)$$

- Usage of just one predicate reduces optimization potential
- All (newly derived) triples are potential candidates for any rule
- Rules change when the data changes, no separation between schema and data

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Datalog Rules for RDFS (no Datatypes & Literals)

Solution 2: introduce specific predicates

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Datalog Rules for RDFS (no Datatypes & Literals)

Solution 2: introduce specific predicates

a rdfs:domain x . u a y . rdfs2
$$u \text{ rdf:type x .} \qquad rdfs2$$
$$type(u,x) \leftarrow domain(a,x) \land rel(u,a,y)$$

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Axiomatic Triples as Facts

```
type(rdf:type, rdf:Property)
type(rdf:subject, rdf:Property)
type(rdf:predicate, rdf:Property)
type(rdf:object, rdf:Property)
type(rdf:first, rdf:Property)
type(rdf:rest, rdf:Property)
type(rdf:value, rdf:Property)
type(rdf:_1, rdf:Property)
type(rdf:_2, rdf:Property)
type(..., rdf:Property)
type(rdf:nil, rdf:List)
... (plus RDFS axiomatic triples)
```

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type(..., rdf:Property)
type(rdf:nil, rdf:List)
... (plus RDFS axiomatic triples)
```

 \rightarrow only needed for those rdf:_i that occur in the graphs G_1 and G_2 , if $G_1 \models ^? G_2$ is to be decided

Axiomatic Triples as Facts

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type(rdf:type, rdf:Property)
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type(rdf:_1, rdf:Property)
type(rdf:_2, rdf:Property)
type(..., rdf:Property)
type(rdf:nil, rdf:List)
... (plus RDFS axiomatic triples)
```

 \sim only needed for those rdf:_i that occur in the graphs G_1 and G_2 , if $G_1 \models^? G_2$ is to be decided

RDFS Rule-based Reasoning

RDF Entailment Rules (no Datatypes & Literals)

```
u a y
a rdf:type rdf:Property rdf1

a rdfs:domain x . u a y . rdfs2
u rdf:type x . rdfs2

a rdfs:range x . u a v . rdfs3
v rdf:type x . rdfs3
```

Overview

```
a, b IRIs x, y IRI, blank node or literal u, y IRI or blank node 1 literal :n blank nodes
```

```
u a y
ardf:typerdf:Property rdf1

→ type(a, rdf:Property) ← ref(u, a, y)

ardfs:domain x . u a y . rdfs2

u rdf:type x . rdfs3

ardfs:range x . u a v . rdfs3

v rdf:type x . rdfs4

u a x .

u a x . rdfs4a
```

