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Forschungszentrum
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**Research
Report**
RR-92-16

**An Empirical Analysis of
Terminological Representation Systems**

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May 1992

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An Empirical Analysis of Terminological Representation Systems

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DFKI-RR-92-16

An Analytical Study of
Technological Representation Systems

J. van Houshe, D. J. Koster,
Richard Nelson, and Jan van der
Vliet

1990

A short version of this report will be published in the Proceedings of the Tenth National Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI-92), July 12 - 17, 1992, San Jose, California

This work has been supported by a grant from The Federal Ministry for Research and Technology (FKZ ITW 8901 8).

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An Empirical Analysis of Terminological Representation Systems*

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Abstract

The family of terminological representation systems has its roots in the representation system KL-ONE. Since the development of this system more than a dozen similar representation systems have been developed by various research groups. These systems vary along a number of dimensions. In this paper, we present the results of an empirical analysis of six such systems. Surprisingly, the systems turned out to be quite diverse leading to problems when transporting knowledge bases from one system to another. Additionally, the runtime performance between different systems and knowledge bases varied more than we expected. Finally, our empirical runtime performance results give an idea of what runtime performance to expect from such representation systems. These findings complement previously reported analytical results about the computational complexity of reasoning in such systems.

*This work has been carried out in the WIP project which is supported by the German Ministry for Research and Technology BMFT under contract ITW 8901 8.

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1 Introduction

Terminological representation systems support the taxonomic representation of terminology for AI applications and provide reasoning services over the terminology. Such systems may be used as stand-alone information retrieval systems [11] or as components of larger AI systems, such as natural language systems [30] or design systems [32]. Assuming that the application task is the configuration of computer systems [23], the terminology may contain *concepts* such as *local area network*, *workstation*, *disk-less workstation*, *file server*, etc. Further, these concepts are interrelated by specialization relationships and the specification of necessary and sufficient conditions. A *disk-less workstation* may be *defined* as a *workstation* that has no *disk* attached to it, for example. The main reasoning service provided by terminological representation systems is checking for inconsistencies in concept specifications and determining the specialization relation between concepts—the so-called *subsumption relation*.

The first knowledge representation system supporting this kind of representation and reasoning was KL-ONE [8]. Meanwhile, the underlying framework has been adopted by various research groups, and more than a dozen terminological representation systems have been implemented [25]. These systems vary along a number of important dimensions, such as implementation status, expressiveness of the underlying representation language, completeness of the reasoning services, efficiency, user interface, interface functionality, and integration with other modes of reasoning.

Nowadays, it seems reasonable to build upon an existing terminological representation system instead of building one from scratch. Indeed, this was the idea in our project WIP, which is aimed at knowledge-based, multi-modal presentation of information such as operating instructions [31]. However, it was by no means clear which system to choose. For this reason, we analyzed a subset of the available systems empirically. It turned out that the effort we had to invest could have well been used to implement an additional prototypical terminological representation system. However, we believe that the experience gained is worthwhile, in particular concerning the implementation of future terminological representation systems and standard efforts in the area of terminological representation systems.

One of the main results of our study is that the differences in expressiveness between the existing systems are larger than one would expect considering the fact that all of them are designed using a common semantic framework. These differences led to severe problems when we transported knowledge bases between the systems. Another interesting result is the runtime performance data we obtained. These findings indicate (1) that the structure of the knowledge base can have a significant impact on the performance, (2) that the runtime grows faster than linearly in all systems, and (3) that implementations ignoring efficiency issues can be quite slow. Additionally, the performance data gives an idea of what performance to expect from existing terminological representation systems. These results complement the various analytical results on the computational complexity of terminological reasoning.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. In the next section we give a sketch of the experiment design, and in Section 3 we briefly describe the systems we analyzed. The qualitative results are given in Section 4, and the quantitative results are described in Section 5. The details of the experiments and their results are described in the appendices.

2 The Experiment

The empirical analysis can be roughly divided into two parts (see Figure 1). The first part covers qualitative facts concerning system features and expressiveness. In order to describe the latter aspect, we first developed a “common terminological language” that covers a superset of all terminological languages employed in the systems we considered (see also Appendix A and [3]). The analysis of the expressiveness shows that the intersection over all representation languages used in the systems is quite small.

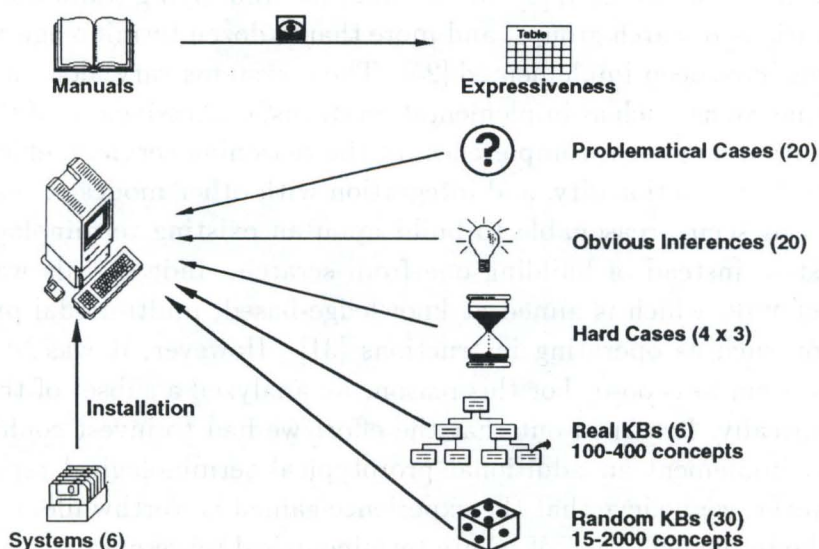


Figure 1: Experiment design

In the second part we ran different test cases on the systems in order to check out the performance, completeness and the handling of problematical cases. We designed five different groups of experiments. The first group consists of tests dealing with cases that are not covered by the common semantic framework of terminological representation systems. The second group explores the degree of the inferential completeness of the systems for “easy” (i.e., polynomial) inferences. It should be noted that we did not try to design these tests in a systematic fashion by trying out all possible combinations of language constructs, though. The third group consists

of problems which are known to be “hard” for existing systems. They give an impression of the runtime performance under worst-case conditions.

For the fourth group of experiments we used existing knowledge bases to get an idea of the runtime performance under “realistic” conditions. First, we manually converted the knowledge bases into the “common terminological language” mentioned above. Then, we implemented a number of translators that map the knowledge bases formulated using the “common terminological language” into system specific knowledge bases.

Although the results of the fourth group of experiments give some clues of what the behavior of the systems may be in applications, we had not enough data points to confirm some of the conjectures that resulted from this initial test under realistic conditions. Additionally, it was not evident in how far the translation, which is only approximate, influenced the performance. For this reason, a fifth group of experiments was designed. A number of knowledge bases were generated randomly with a structure similar to the structure of the realistic knowledge bases.

In general, we concentrated on the *terminological representation* part (also called *TBox*) of the systems. This means that we ignored other representation and reasoning facilities, such as facilities for maintaining and manipulating databases of objects (also called *ABox*) that are described by using the concepts represented in the terminological knowledge base. This concentration on the terminological component is partly justified by the fact that the terminological part is the one which participates in most reasoning activities of the entire system. Thus, runtime performance and completeness of the terminological part can be generalized to the entire system—to a certain degree. However, the systems may (for efficiency reasons) use different algorithms for maintaining a database of objects, which may lead to a different behavior in this case. Nevertheless, even if the generalization is not valid in general, we get at least a feeling how the terminological parts perform.

As a final note, we want to emphasize that our empirical analysis was not intended to establish a ranking between the systems. For this purpose, it would be necessary to assign weights to the dimensions we compared, and this can only be done if the intended application has been fixed. Despite the fact that we analyzed only the terminological subsystems, the tests are not intended to be complete in any sense and there may be more dimensions that could be used to analyze the systems. Further, the results apply, of course, only to the system versions explicitly mentioned in the following section. The system developers of a number of systems have improved their systems since we made our experiment. So, the runtime performance may have changed.

3 Systems

There are a large number of systems which could have been included in an empirical analysis, e.g., KL-ONE [8], LILOG [5], NIKL [29], K-REP [19], KRS [14], KRYPTON [7], YAK [9]. However, we concentrated on a relatively small number of systems. This

does not mean that we feel that the systems we did not include (or mention) are not worthwhile to be analyzed. The only reason not to include all the systems was the limited amount of time available. We hope, however, that our investigation can serve as a starting point for future empirical analyses. The systems we picked for the experiment are: BACK [26] (Version 4.2, pre-released), CLASSIC [24] (Version 1.02, released), KRIS [4] (Version 1.0, experimental), LOOM [18] (Version of May 1990, pre-released), MESON [23] (Version 2.0, released), and SB-ONE [16] (Version of January 1990, released).

The BACK system has been developed at the Technical University of Berlin by the KIT-BACK group as part of the Esprit project ADKMS. The main application is an information system about the financial and organizational structure of a company [10]. It is the only system among the ones we tested that is written in PROLOG. We tested the system on a Solbourne 601/32 using SICSTUS-PROLOG 2.1.

CLASSIC has been developed in the AI Principles Research Department at AT&T Bell Laboratories. It supports only a very limited terminological language, but turned out to be very useful for a number of applications [11]. As all other systems except for BACK, it is written in COMMONLISP and we tested it on a MacIvory.

