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Bachelor Thesis

Extending Axiom Weakening for Automated Repair of Ontologies in Expressive Description Logics

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Abstract

The field of ontology engineering plays a crucial role in knowledge representation and has gained significant attention in recent years in many domains such as medicine, finance, and education. The introduction of the W3C recommended Web Ontology Language has further enabled use cases for ontology engineering in the context of the semantic web. With the growing size and complexity of these ontologies, however, ontologies become more susceptible to bugs, and it becomes harder to debug these defects. While debugging in software engineering has received much attention, tooling support for debugging ontologies remains limited. Moreover, in the context of the semantic web, automatic approaches to debugging ontologies are required for the combination of knowledge derived from independent sources. Axiom weakening has been proposed as a solution for fine-grained repair to inconsistent ontologies. This thesis presents an extension to the axiom weakening operator, in the $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ description logic, to cover a wider range of axiom types, including role inclusion axioms and role assertions. I show that the presented weakening operator retains desirable properties satisfied by previous approaches. The presented automated repair approach is experimentally evaluated against other repair approaches on a number of inconsistent ontologies. The thesis compares the amount of information that the repair is able to retain relative to other repairs based on the inferred concept hierarchy. Finally, the implementation of the presented axiom weakening operator in the popular ontology editor, Protégé, is discussed.

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Introduction

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Background and Related Work

2.1 Ontology Bugs

As software systems evolve, it becomes harder to avoid the introduction of bugs. Similarly, in ontology engineering, bugs can be introduced into an ontology. With increased size and complexity of a system, it becomes harder to debug these defects, both for software systems and ontologies.

2.1.1 Categories of Bugs

Defects, in both software systems and ontologies, can be due to a number of different reasons. In [10] the authors identify three broad categories of defects that can be present in an ontology: *syntactic defects*, *semantic defects,* and *modelling defects*.

Syntactic Defects

Syntactic defects in an ontology can be caused by a statement that does not conform to the grammar of the employed logic. Similarly, for software systems, these defects may be the result of programs that are not consistent with the grammar of the chosen programming language. These sorts of syntactic defects are easy to locate and correct. In general, tool support for these kinds of defects is able to pinpoint the location of the defect and give an explanation to the user.

Example 1.

There may however be some additional restrictions on what constitutes a valid ontology or program that is not based solely on the grammatical rules. For ontologies, these might be for example the restrictions placed upon the form of the graph for a specific OWL profile. For programming languages, a similar restriction to this may be the requirement for definition before use or the presence of a type system[1]. These restrictions reduce the space of valid programs. Restrictions of this kind can often be much easier to violate and harder to debug than the first kind of syntactic defects that is a violation of the grammar.

Example 2.

[1]When viewed from a different perspective, a type error can also be seen as the unsatisfiability of (or ambiguity in) the type assertions. In this way, it is related to an inconsistency in the context of ontologies in the case of unsatisfiability (or missing inferences in the case of ambiguity).

Semantic Defects

For ontologies, semantic defects, as defined in [10] are those which can be discovered by a reasoner given an ontology free of syntactic defects. This includes for example the inconsistency of the ontology, or the unsatisfiability of a concept. The presence of such defects is generally not hard to identify, given the availability of a reasoner for the logic of the ontology. It is, however, often not trivial to understand the underlying source of the defect.

Example 3.

A close analogy to these kinds of defects from the perspective of a software system is the raising of an error during the execution. An error is an indication of a defect in the software, and depending on tooling support they may be more or less difficult to understand and rectify.

Modelling Defects

Modelling defects are those defects that are not syntactically or semantically invalid. The presence of unintended inferences in an ontology is one such defect. These defects can also be of more stylistic nature. Redundancy or unused parts of the ontology may be considered as defects, since they do not add any knowledge to the ontology.

For software systems, modelling defects are bugs that do not cause any errors, but which produce undesired behaviour. An example for such a defect could be that the result of a calculation is wrong, or that the software includes security vulnerabilities. For software systems, there might be other non-functional requirements, that if not met constitute defects in the software. These may for example be unsatisfactory performance or unmaintainable code organization.

These kinds of defects can in general not be detected automatically by tools. They require careful attention and domain specific knowledge to be revealed and corrected. In some scenarios, testing may be used to uncover and prevent against some modelling defects, by expressing more explicitly the modellers/programmers intend. This can be done both for software systems and for ontologies.

2.1.2 Causes of Bugs

2.2 The $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ Description Logic

Formally, an ontology is a set of statements expressed in a suitable logical language and with the purpose of describing a specific domain of interest. While ontologies can be represented using a number of different formalisms, for the use in automated reasoning a trade-off must be made between expressivity and practicality. For example, first-order logic (FOL) is more expressive than propositional logic, but this added expressivity comes at the cost of decidability. In addition to decidability, scalability must also be considered in the choice and design of the used representation of the knowledge.

