

# Formal Foundations of Type-Agnostic Temporal Knowledge Systems

A *temporal knowledge system* integrates data of any kind (“type-agnostic” inputs) with explicit time information to form a coherent, evolving body of knowledge. Modern approaches often use graph-based or logic-based representations. For example, **knowledge graphs (KGs)** represent facts as triples (subject–predicate–object) and can be extended with timestamps. In a *dynamic knowledge graph*, each fact becomes a quadruple  $(s, p, o, t)$  with an event time  $t$ , enabling explicit modeling of temporal evolution <sup>1</sup>. In practice this lets one ingest heterogeneous data (text, numerical, images) into a common ontology: RDF/OWL triples link diverse resources via URIs <sup>2</sup> and can be “temporalized” by adding valid and transaction time dimensions <sup>3</sup> <sup>4</sup>. Valid time is **when facts are true in the real world**, and transaction time is **when they are recorded** <sup>4</sup>. A bitemporal model (as in BiTemporal RDF) treats every resource and relationship as inherently time-stamped, supporting complex temporal queries <sup>3</sup>.

Formal temporal models impose logical constraints on these structures. **Allen’s interval algebra** (1983) is a foundational calculus that defines 13 possible relations between time intervals (e.g. “before”, “overlaps”, “during”, etc.) and provides a composition table for reasoning about temporal events. More generally, Allen’s work (and related formalisms) emphasize key requirements for any temporal knowledge framework: it **must allow imprecision and uncertainty** (many facts are only relatively dated), must accommodate a moving “present” or **now**, and should support *persistence* (facts remain true by default until changed) <sup>5</sup>. For instance, Allen notes that the model should let “imprecision of scale” and “uncertainty” in interval relations, treat the present moment as mobile, and infer by default that if a proposition holds now, it continues to hold until a contrary signal <sup>5</sup>. These criteria distinguish interval/time-logics from simple timestamping: unlike static state-space models, they capture the fluid, approximate nature of real-world time.

*Event calculus* and *situation calculus* are other logic-based approaches to temporal reasoning. In the **event calculus**, events and their effects are expressed declaratively in first-order logic, allowing one to represent rules like “If event  $E$  happens at time  $t$ , then fluent  $F$  holds thereafter unless another event stops it.” Recent work even integrates event calculus with ontology languages (description logics) to model evolving systems <sup>6</sup>. For example, Baumgartner et al. develop a logic programming framework combining event calculus with DL-safe ontologies, yielding an expressive language to model systems that evolve over time <sup>6</sup>. Such formalisms enable “time-stamped ABoxes” (sets of assertions) to be treated as fluents, supporting sound reasoning about what is true at each moment.

## Knowledge Graphs and Multimodal Data Integration

By design, knowledge graphs are *type-agnostic*: they can incorporate any entity type or relation as long as there is a URI or label to identify it. This makes KGs well-suited to fuse data from disparate sources. As Li *et al.* note, a KG can efficiently represent information extracted from complex unstructured sources (like text or images) as structured triples <sup>1</sup>. For example, a “financial event evolution” KG could integrate stock prices (numeric time series), news article events (textual data), and even social media indicators, by mapping all of them into a unified graph schema.

Temporal extensions of KGs explicitly capture dynamics. In a **temporal knowledge graph**, each triple (fact) is annotated with a temporal validity. Feng *et al.* explain that a KG fact like (*Donald Trump, presidentOf, USA*) is only valid Jan 2017–Jan 2021; a static KG omitting this time would risk incorrect inferences. Thus *temporal KG completion (TKGC)* models incorporate time validity into link prediction: they learn how the graph’s facts evolve, rather than assume facts are eternal. In sum, modern research treats dynamic KGs as sequences of event quadruples, learning embeddings or rules that respect the temporal order <sup>1</sup>. This literature provides a rich conceptual basis for a system that continuously ingests streams of heterogeneous data (market ticks, social posts, sensor feeds) into a unified, timestamped knowledge base.

Popular semantic web standards support these needs. RDF graphs use triples to “articulate nuanced meanings” and link data across diverse repositories <sup>2</sup>. OWL ontologies can define concepts and relations, giving a common semantics. To add temporality, one can adopt bitemporal RDF or similar models <sup>3</sup>. As Tansel *et al.* demonstrate, BiTemporal RDF extends standard RDF by treating valid and transaction time as core aspects of every triple, greatly enhancing expressiveness and consistency when reasoning about changing facts <sup>3</sup>. (For instance, a financial KG could use valid time to mark when an order was executed versus transaction time when it was logged.) These formalisms provide theoretical underpinnings; practical implementations then map specific data feeds into this schema, but the key is the formal model above the implementation.