KRIS has been developed by the WINO project at DFKI. In contrast to other systems, it provides complete inference algorithms for very expressive languages. Efficiency considerations have played no role in the development of the system.

LOOM has been developed at USC/ISI and supports a very powerful terminological logic—in an incomplete manner, though—and offers the user a very large number of features. In fact, LOOM can be considered as a programming environment.

MESON has been developed at the Philips Research Laboratories, Hamburg, as a KR tool for different applications, e.g., computer configuration [23]. Although it is also written in COMMONLISP, we tested it not on a MacIvory but on a Solbourne 601/32 in order to take advantage of its nice X-Window interface.

SB-ONE has been developed in the XTRA project at the University of Saarland as the knowledge representation tool for a natural language project. One of the main ideas behind the design of the system was the possibility of direct graphical manipulations of the represented knowledge.

4 Qualitative Results

The main qualitative result of our experiment is that although the systems were developed with a common framework in mind, they are much more diverse than one would expect. First of all, the terminological languages that are supported by the various systems are quite different. While three of the six systems use a similar syntactic scheme (similar to the one first used by Brachman and Levesque [6]), and one system adapted this syntactic scheme for PROLOG, i.e., infix instead of prefix notation, the remaining two systems use quite different syntactic schemes. Furthermore, there are not only superficial differences in the syntax, but the set of (underlying) *term-forming* operators varies, as well. In fact, the common intersection of all

languages we considered is quite small. It contains only the concept-forming operators *concept conjunction*, *value restriction*, and *number restriction*. The detailed description of the expressiveness of the different systems is given in Appendix B.

These differences led to severe problems when we designed automatic translators from the “common terminological language” to the languages supported by the different systems. Because of the differences in expressiveness, the translations could only be approximate, and because of the differences in the syntax we used a translation schema that preserved the meaning (as far as possible) but introduced a number of auxiliary concepts. Using the translated knowledge bases, we noticed that the introduction of auxiliary concepts (see Appendix F) influences the runtime performance significantly—a point we will return to in Section 5.

Discounting the differences in syntax and expressiveness, one might expect that the common semantic framework (as spelled out by Brachman and Levesque [6]) leads to identical behavior on inputs that have identical meaning and match the expressiveness of the systems. However, this is unfortunately wrong. When a formal specification is turned into an implemented system, there are a number of areas that are not completely covered by the specification. One example is the order of the input. So, some systems allow for *forward references* in term definitions and some do not. Furthermore, some systems support *cyclic definitions* (without handling them correctly according to one of the possible semantics [21], however, or permitting cyclic definitions only in some contexts), and some give an error message. Also *redefinitions* of terms are either marked as errors, processed as revisions of the terminology, or treated as incremental additions to the definition. Finally, there are different rules for *determining the syntactic category* of an input symbol.

Another area where designers of terminological systems seem to disagree is what should be considered as an error by the user. So, some systems mark the definitions of *semantically equivalent* concepts as an error or refuse to accept *semantically empty* (inconsistent) concepts, for instance (see Appendix C).

These differences between the systems made the translation from the “common terminological language” to system-specific languages even more complicated. In fact, some of the problems mentioned above were only discovered when we ran the systems on the translated knowledge bases. We solved that problem by putting the source form of the knowledge base into the most unproblematical form, if possible, or ignored problematical constructions (such as cyclic definitions) in the translation process.

Summarizing, these results show that the ongoing process of specifying a common language for terminological representation and reasoning systems [22, p. 50–51] will probably improve the situation in so far as the translation of knowledge bases between different systems will become significantly easier. One main point to observe, however, is the area of pragmatics we touched above, such as permitting forward references.

Finally, we should mention a point which all systems had in common. In each system we discovered at least one deviation from the documentation, such as missing

an obvious inference or giving a wrong error message. This is, of course, not surprising, but shows that standard test suites should be developed for these systems.

There are a number of other dimensions where the systems differ, such as the integration with other reasoning services, the functionality of graphical user interfaces, ease of installation, and user friendliness, but these are issues which are very difficult to evaluate.

5 Quantitative Results

One important feature of a representation and reasoning system is, of course, its runtime performance. In the case of terminological representation systems, the time to compute the *subsumption hierarchy* of concepts—a process that is often called *classification*—is an interesting parameter. In order to get a feeling for the runtime behavior of the systems we designed several tests to explore how the systems behave under different conditions. Since most of the systems are still under development, the runtime data we gathered is most probably not an accurate picture of the performance of the most recent versions of the systems. In particular, new versions of BACK, CLASSIC, KRIS, and LOOM are available that are faster and/or support more expressive languages.

Computational complexity results show that *subsumption determination* between *terms* is NP-hard [13] or even undecidable [28] for reasonably expressive languages. Even assuming that *term-subsumption* can be computed in polynomial time (e.g., for restricted languages), subsumption determination in a *terminology* is still NP-hard [20]. In order to explore this issue, we designed some tests to determine the behavior of the systems under conditions that are known to be hard (see Appendix E).

One test exploits the NP-hardness result for term-subsumption for languages that contain concept-conjunction, value restrictions, and qualified existential restrictions [12]. It turned out that three systems could not express this case, one system reported an internal error, one system missed the inference (but exhibited a polynomial runtime behavior), and only one system handled the case, but with a very rapid growth in runtime.

Three other tests exploit the NP-hardness result for subsumption in terminologies [20]. The first two tests show that only one of the six systems uses a naive way of performing subsumption in a terminology by expanding all concept definitions before checking subsumption [20, p. 239]. The third test was designed in a way such that also clever subsumption algorithms are bound to use exponential time [20, p. 245].¹ The results of the latter test are given in Figure 2.² They clearly indicate that the

¹Note that the example [20, p. 245] is not correct. The second appearance of each role R in all definitions should be R' . Further note that the number of concepts specified in Figure 2 does not coincide with the parameter n in the worst-case example [20, p. 245].

²The runtimes of BACK and MESON are not directly comparable with the other systems because BACK and MESON were tested on a Solbourne 601/32, which is two to three times faster than a MacIvory with respect to the execution of COMMONLISP programs, a remark that applies also to the other runtime performance tests. Additionally, it is not clear to us in how far the performance

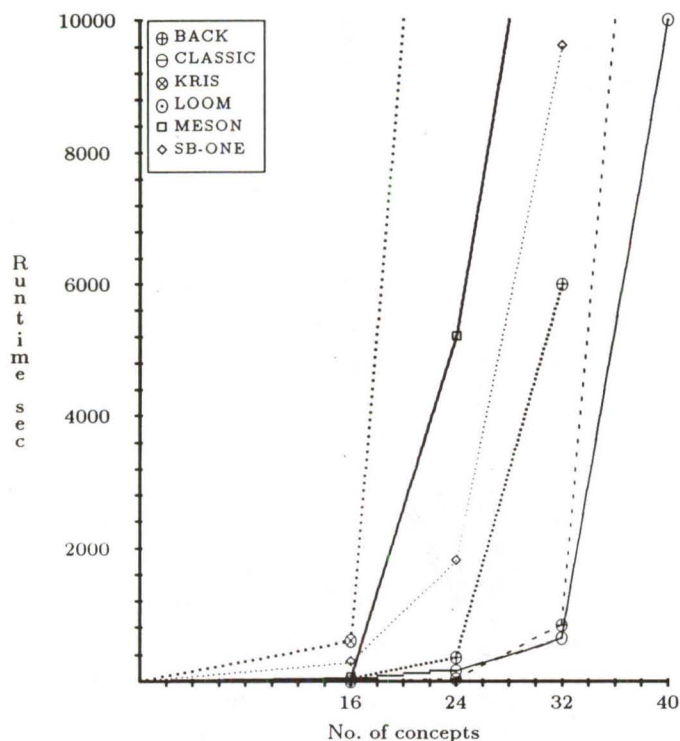


Figure 2: Runtime performance for hard cases

systems indeed exhibit a very rapid growth in the runtime.

Despite their theoretical intractability, terminological reasoning systems have been used for quite a while and the literature suggests that the knowledge bases involved were larger than just toy examples (i.e., more than 40 concepts). Hence, one would assume that the knowledge bases that have been used in applications are of a form that permits easy inferences, or the systems are incomplete and ignore costly inferences. In any case, it is questionable of whether the runtime performance for worst-case examples give us the right idea of how systems will behave in applications.

In order to get a feeling of the runtime performance under realistic conditions, we asked other research groups for terminological knowledge bases they use in their projects. Doing so, we obtained six different knowledge bases. As mentioned above, these were first manually translated into the “common terminological language” and then translated to each target language using our (semi-) automatic translators. In Figure 3, the runtime for the systems is plotted against the number of concepts defined in the different knowledge bases (see Appendix F).³

There are a number of interesting points to note here. First of all, two systems, namely, KRIS and SB-ONE, were too slow to be plotted together with the other systems using the same scale. For this reason, we divided the runtimes by the factor

of BACK is influenced by the fact that it is implemented in PROLOG.

³The number of concepts were counted *after* the translation, i.e., this number includes the auxiliary concepts introduced in the translation process.