Overview

```
a, b IRIs x, y IRI, blank node or literal u, y IRI or blank node 1 literal :n blank nodes
```

```
u a y
ard::type rdf:Property rdf1

→ type(a, rdf:Property) ← rel(u, a, y)

a rdf:domain x . u a y rdfs2
u rdf::type x .

→ type(u, x) ← domain(a, x) ∧ rel(u, a, y)

a rdfs:range x . u a v rdfs3

v rdf:type x .

u a x .

u rdf:type rdfs:Resource rdfs4a
```

```
a, b IRIs x, y IRI, blank node or literal u, y IRI or blank node 1 literal ::n blank nodes
```

```
u a y rdf1

→ type(a, rdf:Property) ← rel(u, a, v)

a rdfs:domain x . u a y . rdfs2
\rightarrow type(u, x) \leftarrow domain(a, x) \land rel(u, a, y)
a rdfs:range x . u a v . rdfs3
\rightarrow type(v, x) \leftarrow range(a, x) \land rel(u, a, v)
u a x .
u rdf:type rdfs:Resource . rdfs4a
```

```
x, y IRI, blank node or literal
u. v IRI or blank node 1 literal _:n blank nodes
```

```
u a y
a rdf:type rdf:Property rdf1

→ type(a, rdf:Property) ← rel(u, a, y)

a rdfs:domain x . u a y . rdfs2
u rdf:type x . → rdfs2

v rdf:type x . rdfs3

v rdf:type x . rdfs3

v rdf:type x . rdfs3

→ type(u, x) ← range(a, x) ∧ rel(u, a, y)

u a x .
u rdf:type rdfs:Resource . rdfs4a

→ type(u, rdfs:Resource) ← rel(u, a, x)
```

```
a, b IRIs x, y IRI, blank node or literal u, y IRI or blank node 1 literal _:n blank nodes
```

```
u a v .
v rdf:type rdfs:Resource . rdfs4b

→ type(v, rdfs:Resource) ← rel(u, a, v)

u rdfs:subPropertyOf v . v rdfs:subPropertyOf x .
v rdfs:subPropertyOf x .

u rdfs:subPropertyOf v . rdfs6

u rdf:type rdf:Property .
v rdfs6

u rdfs:subPropertyOf u . rdfs6

a rdfs:subPropertyOf b . u a y .
v rdfs7

a,b IRIs x, y IRI, blank node or literal u, v IRI or blank nodes
```

```
u a v .
v rdf:type rdfs:Resource . rdfs4b

→ type(v, rdfs:Resource) ← rel(u, a, v)

u rdfs:subPropertyOf v . v rdfs:subPropertyOf x . rdfs5
              u rdfs:subPropertyOf x .

⇒ subPropertyOf(u, x) ← subPropertyOf(u, v) ∧ subPropertyOf(v, x)

u rdf:type rdf:Property . u rdfs6
a rdfs:subPropertyOf b . u a y . rdfs7
a. b IRIs
                 x, y IRI, blank node or literal
u. v IRI or blank node 1 literal _:n blank nodes
```

```
u a v · rdf:type rdfs:Resource · rdfs4b

→ type(v, rdfs:Resource) ← rel(u, a, v)

u rdfs:subPropertyOf v · v rdfs:subPropertyOf x · rdfs5

u rdfs:subPropertyOf(u, v) ← subPropertyOf(u, v) ∧ subPropertyOf(v, x)

u rdf:type rdf:Property · rdfs6

→ subPropertyOf(u, u) ← type(u, rdf:Property)

a rdfs:subPropertyOf(u, u) ← type(u, rdf:Property)

a, b Rls x, y IRI, blank node or literal u, v IRI or blank nodes
```

```
u rdf:type rdfs:Class . rdfs8
u rdfs:subClassOf x . v rdf:type u . rdfs9
           v rdf:tvpe x .
u rdf:type rdfs:Class . rdfs10
u rdfs:subClassOf v . v rdfs:subClassOf x . rdfs11
            u rdfs:subClassOf x .
a, b IRIs x, y IRI, blank node or literal
u. v IRI or blank node 1 literal _:n blank nodes
```

```
u rdf:type rdfs:Class . ___ rdfs8

→ subClassOf(u, rdfs:Resource) ← type(u, rdfs:Class)

u rdfs:subClassOf x . v rdf:type u . rdfs9
           v rdf:tvpe x .
u rdf:type rdfs:Class . rdfs10
u rdfs:subClassOf v . v rdfs:subClassOf x . rdfs11
            u rdfs:subClassOf x .
a, b IRIs x, y IRI, blank node or literal
u. v IRI or blank node 1 literal _:n blank nodes
```

```
u rdf:type rdfs:Class . ___ rdfs8

→ subClassOf(u, rdfs:Resource) ← type(u, rdfs:Class)

u rdfs:subClassOf x . v rdf:type u . rdfs9
          v rdf:tvpe x .
\rightarrow type(v, x) \leftarrow subClassOf(u, x) \land type(v, x)
u rdf:type rdfs:Class . rdfs10
u rdfs:subClassOf v . v rdfs:subClassOf x . rdfs11
             u rdfs:subClassOf x .
a, b IRIs x, y IRI, blank node or literal
u. v IRI or blank node 1 literal _:n blank nodes
```

```
u rdf:type rdfs:Class . ___ rdfs8

→ subClassOf(u, rdfs:Resource) ← type(u, rdfs:Class)

u rdfs:subClassOf x . v rdf:type u . rdfs9
          v rdf:tvpe x .
\rightarrow type(v, x) \leftarrow subClassOf(u, x) \land type(v, x)
u rdf:type rdfs:Class . rdfs10
u rdfs:subClassOf v . v rdfs:subClassOf x . rdfs11
            u rdfs:subClassOf x .
a, b IRIs x, v IRI, blank node or literal
u. v IRI or blank node 1 literal _:n blank nodes
```

RDFS Rule-based Reasoning

```
u rdf:type rdfs:ContainerMembershipProperty - rdfs12 u rdfs:subPropertyOf rdfs:member .
```

```
a, b IRIs x, y IRI, blank node or literal u, y IRI or blank node 1 literal .:n blank nodes
```

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RDFS Rule-based Reasoning

RDF Entailment Rules (no Datatypes & Literals)

```
u rdf:type rdfs:ContainerMembershipProperty . rdfs12
      u rdfs:subPropertyOf rdfs:member .

→ subPropertyOf(u, rdfs:member) ← type(u, rdfs:ContainerMembershipProperty)

a, b IRIs
                   x, y IRI, blank node or literal
n. v IRI or blank node 1 literal _:n blank nodes
```

Overview

Agenda

- Rules
 - Llyod-Topor Transformation
- Datalog
 - Characterizations of Datalog Program Semantics
- Evaluating Datalog Programs
 - Naïve Evaluation
 - Semi-naïve Evaluation
- Rules for RDFS via a Triple Predicate
- Rules for RDFS via Direct Translation