- **Temporal graph structures:** Dynamic KGs add a time component to facts, representing them as  $(s, p, o, t)$ . Each fact’s timestamp allows queries about historical or future states <sup>1</sup>.
- **Ontology/ontology mapping:** RDF/OWL ontologies unify concepts across sources. All entities (stocks, coins, news topics, indicators) become nodes in a graph with typed edges, independent of data format <sup>2</sup>.
- **Temporal semantics:** Allen’s interval relations or temporal description logic provide inference rules (e.g. how an “overlaps” relation composes over time). Event Calculus can handle events whose effects persist by default <sup>6</sup>.

Together these models yield a rigorous framework for a “time-attached knowledge collector.” Incoming data (price ticks, tweets, log events) are converted to assertions in the temporal graph; logical constraints govern how new facts relate to old ones. Importantly, the formalism does not care **what type of data** (numeric, text, etc.) is entering, as long as it’s mapped onto entities and relations in the knowledge graph. This *type-agnostic* nature is central: it lets the same theoretical machinery (interval algebra, temporal logic) apply whether we’re ingesting currency exchange rates or weather sensor readings.

## Streaming and Real-Time Inference

In practice, a real-time knowledge system must handle continuous data streams. Although most cited research emphasizes the static modeling of time, several works hint at streaming extensions. For example, the BiTemporal RDF model plans compatibility with “RDF streams” and legacy systems <sup>3</sup>, suggesting how one might query evolving graphs efficiently. Moreover, temporal databases (analogous to streaming SQL systems) motivate the RDF approach: just as **temporal relational databases** answer queries over changing rows, a temporal RDF enables “time travel” queries over evolving triples <sup>4</sup>.

One can envision the dataflow: as each new event arrives (say, a crypto exchange trade or a news headline), the system creates or updates a triple in the KG with its timestamp. Constraint propagation (as in Allen’s algorithms) can then infer implied temporal relations (e.g. this trade overlaps that news event). Pattern mining techniques (e.g. Time Series Knowledge Mining) can run in the background to detect recurring temporal patterns or anomalies. (For example, sequences of events that often lead to a

volatility spike could be learned as “temporal patterns” in the data.) Ultimately, the focus remains on the **knowledge model**: ensuring that every piece of data is indexed in time, and the formalism can reason over it. The streaming aspect, while important to implementation, follows from the fact that we allow an open-ended timeline of facts.

## Advanced Risk Modeling: Beyond Simple Correlation

A key application of such a system is economic risk analysis. Naïve risk models often rely on **linear correlation** and covariance matrices (Markowitz portfolio theory, Value-at-Risk with multivariate normals). However, as Kwon et al. note, correlation has serious limitations: it focuses on short-term co-movements and can miss directional trends or tail events <sup>7</sup>. For example, historical Pearson correlation may *not* predict future correlation under stress, and simple covariance ignores “co-drift” and non-Gaussian behavior <sup>7</sup>. In the 2008 crisis, many models based solely on correlation catastrophically underestimated joint tail risks.

At the other extreme are *PhD-level* approaches used by large institutions. BlackRock’s Aladdin, for example, uses sophisticated multi-factor risk models (style and sector factors, macro risk drivers, etc.) and engages in granular stress testing under hypothetical scenarios. These models incorporate insights from stochastic calculus, econometrics, and statistics, far beyond a single correlation coefficient. In the most advanced form, one models the entire **dependence structure** of portfolio returns under realistic conditions. Recent work by Opdyke (2025) exemplifies this cutting edge: he develops **Nonparametric Angles-based Correlation (NAbC)**, a framework that can compute finite-sample distributions of *any* positive-definite dependence measure (Pearson, Spearman, Kendall, tail-dependence, etc.). NAbC yields valid p-values and confidence intervals both for the overall matrix and for individual pairwise associations, even under heavy tails, serial correlation, and non-stationarity. Crucially, it supports freezing select cells in the matrix to run counterfactual “what-if” stress scenarios, all while maintaining internal consistency. This represents a leap beyond simple correlation: one can ask, for instance, how likely an observed extreme co-movement is, and build hypothesis tests or stress results around it.