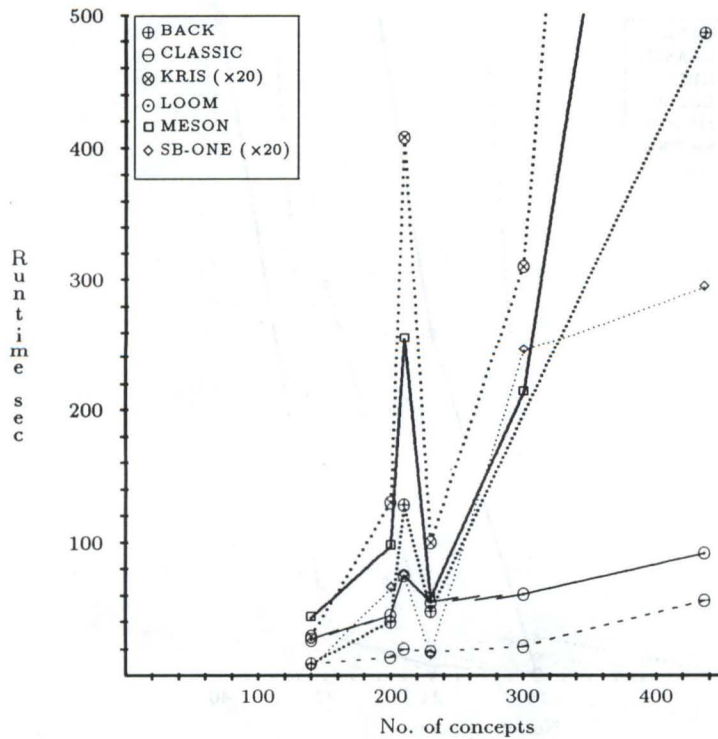


Figure 3: Runtime performance for realistic cases

of 20 before plotting it.

Second, the diagram indicates that the runtime ratio between the slowest system (KRIS) and the fastest system (CLASSIC) in case of the largest knowledge base is extreme, namely, $45,000/56 \approx 800$.⁴ Considering that KRIS was developed as an experimental testbed for different complete subsumption algorithms and CLASSIC was designed as an efficient system for an expressively limited language to be used in different applications, this result is actually not completely surprising. It would be of course desirable to explain this and other differences in performance on the level of algorithms and implementation techniques. However, these issues are not described in the literature and a source code analysis was beyond the scope of our analysis.

Third, the knowledge base with 210 concepts seems to be somehow special because the runtime curve shows a peak at this point. Inspecting this knowledge base, we discovered that one concept is declared to be super-concept (i.e., mentioned literally in the definition) of 50% of all other concepts. Removing this concept led to a smoother curve. Hence, the structure of a knowledge base can severely influence

⁴This result cannot be attributed to the incompleteness of CLASSIC, the approximate character of the translation, or the differing number of auxiliary concepts introduced in the translation process. The knowledge base was formulated in a terminological language such that both CLASSIC and KRIS are complete, which implies that in this case the translation was also meaning preserving. Further, the knowledge base for KRIS contains fewer auxiliary concepts than the knowledge base for CLASSIC.

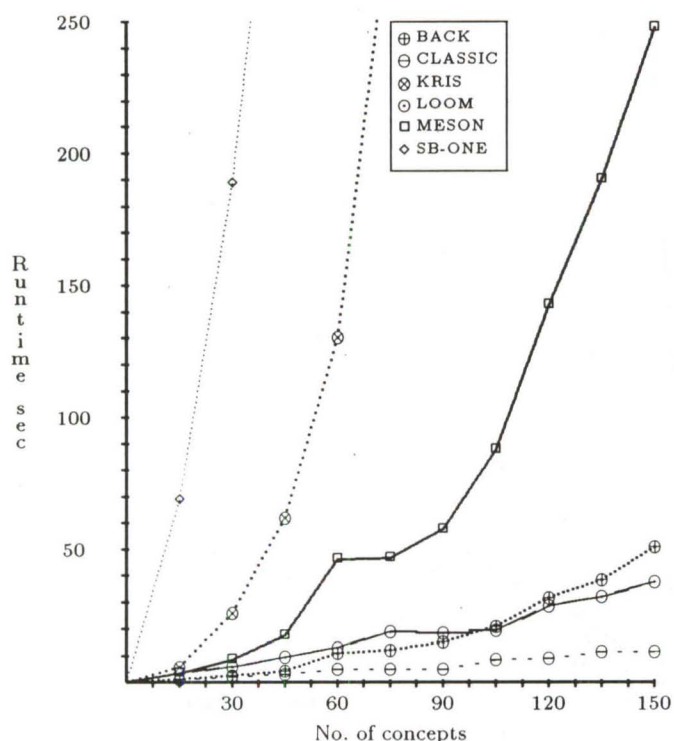


Figure 4: Runtime performance for small random KBs

the runtime. Although this should have been obvious already from the first diagram showing the runtime behavior under worst-case conditions, it is an indication that under realistic conditions the runtime behavior can be unexpectedly influenced by the structure of the knowledge base.

Summarizing the curves in Figure 3, it seems to be the case that most of the systems, except for SB-ONE, are similar in their runtime behavior in that the same knowledge bases are considered as “difficult” or “easy” to a similar degree. However, it is not clear whether the system runtimes differ only by a constant factor or not. Further, because of the approximative nature of the translations and the introduction of auxiliary concepts, it is not clear to us how reliable the data is. For these reasons, we generated knowledge bases randomly in the intersection of all languages—avoiding the translation problem. The structure of these generated knowledge bases resembles the structure of the six real knowledge bases (percentage of defined concepts, average number of declared super-concepts, average number of role restrictions, etc.). The results of this test are given in Figures 4, 5, and 6 (see also Appendix G).

Comparing the curves in these three figures with the curves in Figure 3, it seems to be the case that the structure of the randomly generated knowledge bases is indeed similar to the structure of realistic knowledge bases in so far as they lead to a similar runtime performance. However, we do not claim that the knowledge bases are realistic with respect to all possible aspects. In fact, too few facts are known

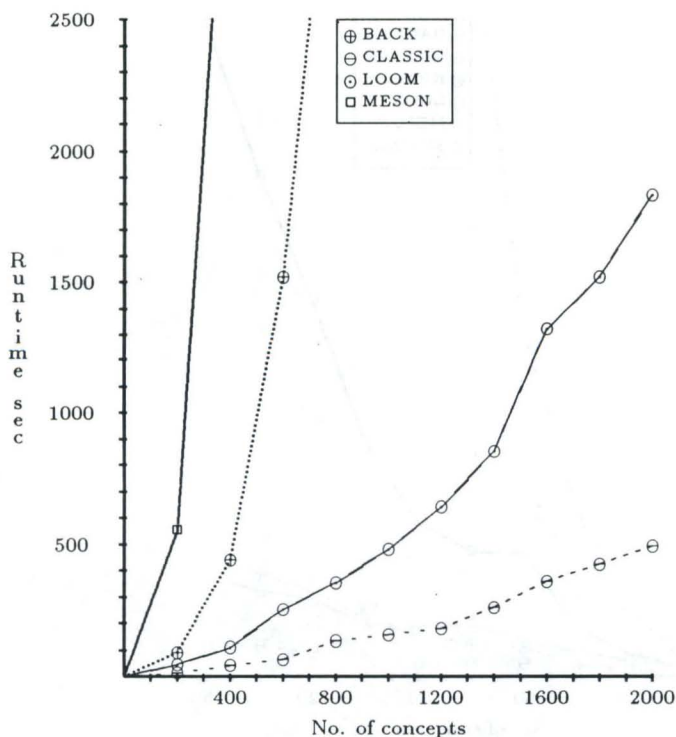


Figure 5: Runtime performance for large random KBs

about which structural properties can influence the performance of terminological representation systems. Bob MacGregor, for instance, reported that the number of distinct roles heavily influence the performance. He observed that the runtime *decreases* when the number of distinct roles is increased and all other parameters are hold constant (same number of concepts and role restrictions).

These curves indicate that the runtime grows faster than linearly with the number of concepts. We conjecture that in general the runtime of terminological representation systems is at least quadratic in the number of concepts. This conjecture is reasonable because identifying a partial order over a set of elements that are ordered by an underlying partial order is worst-case quadratic (if all elements are incomparable), and there is no algorithm known that is better for average cases. In fact, average case results are probably very hard to obtain because it is not known how many partial orders exist for a given number of elements [1, p. 271].

From this, we conclude that designing efficient terminological representation systems is not only a matter of designing efficient *subsumption algorithms*, but also a matter of designing efficient *classification algorithms*, i.e., fast algorithms that construct a partial order. The main point in this context is to minimize the number of subsumption tests.

Another conclusion of our runtime tests could be that the more expressive and complete a system is, the slower it is—with KRIS as a system supporting complete inferences for a very expressive language and CLASSIC with almost complete infer-

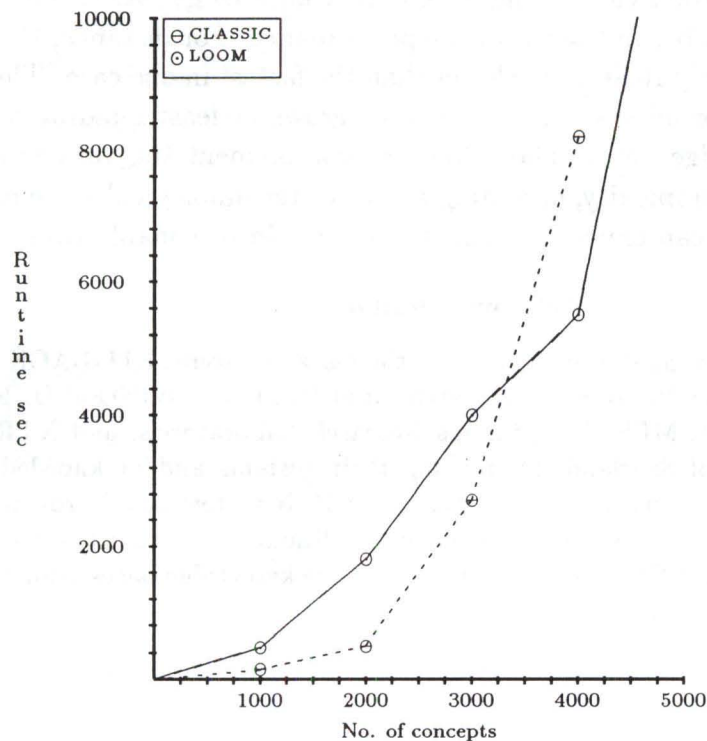


Figure 6: Runtime performance for very large random KBs

ences for a comparably simple language at the extreme points. However, we do not believe that this is a *necessary* phenomenon. A desirable behavior of such systems is that the user would have “to pay only as s/he goes,” i.e., only if the full expressive power is used, the system is slow. In fact, together with the WINO group we are currently working on identifying the performance bottlenecks in the KRIS system. First experiences indicate that it is possible to come close to the performance of LOOM and CLASSIC for the knowledge bases used in our tests.

6 Conclusions

We have analyzed six different terminological representation and reasoning systems from a qualitative and quantitative point of view. The empirical analysis of the different terminological languages revealed that the common intersection of the languages supported by the systems is quite small. Together with the fact that the systems behave differently in areas that are not covered by the common semantic framework, sharing of knowledge bases between the systems does not seem to be easily achievable. In fact, when we tried to translate six different knowledge bases from a “common terminological language” into the system-specific languages we encountered a number of problems.

Testing the runtime performance of the systems, we noted that the structure of the knowledge base can have a significant impact on the performance, even if we do

not consider artificial worst-case examples but real knowledge bases. Further, the systems varied considerably in their runtime performance. For instance, the slowest system was approximately 1000 times slower than the fastest in one case. The overall picture suggests that for all systems the runtime grows at least quadratically with the size of the knowledge base. These findings complement the various analyses of the computational complexity, providing a user of terminological systems with a feeling of how much he can expect from such a system in reasonable time.

Acknowledgment

We would like to thank the members of the research groups KIT-BACK at TU Berlin, AI Principles Research Department at Bell Labs., WINO at DFKI, LOOM at USC/ISI, MESON at Philips Research Laboratories, and XTRA at the University of Saarland, for making their systems and/or knowledge bases available to us, answering questions about their systems, and providing comments on an earlier version of this paper. Additionally we want to express our thanks to Michael Gerlach, who made one of the knowledge bases available to us.

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A The Common Terminological Language CTL

The common semantic framework of terminological representation systems can be sketched as follows. There exists a number of atoms that belong to different syntactic categories. Usually, there are at least two disjoint categories, *roles* and *concepts*. Sometimes also *individuals* and *attributes* are part of the vocabulary. The meaning of these atoms is specified set-theoretically. A concept atom denotes some subset of the universe, a role atom denotes a two-place relation over the universe, an attribute atom denotes a partial function, and an individual atom denotes one element of the universe. A number of concept- and role-forming operators can be used to form new concept and role expressions where the meaning of these expressions is determined compositionally from its parts. Additionally, there are some operators to assign the meaning of an expression to an atom, to form so-called “terminological axioms”. Finally, there may be some operators to specify restrictions on the interpretation of atoms, for instance, that two concept atoms are disjoint or that they cover the interpretation of another concept.

We assume four different alphabets of symbols, namely,

- the set of *individual symbols* \mathbf{I} , where i and j denote elements of \mathbf{I} ;
- the set of *concept symbols* \mathbf{A} , where A and B are used to denote elements of \mathbf{A} ;
- the set of *role symbols* \mathbf{P} , where P and Q denote elements of \mathbf{P} ;
- the set of *attribute symbols* (or *feature symbols*) \mathbf{p} , where p and q denote elements of \mathbf{p} .

These symbols are interpreted in a set-theoretical way, i.e., we assume *interpretations* $\mathcal{I} = \langle \mathcal{D}, \llbracket \cdot \rrbracket^{\mathcal{I}} \rangle$, where \mathcal{D} is an arbitrary set and $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket^{\mathcal{I}}$ is a function

$$\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket^{\mathcal{I}}: \begin{cases} \mathbf{I} & \rightarrow \mathcal{D} \\ \mathbf{A} & \rightarrow 2^{\mathcal{D}} \\ \mathbf{P} & \rightarrow 2^{\mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D}} \\ \mathbf{p} & \rightarrow 2^{\mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D}} \end{cases}$$

such that there is at most one element $y \in \mathcal{D}$ for all $x \in \mathcal{D}$ with $(x, y) \in \llbracket p \rrbracket^{\mathcal{I}}$ for all $p \in \mathbf{p}$, and such that $\llbracket i \rrbracket^{\mathcal{I}} \neq \llbracket j \rrbracket^{\mathcal{I}}$, for all $i \neq j$. We will also use a functional notation for roles, i.e. $\llbracket R \rrbracket^{\mathcal{I}}(d) = \{e \mid (d, e) \in \llbracket R \rrbracket^{\mathcal{I}}\}$.

Using these sets of symbols, concept descriptions (denoted by C and D), role descriptions (R and S), role-chains (RC and SC), attribute descriptions (r and s), and attribute chains (\mathcal{r} and \mathcal{s}) can be constructed according to the abstract syntax rules shown in the tables below. In particular, the set of concept-, role-, and attribute-forming operators for constructing new concept and role expressions are defined in the Tables 1 and 2, respectively. The operators for specifying restrictions on the interpretation of atoms are summarized in Table 3. Finally, the set of terminological axioms is given in Table 4.

CONCEPT FORMING OPERATORS		
Abstract form:	Concrete form:	Interpretation:
$C, D \rightarrow A$	A	$\llbracket A \rrbracket^I$
$C \sqcap D$	(and $C D$)	$\llbracket C \rrbracket^I \cap \llbracket D \rrbracket^I$
$C \sqcup D$	(or $C D$)	$\llbracket C \rrbracket^I \cup \llbracket D \rrbracket^I$
$\neg C$	(not C)	$\mathcal{D} \setminus \llbracket C \rrbracket^I$
$\forall R: C$	(all $R C$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) \subseteq \llbracket C \rrbracket^I\}$
$\exists R$	(some R)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) \neq \emptyset\}$
$\geq nR$	(atleast $n R$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) \geq n\}$
$\leq nR$	(atmost $n R$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) \leq n\}$
nR	(exact $n R$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) = n\}$
$(0 \vee \geq n)R$	(optatleast $n R$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) = \emptyset \vee \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) \geq n\}$
$\exists R: C$	(some $R C$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) \cap \llbracket C \rrbracket^I \neq \emptyset\}$
$\geq nR: C$	(atleast $n R C$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) \cap \llbracket C \rrbracket^I \geq n\}$
$\leq nR: C$	(atmost $n R C$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) \cap \llbracket C \rrbracket^I \leq n\}$
$nR: C$	(exact $n R C$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket R \rrbracket^I(d) \cap \llbracket C \rrbracket^I = n\}$
$RC = SC$	(eq $RC SC$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket RC \rrbracket^I(d) = \llbracket SC \rrbracket^I(d)\}$
$RC \neq SC$	(neq $RC SC$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket RC \rrbracket^I(d) \neq \llbracket SC \rrbracket^I(d)\}$
$RC \subseteq SC$	(subset $RC SC$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket RC \rrbracket^I(d) \subseteq \llbracket SC \rrbracket^I(d)\}$
$r : C$	(in $r C$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \emptyset \neq \llbracket r \rrbracket^I(d) \subseteq \llbracket C \rrbracket^I\}$
$r : i$	(is $r i$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket i \rrbracket^I \in \llbracket r \rrbracket^I(d)\}$
$rc = sc$	(eq $rc sc$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket rc \rrbracket^I(d) = \llbracket sc \rrbracket^I(d)\}$
$rc \neq sc$	(neq $rc sc$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket rc \rrbracket^I(d) \neq \llbracket sc \rrbracket^I(d)\}$
$rc \stackrel{\perp}{=} sc$	(eq $rc sc$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \llbracket rc \rrbracket^I(d) = \llbracket sc \rrbracket^I(d) \neq \emptyset\}$
$rc \not\stackrel{\perp}{=} sc$	(neq $rc sc$)	$\{d \in \mathcal{D} \mid \emptyset \neq \llbracket rc \rrbracket^I(d) \neq \llbracket sc \rrbracket^I(d) \neq \emptyset\}$
$\{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n\}$	(one of $i_1 \dots i_n$)	$\{\llbracket i_1 \rrbracket^I, \llbracket i_2 \rrbracket^I, \dots, \llbracket i_n \rrbracket^I\}$
datatype		
fn	(apply fn)	