- **Correlation-based models:** Traditional risk models use covariance matrices (e.g. VaR under a normal model). These assume linear relationships and often stationary, thin-tailed distributions. In practice such models can fail under crisis – correlation tends to break down, and linear assumptions miss tail risk <sup>7</sup>. (Kwon et al. summarize that historical correlations have “weak theoretical ground” when extrapolated, and implicit correlations are unreliable <sup>7</sup>.)
- **Factor models:** A more advanced but still linear approach decomposes risk into factor exposures (equity beta, sector bets, interest rate risk, etc.). Firms like BlackRock build large-scale factor models, but they still rely on linear sensitivity and assume normal shocks (though often they augment with scenario analysis).
- **Heavy-tail and nonlinear models:** PhD-level research uses copulas and extreme-value theory to capture asymmetric and tail dependence. While classic copula models and multivariate GARCH capture some nonlinearity, they often lack practical finite-sample inference. Modern frameworks focus on robust measures: for example, NAbC treats the correlation matrix geometrically (via angles) and provides analytic confidence bounds for any dependency measure.
- **Stress testing and scenarios:** Using these advanced measures, one can perform realistic stress tests. NAbC’s novelty is allowing individual correlations to be “frozen” while re-sampling others, yielding p-values for complex scenarios. In effect, it bridges statistical inference and scenario analysis – something simple correlation models cannot do.

In summary, the theoretical frontier of risk modeling recognizes that **dependence structure** is paramount. It moves from the one-dimensional correlation coefficient to full matrix and tail-dependence models, with rigorous statistical backing. The literature emphasizes that portfolios must be

analyzed under heavy-tailed, non-stationary dynamics, and that confidence levels and hypothesis tests should be built on these advanced measures. Such cutting-edge research forms the “math and logic” side of the knowledge system: it specifies *what* risk inference tasks should be possible (e.g. computing a p-value for a given stress scenario) even before choosing a software implementation.

## Key Concepts and Takeaways

- **Type-agnostic integration:** The system’s representation (RDF/OWL or graph) treats all entities uniformly, so data of any type (numeric, text, image) can be incorporated as nodes/values <sup>2</sup>. The model abstracts away data format in favor of semantics.
- **Temporal attachments:** Every fact/event carries a time label. Common models distinguish *valid time* (when the fact holds in reality) from *transaction time* (when it was recorded) <sup>3</sup> <sup>4</sup>, often unifying both in a bitemporal framework.
- **Logical foundations:** Temporal logics provide inference rules. Allen’s algebra gives precise definitions for interval relations, and longer-lived projects (like event calculus) allow reasoning about events and their effects <sup>6</sup>. Allen (1981) emphasizes allowing imprecision/uncertainty and a moving “now” <sup>5</sup>.
- **Dynamic knowledge graphs:** Time-evolving KGs encode the changing world: each new data point appends or modifies edges with its timestamp. Machine learning (e.g. temporal KG embeddings) or rule-based systems can operate over this stream, learning patterns of temporal correlation <sup>1</sup>.
- **Advanced risk inference:** Real-time risk analysis goes beyond covariance. State-of-the-art models measure full dependence structures (including nonlinear, tail dependencies) and support rigorous statistical inference <sup>7</sup>. Frameworks like NAbC illustrate how one can attach mathematical guarantees (confidence intervals, stress p-values) to risk estimates, a far cry from simple correlation.

In essence, the formal literature tells us that a robust temporal knowledge system should (1) **organize data in a time-indexed, semantic graph**, (2) **use temporal logics/constraints** to infer new knowledge, and (3) **apply advanced statistical models** for risk measures that respect time and heavy tails. This deep theoretical foundation—spanning knowledge representation, temporal databases, and mathematical finance—ensures the system is principled, even before any specific software or stream-processing engine is chosen.

**Sources:** Foundational AI and KR literature (Allen 1983/1981 on time, event calculi) and recent surveys on temporal KGs <sup>5</sup> <sup>6</sup>; semantic web research on temporal RDF <sup>3</sup> <sup>2</sup> <sup>4</sup>; and quantitative finance studies on risk beyond correlation <sup>7</sup>. These connected sources underlie the above synthesis.

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<sup>1</sup> FinDKG: Dynamic Knowledge Graphs with Large Language Models for Detecting Global Trends in Financial Markets

<https://arxiv.org/html/2407.10909v1>

<sup>2</sup> <sup>3</sup> <sup>4</sup> Time Travel with the BiTemporal RDF Model

<https://www.mdpi.com/2227-7390/13/13/2109>

<sup>5</sup> [ijcai.org](https://www.ijcai.org)

<https://www.ijcai.org/Proceedings/81-1/Papers/045.pdf>

<sup>6</sup> [2109.04803] Combining Event Calculus and Description Logic Reasoning via Logic Programming

<https://arxiv.org/abs/2109.04803>

7 (PDF) Limitations and Mis-uses of Correlation in Financial Markets

[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/279956178\\_Limitations\\_and\\_Mis-uses\\_of\\_Correlation\\_in\\_Financial\\_Markets](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/279956178_Limitations_and_Mis-uses_of_Correlation_in_Financial_Markets)