Table 1: CTL: Concept forming operators

ROLE AND ATTRIBUTE FORMING OPERATORS		
Abstract form:	Concrete form:	Interpretation:
$R, S \rightarrow P$	P	$\llbracket P \rrbracket^I$
$R \sqcap S$	(and $R S$)	$\llbracket R \rrbracket^I \cap \llbracket S \rrbracket^I$
$R \sqcup S$	(or $R S$)	$\llbracket R \rrbracket^I \cup \llbracket S \rrbracket^I$
R^{-1}	(inverse R)	$\{(d, d') \mid (d', d) \in \llbracket R \rrbracket^I\}$
r^{-1}	(inverse r)	$\{(d, d') \mid (d', d) \in \llbracket r \rrbracket^I\}$
$R _C$	(restr $R C$)	$\{(d, d') \in \llbracket R \rrbracket^I \mid d' \in \llbracket C \rrbracket^I\}$
$c R$	(domrestr $R C$)	$\{(d, d') \in \llbracket R \rrbracket^I \mid d \in \llbracket C \rrbracket^I\}$
$C \times D$	(domainrange $C D$)	$\llbracket C \rrbracket^I \times \llbracket D \rrbracket^I$
R^+	(trans R)	$(\llbracket R \rrbracket^I)^+$
RC		
r		
$RC \rightarrow (R_1, \dots, R_n)$	(compose $R_1 \dots R_n$)	$\llbracket R_1 \rrbracket^I \circ \dots \circ \llbracket R_n \rrbracket^I$
$\mathbf{1}$	self	$\{(d, d) \mid d \in \mathcal{D}\}$
$r \rightarrow p$	p	$\llbracket p \rrbracket^I$
$r _C$	(restr $r C$)	$\{(d, d') \in \llbracket r \rrbracket^I \mid d' \in \llbracket C \rrbracket^I\}$
rc		
$rc \rightarrow (r_1, \dots, r_n)$	(compose $r_1 \dots r_n$)	$\llbracket r_1 \rrbracket^I \circ \dots \circ \llbracket r_n \rrbracket^I$
$\mathbf{1}$	self	$\{(d, d) \mid d \in \mathcal{D}\}$

Table 2: CTL: Role and attribute forming operators

ADDITIONAL RESTRICTIVE OPERATORS		
Abstract form:	Concrete form:	Interpretation:
$A_1 \parallel \dots \parallel A_n$	(disjoint $A_1 \dots A_n$)	$\llbracket A_i \rrbracket^I \cap \llbracket A_j \rrbracket^I = \emptyset, i \neq j$
$\{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \circ B$	(cover $B A_1 \dots A_n$)	$\bigcup_{k=1}^n \llbracket A_k \rrbracket^I \supseteq \llbracket B \rrbracket^I$
$\{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \oplus B$	(disjcover $B A_1 \dots A_n$)	$\bigcup_{k=1}^n \llbracket A_k \rrbracket^I \supseteq \llbracket B \rrbracket^I,$ $\llbracket A_i \rrbracket^I \cap \llbracket A_j \rrbracket^I = \emptyset, i \neq j$
$ A \leq 1$	(indiv A)	$\ \llbracket A \rrbracket^I\ \leq 1$
$A \rightarrow B$	(implies $A B$)	$\llbracket A \rrbracket^I \subseteq \llbracket B \rrbracket^I$

Table 3: CTL: Additional restrictive operators

TERMINOLOGICAL AXIOMS		
Abstract form:	Concrete form:	Interpretation:
$A \doteq C$	(defconcept $A C$)	$\llbracket A \rrbracket^I = \llbracket C \rrbracket^I$
$A \sqsubseteq C$	(defprimconcept $A \{C\}$)	$\llbracket A \rrbracket^I \subseteq \llbracket C \rrbracket^I$
$P \doteq R$	(defrole $P R$)	$\llbracket P \rrbracket^I = \llbracket R \rrbracket^I$
$P \sqsubseteq R$	(defprimrole $P R$)	$\llbracket P \rrbracket^I \subseteq \llbracket R \rrbracket^I$
$P \sqsubseteq \top$	(defprimrole P)	$\llbracket P \rrbracket^I \subseteq \mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D}$
$p \doteq r$	(defattribute $p r$)	$\llbracket p \rrbracket^I = \llbracket r \rrbracket^I$
$p \sqsubseteq \top$	(defprimattribute p)	$\llbracket p \rrbracket^I \in \mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D}$

Table 4: CTL: Terminological axioms

B Expressiveness of the Systems

CONCEPT FORMING OPERATORS						
	System					
	BACK	CLASSIC	KRIS	LOOM	MESON	SB-ONE
A	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
$C \sqcap D$	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
$C \sqcup D$			Y	Y		
$\neg C$			Y			
$\forall R: C$	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
$\exists R$	I	I	Y	Y	I	I
$\geq nR$	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
$\leq nR$	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
nR	I	I	I	Y	Y	I
$(= 0 \vee \geq n)R$			I	I		Y
$\exists R: C$			Y	Y		
$\geq nR: C$				I		
$\leq nR: C$				I		
$nR: C$				I		
$RC = SC$				Y	Y	Y
$RC \neq SC$				Y		Y
$RC \subseteq SC$				Y	Y	Y
$r: C$		Y	Y	Y		
$r: i$		Y		Y		
$r = s$				Y		
$r \neq s$				Y		
$r \perp s$		Y	Y	Y	I	I
$r \not\perp s$			Y	Y		I
$\{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m\}$	Y	Y		Y		
datatype	Y	Y		Y	Y	
fn		Y		Y	Y	

Y - explicitly present

I - implicitly present

Table 5: Expressiveness: Concept forming operators

This section examines the expressiveness of the systems. In particular, Table 5 (Table 6) determines for every concept forming operator (role and attribute forming operator) its explicit or implicit existence in a system. Table 7 summarizes the available additional restrictive operators. Finally, Table 8 lists the terminological axioms that are defined for a particular system.

ROLE AND ATTRIBUTE FORMING OPERATORS						
	System					
	BACK	CLASSIC	KRIS	LOOM	MESON	SB-ONE
P	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
$R \sqcap S$	Y		Y	Y		
$R \sqcup S$						
R^{-1}				Y	Y	
r^{-1}				Y		
$R _C$	I			Y	Y	Y
$c R$	I			Y		Y
$C \times D$	Y			I		Y
R^+						
RC				Y	Y	Y
r		Y	Y	Y		
(R_1, \dots, R_n)				Y	Y	Y
$\mathbf{1}$				Y		
p		Y	Y	Y		
$r _C$				Y		
rc		I	Y	Y		
(r_1, \dots, r_n)		Y	Y	Y		
$\mathbf{1}$				Y		

Y - explicitly present

I - implicitly present

Table 6: Expressiveness: Role and attribute forming operators

ADDITIONAL RESTRICTIVE OPERATORS						
	System					
	BACK	CLASSIC	KRIS	LOOM	MESON	SB-ONE
$A_1 \parallel \dots \parallel A_n$	Y	Y	I	I	Y	Y
$\{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \circ B$				I		Y
$\{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \oplus B$				Y		I
$ A \leq 1$	Y				Y	Y
$A \rightarrow B$		Y		Y	Y	

Y - explicitly present

I - implicitly present

Table 7: Expressiveness: Additional restrictive operators

TERMINOLOGICAL AXIOMS						
	System					
	BACK	CLASSIC	KRIS	LOOM	MESON	SB-ONE
(defconcept $A C$)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
(defprimconcept $A \{C\}$)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
(defrole $P R$)			Y	Y	Y [†]	Y
(defprimrole $P R$)	Y		Y	Y	Y [†]	Y
(defprimrole P)	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y
(defattribute $p r$)			Y	Y		
(defprimattribute p)		Y	Y	Y		

† – only inside concept definitions

Table 8: Expressiveness: Terminological axioms

C Problematic Cases

In the following, we use the abstract syntax to specify the tests we designed. Note that at some points the systems do not support the original language constructs, so we had to use a different formulation to check the system behavior. The alternative formulations are not always semantically equivalent. However, in the context where we used them they led to identical results. For instance, when concept disjointness $A \parallel B$ was not available, we used disjoint number restrictions to enforce the disjointness of the concepts as shown in Table 9. The results of the tests of problematic cases described below are given in Table 10.

used construct	alternative construct
$C \parallel D$	$C \doteq \geq 2R, D \doteq \leq 1R$
$\{C, D\} \circ A$	$A \doteq C \sqcup D$
$C \doteq \geq nR: D$	$R_1 \sqsubseteq R, C \doteq (\geq nR_1) \sqcap (\forall R_1: D)$
$C \doteq \leq nR: D$	$R_1 \sqsubseteq R, C \doteq (\leq nR_1) \sqcap (\forall R_1: D)$
$C \doteq \forall R: (D \sqcap E)$	$C_1 \doteq \forall R: D, C_2 \doteq \forall R: E, C \doteq C_1 \sqcap C_2$

Table 9: Problematic Cases: Alternative constructs

The tests are as follows:

1. How does the system handle *syntactically incorrect input*? Using a LISP-like notation, we checked what happened in the following cases:
 - (a) `(dfconcept a)`
 - (b) `(defconcept a b c)`
 - (c) `(defrole a (domain))`
 - (d) `(defconcept a (domain b))`
2. How does the system react to *inconsistent* concepts, i.e., to concepts with a necessarily empty interpretation? Although this is completely legal in the semantic framework sketched above, and does not lead to the inconsistency of the knowledge base as a whole, the system designer may choose to raise an error or output a warning message. Two cases have to be distinguished here. First, a *concept subexpression* may be inconsistent, which does not lead to the inconsistency of the embedding expression. Second, a concept definition may result in an inconsistent atomic concept, which is rather useless—and most probably an error. We used the following expressions to check out the system behavior:
 - (a) $E \doteq (\geq 2R) \sqcap (\leq 1R)$
 - (b) $C \parallel D, E \doteq (\forall R: (C \sqcap D))$

3. How are *semantically equivalent concept* definitions handled? Again, this is perfectly legal in the semantic framework, but the system designer may have decided to issue a warning because such equivalent definitions seem to be useless.

$$(a) C \doteq \leq 1R, D \doteq C \sqcap (\geq 1R), E \doteq 1R$$

$$(b) C \doteq \forall R: D, E \doteq \forall R: D$$

4. If a concept or role *symbol appears more than once* on the left hand side of a definition symbol, there are two options to handle this case. First, one may decide to prohibit this and issue an error message. Secondly, it is possible to interpret the second definition as a revision, i.e., the first definition is discarded and the second definition is used as the actual definition.

$$(a) C \doteq \geq 1R, D \doteq \leq 1R, E \doteq C \sqcap D, C \doteq \geq 2R$$

$$\vdash E \approx \perp$$

$$(b) B \parallel C, R \sqsubseteq \top \times D, E \doteq (\geq 1R) \sqcap (\forall R: B), R \sqsubseteq \top \times C$$

$$\vdash E \approx \perp$$

5. What kind of *general constraints* are enforced? Some systems require that no concept atom is defined to be equivalent to the most general concept. Others enforce the restriction that if two concepts are declared to be disjoint, then they have to be *primitive concepts*, i.e., to specify only necessary but no sufficient conditions.

$$(a) C \doteq \top$$

$$(b) F \doteq H, G \doteq I, F \parallel G$$

6. Does the system accept *forward references* and the use of *previously undefined* concepts and roles? The semantic framework does not say anything about the linear order of concept and role definitions. Thus, the system designer has to choose whether all role and concept atoms have to be defined before they are used or whether forward definitions and “definitions by use” are permitted.

$$(a) D \doteq \geq 2R, C \doteq D \sqcap E, E \doteq \leq 1R$$

$$\vdash C \preceq \perp$$

$$(b) C \parallel D, A \doteq \exists R: C, R \sqsubseteq B \times D$$

$$\vdash A \preceq \perp$$

$$(c) C \doteq \exists R, S \sqsubseteq R$$

7. If forward references are permitted, then it is possible to make circularly referring definitions. How does the system deal with them? In the semantic framework such *cycles* are no problem. It is not a trivial task to provide a reasonable semantics and inference algorithms for this case, however.

- (a) $C \doteq \forall R: C$
- (b) $C \doteq \forall R: C, D \doteq C \sqcap (\forall R: D)$
 $\vdash C \preceq D$
- (c) $C \doteq \forall R: D, D \doteq \forall R: C$
 $\vdash C \approx D$
- (d) $C \doteq \exists R: D, D \doteq \exists R: C$
 $\vdash C \approx D$
 (result depends on underlying semantics)

8. How does the system fix the *syntactic category* of a symbol? It is possible to use the same symbol as a role and as a concept atom, disambiguating by context—if the concrete syntax supports that. Does the system permit such overloading of symbols?

- (a) $C \doteq \exists R: D, E \doteq \exists C$

The Problematic Cases						
Result of Test ...	System					
	BACK	CLASSIC	KRIS	LOOM	MESON	SB-ONE
1 (a)	LError	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr	LError
	(b)	LError	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr
	(c)	LError	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr
	(d)	—	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr
2 (a)	Correct	Correct	Correct	Correct	CorrErr	CorrErr
	(b)	Correct	Correct	Correct	CorrErr	CorrErr
3 (a)	Correct	Correct	Correct	Correct	CorrErr	Correct
	(b)	Correct	Correct	Correct	CorrErr	Correct
4 (a)	Correct	CorrErr	Incorr	Correct	CorrErr	—
	(b)	Incorr	CorrErr	Incorr	—	—
5 (a)	Correct	CorrWarn	CorrWarn	CorrWarn	CorrErr	CorrWarn
	(b)	CorrErr	—	—	CorrErr	Correct
6 (a)	Correct	CorrErr	Correct	Correct	CorrErr	CorrErr
	(b)	Incorr	CorrErr	Correct	Correct	—
	(c)	Correct	CorrErr	Correct	Correct	CorrErr
7 (a)	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr	(Correct)	(Correct)	(Correct)
	(b)	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr	(Correct)	(Correct)
	(c)	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr	(Correct)	CorrErr
	(d)	CorrErr	CorrErr	CorrErr	(Correct)	CorrErr
8 (a)	CorrErr	CorrErr	Incorr	Correct	—	Correct

- LError error message of underlying language
 CorrErr case is error in system interpretation and an error message is issued
 CorrWarn case is no error in system interpretation but a warning is issued
 Correct case is no error in system interpretation and handled correctly without warning
 (Correct) system accepts input but does not classify these concepts according to one of the possible semantics
 Incorr case is not handled correctly

Table 10: Problematic Cases: Test results

D TBox Inferences

In order to get a feeling “how complete” the systems are, we designed a number of small test cases with more or less obvious conclusions. The tests are by no means exhaustive or systematic, but some of them were designed with a slightly malicious attitude. As in Appendix C, we sometimes used reformulation of the tests given below by using the correspondences of Table 9.

It turned out that some systems failed to draw the right conclusion even in cases where they are supposed to be complete. Since these results have been given to the system designers, these “bugs” are probably not present in more recent system versions. Nevertheless, these results demonstrate that it would be profitable to have an exhaustive and systematic test suite available on which all systems could be tested.

1. One basic inference is the the detection of inconsistencies caused by disjoint concepts. We tested this for direct conjunctions (a), conjunctions appearing as value restrictions (b), and conjunctions of sub-concepts of two disjoint concepts (c). The case (d) may look a bit pathological, however, it is well-defined and easy to handle. Nevertheless, most systems failed on this example.

$$(a) \quad C \parallel D, E \doteq C \sqcap D \\ \vdash E \preceq \perp$$

$$(b) \quad C \parallel D, E \doteq \forall R: (C \sqcap D) \sqcap \exists R \\ \vdash E \preceq \perp$$

$$(c) \quad C \parallel D, E \sqsubseteq C, F \sqsubseteq D \\ \vdash E \parallel F$$

$$(d) \quad C \sqsubseteq D, C \parallel D \\ \vdash C \preceq \perp$$

2. Another basic inference is to detect inconsistencies when the minimum and maximum restrictions ($\geq nR$ and $\leq nR$) on the same role are incompatible (a). A more complicated instance is case (b) where the disjointness of the concepts used in the existential quantification ($\exists R: C$) leads to the conclusion that there must be at least two role fillers. In fact, most systems are incomplete in this aspect that involves reasoning about the number of role fillers in the general case (see also test 3).

$$(a) \quad E \doteq (\geq 2R) \sqcap (\leq 1R) \\ \vdash E \preceq \perp$$

$$(b) \quad C \parallel D, E \doteq (\leq 1R) \sqcap (\exists R: C) \sqcap (\exists R: D) \\ \vdash E \preceq \perp$$

3. If a language contains minimum and maximum restrictions and subroles (i.e., the possibility of expressing role conjunctions) or qualified number restrictions

($\geq nR:C$ and $\leq nR:C$), then the reasoning about the number of potential role fillers can be become quite complicated. Case (a) is a comparably easy case resembling test 2 (b). Cases (b)–(e) are more complicated, but all inferences are based on the fact that because of disjointness and/or covering of role-filler concepts by another concept additional minimum or maximum restrictions for subroles (or qualified existential restrictions) could be derived.

- (a) $C \parallel D, E \doteq (\geq 1R) \sqcap (\exists R:C) \sqcap (\exists R:D)$
 $\vdash E \preceq (\geq 2R)$
- (b) $C \parallel D, E \doteq (\leq 2R) \sqcap (\exists R:C) \sqcap (\exists R:D)$
 $\vdash E \preceq (\leq 1R:C) \sqcap (\leq 1R:D)$
- (c) $\{C, D\} \oplus A, R \sqsubseteq T|_C, S \sqsubseteq T|_D,$
 $E \doteq (\forall T:A) \sqcap (\geq 3T) \sqcap (\leq 1R) \sqcap (\leq 1S)$
 $\vdash E \preceq \perp$
- (d) $\{C, D\} \circ A, E \doteq (\forall R:A) \sqcap (\geq 3R) \sqcap (\leq 1R:C)$
 $\vdash E \preceq (\geq 2R:D)$
- (e) $R_1, R_2, R_3 \sqsubseteq R, T_1, T_2, T_3 \sqsubseteq T, C \parallel D \parallel E,$
 $F_1 \doteq \exists R_1: ((\leq 2T) \sqcap (\exists T_1:C))$
 $F_2 \doteq \exists R_2: ((\leq 2T) \sqcap (\exists T_2:D))$
 $F_3 \doteq \exists R_3: ((\leq 2T) \sqcap (\exists T_3:E))$
 $F \doteq F_1 \sqcap F_2 \sqcap F_3$
 $\vdash F \preceq (\geq 2R)$

4. The role-forming operator that restricts the range of a role ($R|_C$) leads to intractability in the general case [17]. In fact, this operator can be used to model “disjunctive reasoning.” Case (a) is an example where *modus ponens* like reasoning is necessary. Case (b) shows an example where reasoning by case is required.

- (a) $C \doteq (\forall R:D) \sqcap (\forall R|_D:E)$
 $\vdash C \preceq (\forall R:E)$
- (b) $C \parallel D, E \doteq (\forall R|_{(\geq 2S)}:C) \sqcap \forall R:D$
 $\vdash E \preceq \forall R:(\leq 1S)$

5. Role-value maps ($RC = SC$) are known to cause undecidability of subsumption [28]. However, even if role-value maps are handled in an incomplete manner, there are still some inferences that can be easily computed, for instance, inconsistencies caused by conflicting value, minimum or maximum restrictions, as in the cases (a)–(b), or caused by conflicting role-value map specifications, as in case (c).

- (a) $E \doteq (1R) \sqcap (2S) \sqcap (R = S)$
 $\vdash E \preceq \perp$

- (b) $C \parallel D, E \doteq (\forall R: C) \sqcap (\forall S: D) \sqcap (R = S) \sqcap (\exists R)$
 $\vdash E \preceq \perp$
- (c) $C \doteq (\leq 1R) \sqcap (R = S), D \doteq (\leq 1R) \sqcap (R \neq S)$
 $\vdash C \parallel D,$

6. While equality reasoning over chains of roles is undecidable, equality reasoning over chains of attributes (i.e., single-valued roles) is quite easy [2] and can be easily added to terminological languages [15]. Interestingly, the two systems that claimed to be complete in this aspect, namely, CLASSIC and KRIS failed on at least one of the tests given below.

- (a) $E \doteq (rst \stackrel{\perp}{=} uv) \sqcap (rstx \stackrel{\perp}{=} vu)$
 $\vdash E \preceq rstx \stackrel{\perp}{=} uvx, E \preceq uvx \stackrel{\perp}{=} vu$
- (b) $F \doteq (rst \stackrel{\perp}{=} uvw) \sqcap (rs \stackrel{\perp}{=} u)$
 $\vdash F \preceq rsvw \stackrel{\perp}{=} ut$

7. Finally, we tested the role-forming operator *inverse* (R^{-1}).

- (a) $E \doteq \forall R: (\forall R^{-1}: A) \sqcap \exists R$
 $\vdash E \preceq A$

The results of the tests are displayed in Table 11. Most of them simply confirm the formal or informal specification of the system.

BACK: The negative results for the tests 2 (b) and 2 (a)–(e) are not surprising since BACK does not compute the cardinality of role-filler sets of sub- and superroles [27]. The negative result for test 1 is surprising, however.

CLASSIC: The interesting point is that CLASSIC fails on case 6 (a), although CLASSIC is supposed to be complete in this aspect.

KRIS: Even more surprising to us was the fact that the tested version of KRIS was incomplete for many examples. However, we tested one of the first prototypical versions. Further, we used one particular subsumption algorithm, namely, the *ALCFN*-subsumption algorithm. When using the more powerful but slower *ALCFNR*-subsumption algorithm, these errors did not occur.

LOOM: The incompleteness of LOOM was no big surprise to us since this system is explicitly described as supporting a very expressive terminological language in an incomplete manner. Some of the tests may actually lead to a positive result if “ABox”-reasoning is used. Since we tested only the terminological part of the system, this was not taken into account.

TBox Inferences						
Result of Test ...	System					
	BACK	CLASSIC	KRIS	LOOM	MESON	SB-ONE
1 (a)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
	N	—	—	—	N	N
2 (a)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
	N	—	Y	N	Y	Y
3 (a)	N	—	Y	N	Y	Y
	N	—	—	N	Y	N
	N	—	—	N	—	Y
	N	—	—	N	—	N
	N	—	N/Y	N	—	—
4 (a)	—	—	—	N	N	—
	—	—	—	N	—	—
5 (a)	—	—	—	Y	N	Y
	—	—	N/Y	Y	—	Y
	—	—	N/Y	N	—	N
6 (a)	—	N	N/Y	N	—	—
	—	Y	N/Y	N	—	—
7 (a)	—	—	—	N	Y	—

Y inference drawn

N inference not drawn

N/Y result depends on used subsumption algorithm

Table 11: TBox Inferences: Test results

MESON: The incompleteness in case 4 (a) is no surprise. For the other two cases, a similar remark as above applies. The conclusions are drawn if “ABox”-reasoning is employed.

SB-ONE: The interesting point about SB-ONE is that it tries to account for reasoning with the cardinality of role-filler sets for sub- and superroles, in an incomplete manner, though.

E Hard Cases

Below, four types of “hard cases” are described. The results of the individual tests are given in Table 12:

1. When computing the subsumption relation between C_n and D_n , some systems may expand the definitions. Each concept has two roles with the same value restrictions which will be replaced by their definition. This leads to an exponential increase of the definitions.

$$\begin{aligned}
 C_0 &\sqsubseteq \top \\
 C_1 &\doteq (\forall R_1: C_0) \sqcap (\forall R_2: C_0) \\
 C_2 &\doteq (\forall R_1: C_1) \sqcap (\forall R_2: C_1) \\
 &\vdots \\
 C_n &\doteq (\forall R_1: C_{n-1}) \sqcap (\forall R_2: C_{n-1})
 \end{aligned}$$

In analogy, the concepts D_0, D_1, \dots, D_n will be defined.

Test: $C_n \preceq D_n$ for $n = 4, 8, 12$

2. The following test examines the run time when computing value restrictions that are concept conjunctions. If the value restrictions are expanded straightforwardly without checking whether they are identical, we get the exponential increase of the definitions as in the case above.

$$\begin{aligned}
 C_0 &\sqsubseteq \top \\
 C_1 &\sqsubseteq \top \\
 C_2 &\doteq \forall R_1: (C_0 \sqcap C_1) \\
 C_3 &\doteq \forall R_2: (C_0 \sqcap C_1) \\
 &\vdots \\
 C_{2n} &\doteq \forall R_1: (C_{2n-2} \sqcap C_{2n-1}) \\
 C_{2n+1} &\doteq \forall R_2: (C_{2n-2} \sqcap C_{2n-1})
 \end{aligned}$$

In analogy, the concepts $D_0, D_1, \dots, D_{2n+1}$ will be defined.

Test: $C_{2n+1} \preceq D_{2n+1}$ for $n = 4, 8, 12$

3. The next test is an example for the fact that in (nearly) every system you can get exponential answer times. We model a sequence of concepts in a way such that even if the best conceivable algorithm is used (resembling an algorithm to decide equivalence for non-deterministic finite state automata) exponential time is necessary [20].

$$\begin{aligned}
& C_{2n} \sqsubseteq \top \\
& \text{for } n < i \leq 2n - 1 : \\
& \quad C_i \doteq (\forall R_1: C_{i+1}) \sqcap (\forall R_2: C_{i+1}) \\
& \text{for } 0 \leq i \leq n : \\
& \quad C_i \doteq (\forall R_1: C_{i+1}) \sqcap (\forall R_2: (C_{i+1} \sqcap C_{2i}))
\end{aligned}$$

In order to trigger the creation of the new value restrictions (not all systems do this automatically without need) the concepts D_0 to D_{2n} for $n = 4, 8, 12$ are defined analogously and the subsumption relation between C_0 and D_0 is computed:

Test: $C_0 \preceq D_0$ for $n = 4, 8, 12$

4. The last test was inspired from the algorithms in [13]. The restrictions in the “ $\forall R$ ” parts have to be propagated to the two “ $\exists R$ ” parts (because they should hold for every R) and this leads to an exponential increase of the definition.

$$\begin{aligned}
E & \doteq \forall R: A \\
F & \doteq \forall R: B \\
G & \doteq \forall R: (A \sqcap B) \\
C & \doteq
\end{aligned}$$

$$n\text{-times} \left\{ \begin{array}{l}
(\exists R: E) \sqcap (\exists R: G) \sqcap \\
\forall R: (G \sqcap (\exists R: E) \sqcap (\exists R: G) \sqcap \\
\quad \forall R: (G \sqcap (\exists R: E) \sqcap (\exists R: G) \sqcap \\
\quad \quad \forall R: (G \sqcap (\exists R: E) \sqcap \dots \\
\quad \quad \quad \vdots \\
\quad \quad \quad \forall R: (G \sqcap (\exists R: E) \sqcap (\exists R: G)) \dots)
\end{array} \right.$$

In analogy, concept D is defined on the basis of F (instead of E) and the subsumption relations between C and D are computed for $n = 4, 8, 12$:

Test: $C \preceq D$ for $n = 4, 8, 12$

The Hard Cases						
Result (sec) of Test ...	System					
	BACK	CLASSIC	KRIS	LOOM	MESON	SB-ONE
1 n=4	1	2	3	1	1	11
	n=8	1	4	77	3	33
	n=12	2	5	2680	5	56
2 n=4	7	3	82	7	3	99
	n=8	32	11	1867	22	859
	n=12	75	16	—†	39	3263
3 n=4	25	4	459	28	29	372
	n=6	352	40	18230	155	1836
	n=8	6035	706	—†	666	9500
4 n=4	—‡	—	4	4	—	—
	n=8	—	—	49	8	—
	n=12	—	—	745	13	—

† test has been aborted

‡ system died on this example

Table 12: Hard Cases: Test results

F Real Knowledge Bases

Below we give a brief description of the “real” knowledge bases used as one part of our tests. Table 13 characterizes the structure of the original KBs by means of the number of defined and primitive concepts and roles, respectively. As mentioned above, by automatically translating and adapting the KBs to each particular system, some artificial concepts have been introduced, the cardinality is also shown in Table 13. The exact number of auxiliary concepts may differ from system to system, though.

Table 14 summarizes the results in terms of total run time needed to sequentially load and classify a KB. The third column shows the time needed for loading and *simultaneously* classifying the KB. Only the systems LOOM and MESON allow both modes of loading. In the case of the BACK system we gave up on producing a version of a “Wisber” KB both similar to the original one and acceptable to BACK.

CKB (Conceptual Knowledge Base): Contains knowledge about tax regulations and is used in the Natural Language project XTRA at the University of Saarbrücken.

Companies: Contains knowledge about company structures and is used at the Technical University Berlin in the framework of the ESPRIT project ADKMS.

FSS (Functional Semantic Structures): Contains knowledge about speech acts and is used in the Natural Language project XTRA at the University of Saarbrücken.

Espresso: Contains knowledge about Espresso machines and their structure. It is used in the WIP-Project of DFKI in the framework of multimodal presentation of information.

Wisber: Contains knowledge about different forms of investments and was used in the natural language dialog project WISBER at the University of Hamburg.

Wines simple kosher: Contains knowledge about wines, wineries, and meal-courses. It is used as sample KB of the CLASSIC system.⁵

⁵A lot of individuals have been transformed to general concepts because in our tests we only considered terminological knowledge but did not want to cut all the nice information about different wineries and wines.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE REAL KBs							
Name	Original Language	defined	primitive	artificial	Σ	defined	primitive
		concepts				roles	
CKB	SB-ONE	23	57	58	138	2	46
Companies	BACK	70	45	81	196	1	39
FSS	SB-ONE	34	98	75	207	0	47
Espresso	SB-ONE	0	145	79	224	11	41
Wisber	TURQ	50	81	152	283	6	18
Wines	CLASSIC	50	148	237	435	0	10

Table 13: Real Knowledge Bases: Structural description

TESTING THE REAL KBs				
KB	System	Total run time (sec) needed to ...		
		load	classify	ld+cl
CKB	BACK	—	—	9
	CLASSIC	—	—	9
	KRIS	4	580	—
	LOOM	14	13	27
	MESON	22	138	43
	SB-ONE	60	65	—
Companies	BACK	—	—	41
	CLASSIC	—	—	14
	KRIS	5	2607	—
	LOOM	20	21	45
	MESON	67	98	97
	SB-ONE	583	802	—
FSS	BACK	—	—	128
	CLASSIC	—	—	20
	KRIS	5	8170	—
	LOOM	20	26	75
	MESON	274	447	255
	SB-ONE	330	1176	—
Espresso	BACK	—	—	47
	CLASSIC	—	—	17
	KRIS	7	1944	—
	LOOM	24	29	55
	MESON	41	42	58
	SB-ONE	87	211	—
Wisber	BACK	—	—	— [†]
	CLASSIC	—	—	22
	KRIS	6	6223	—
	LOOM	24	28	61
	MESON	151	142	213
	SB-ONE	1510	3417	—
Wines	BACK	—	—	486
	CLASSIC	—	—	56
	KRIS	10	45327	—
	LOOM	36	47	92
	MESON	857	696	1321
	SB-ONE	1377	4500	—

[†] we gave up on producing a version of a “Wisber” KB acceptable to BACK

Table 14: Real Knowledge Bases: Test results

G Random Knowledge Bases

In order to eliminate the inaccuracy of measurement introduced by the translation process, to get an idea how the runtime varies with the number of concepts, and to test the systems on larger knowledge bases, a number of terminological knowledge bases were randomly generated using only the intersection of all terminological languages used in the systems (i.e., only conjunction, value restrictions, and number restrictions). The structure of these generated knowledge bases resembles some of the aspects of the real knowledge bases we used. We do not claim, however, that the generated knowledge bases are realistic in all aspects.

The generated knowledge bases have the following properties:

- 80% of the concepts are “primitive” (i.e., introduced by \sqsubseteq).
- There are exactly 10 different roles.
- Each concept definition is a conjunction containing
 - one or two concept symbols (explicit super-concepts),
 - zero or one minimum restrictions,
 - zero or one maximum restrictions,
 - and zero, one, or two value restrictions,

where the number of constructs from one category and the roles and concepts are randomly assigned with a uniform distribution. Further, the concepts are constructed in a way such that no concept is inconsistent (i.e., no minimum restriction is larger than any maximum restriction).

In order to avoid definitional cycles, the concepts are partitioned into *layers*, where the i th layer has 3^i concepts. When assigning explicit super-concepts or value-restriction concepts to the concept definition of a concept from level i , only concepts from level 0 to $i - 1$ are considered.

Comparing the randomly generated knowledge bases with real knowledge bases, one notes that the number of roles might not be realistic. Further, the randomly generated knowledge bases tend to have a concept hierarchy that is less tree-like than real knowledge bases. Nevertheless, the runtime performance on the generated knowledge bases is comparable with the runtime performance on real knowledge bases.

Loading and Classifying a Random KB						
Average time (sec) for ... concepts	System					
	BACK	CLASSIC	KRIS	LOOM	MESON	SB-ONE
15	1	1	5	3	3	68
30	2	2	25	6	8	188
45	4	3	61	9	17	370
60	10	5	131	13	46	
75	12	5		19	46	
90	15	5		18	57	
105	21	8		19	87	
120	31	9		28	142	
135	38	11		32	190	
150	50	11		37	247	
200	91	13		46	550	
400	441	42		110	3500	
600	1519	65		251		
800	3490	134		354		
1000		157		480		
1200		180		643		
1400		260		853		
1600		359		1324		
1800		424		1520		
2000		493		1833		
2500		1441		3106		
3000		2704		3915		
4000		8195		5527		
5000				11019		

Table 15: Random knowledge bases: Test results



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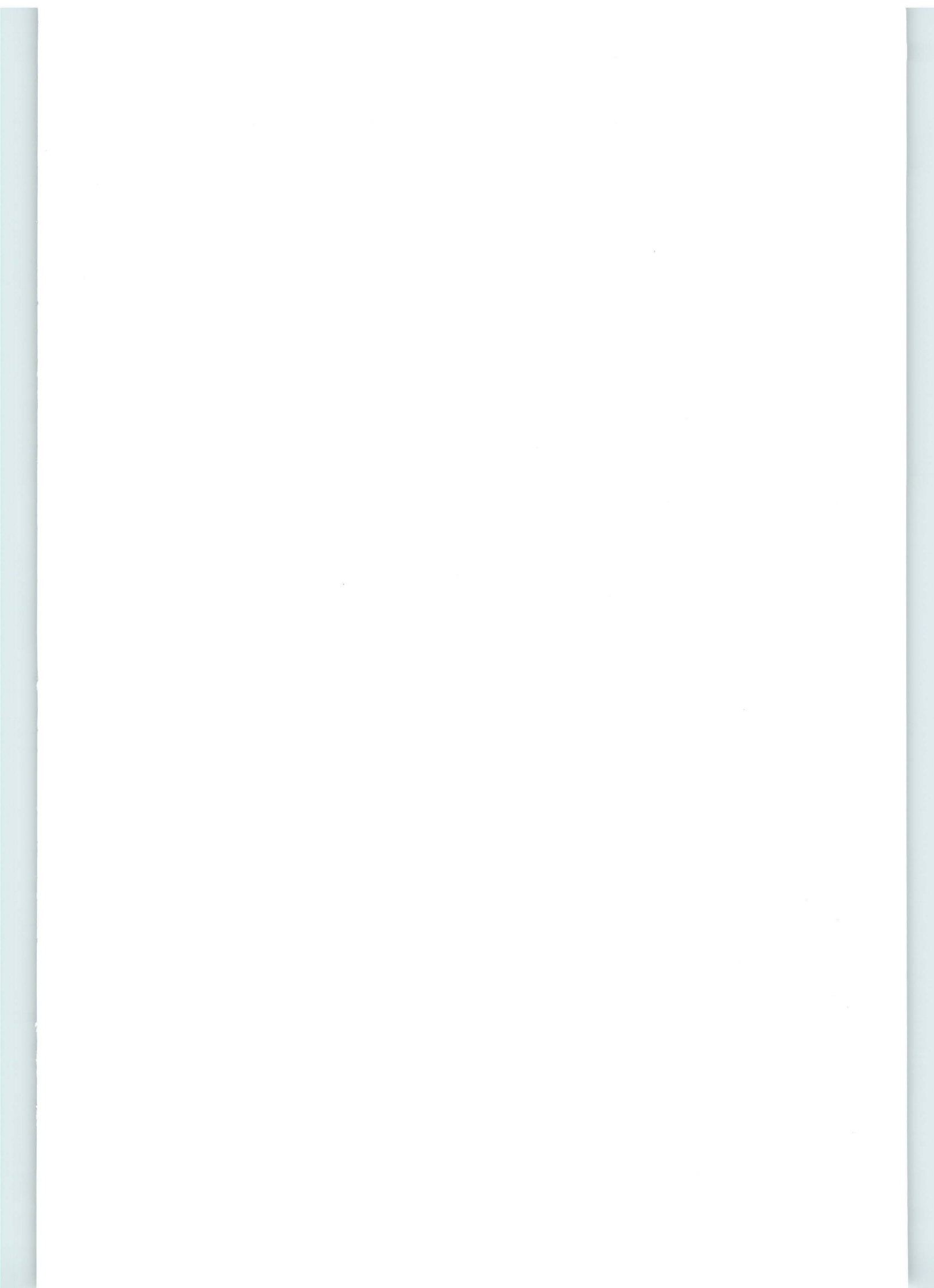
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