Description logics (DL) are often used for building ontologies. They encompass a family of related knowledge representation languages and are often fragments of FOL[2] with equality, as is the case with the description logics $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ which is the

[2]While description logics are fragments of FOL in the sense that for every knowledge base in a given description logic, there exists a FOL theory that has the same models, the syntax used by description logics is different from the syntax used in FOL, and as such a DL axiom is not a valid FOL sentence.

main focus of this work. DLs are almost always designed to be decidable, and generally offer a favourable trade-off between expressivity and complexity of reasoning tasks. Different description logics have been developed for different applications, that feature varying levels of expressivity.

In this section will briefly introduce the description logic $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ [8, 19, 1]. A more detailed description, containing more information about the semantics, can be found in Appendix A.

The syntax of $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ is based on a vocabulary of three disjoint sets N_C, N_R, N_I of, respectively, *concept names*, *role names*, and *individual names*. The sets of, respectively, $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ *roles* and $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ *concepts* are generated by the following grammar.

$$\begin{aligned} R, S &::= U \mid r \mid r^- \ , \\ C &::= \bot \mid \top \mid A \mid \neg C \mid C \sqcap C \mid C \sqcup C \mid \forall R.C \mid \exists R.C \mid \\ &\quad \geq n\ S.C \mid \leq n\ S.C \mid \exists S.\mathit{self} \mid \{i\} \ , \end{aligned}$$

where $A \in N_C$ is a concept name, $r \in N_R$ is a role name, $i \in N_I$ is an individual name and $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ is a non-negative integer. U is the universal role. S is a *simple role* in the RBox $\mathcal{R}$ (see below). In the following, $\mathcal{L}(N_C, N_R, N_I)$ and $\mathcal{L}(N_R) = N_R \cup \{U\} \cup \{r^- \mid r \in N_R\}$ denote, respectively, the set of concepts and roles that can be built over N_C, N_R, and N_I in $\mathcal{SROIQ}$.

We next define the notions of TBox, ABox, and (regular) RBox, of complex role inclusions, and of (non-)simple roles: A *TBox* $\mathcal{T}$ is a finite set of concept inclusions (GCIs) of the form $C \sqsubseteq D$ where C and D are concepts. The TBox is used to store terminological knowledge concerning the relationship between concepts. An *ABox* $\mathcal{A}$ is a finite set of statements of the form $C(a)$, $R(a, b)$, $\neg R(a, b)$, $a = b$, and $a \neq b$, where C is a concept, R is a role and a and b are individual names. The ABox expresses knowledge regarding individuals in the domain. An *RBox* $\mathcal{R}$ is a finite set of role inclusions (RIAs) of the form $R_1 \circ \cdots \circ R_n \sqsubseteq R$, and disjoint role axioms $\mathit{disjoint}(S_1, S_2)$ where R, R_1, ..., R_n, S_1, and S_2 are roles. S_1 and S_2 are simple (defined next) in the RBox $\mathcal{R}$. The special case of $n = 1$ is a simple role inclusion, while we call the cases where $n > 1$ *complex role inclusions*. The RBox represents knowledge about the relationships between roles.

The set of *non-simple* roles in $\mathcal{R}$ is the smallest set such that: U is non-simple; any role R that appears as the super role of a complex RIA $R_1 \circ \cdots \circ R_n \sqsubseteq R$ where $n > 1$ is non-simple; any role R that appears on the right-hand side of a simple RIA $S \sqsubseteq R$ where S is non-simple, is also non-simple; and a role r is non-simple if and only if r^- is non-simple. All other roles are *simple*.

For convenience, let us define the function $\mathit{inv}(R)$ such that $\mathit{inv}(r) = r^-$ and $\mathit{inv}(r^-) = r$ for all role names $r \in N_R$. An RBox $\mathcal{R}$ is *regular* if there exists a preorder $\preceq$, i.e., a transitive and reflexive relation, over the set of roles appearing in $\mathcal{R}$, such that $R \preceq S \iff \mathit{inv}(R) \preceq S$, and all RIAs in $\mathcal{R}$ are of the forms: $\mathit{inv}(R) \sqsubseteq R$, $R \circ R \sqsubseteq R$, $S \sqsubseteq R$, $R \circ S_1 \circ \cdots \circ S_n \sqsubseteq R$, $S_1 \circ \cdots \circ S_n \circ R \sqsubseteq R$, or $S_1 \circ \cdots \circ S_n \sqsubseteq R$, where $n > 1$ and R, S, $S_1, \cdots, S_n$ are roles such that $S \preceq R$, $S_i \preceq R$, and $R \not\preceq S_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. The definitions for simple roles and regularity used here align with the global restrictions in OWL 2 DL [15].

Definition 1. A $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ ontology $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{T} \cup \mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{R}$ consists of a TBox $\mathcal{T}$, an ABox $\mathcal{A}$, and a RBox $\mathcal{R}$ in the language of $\mathcal{SROIQ}$, and where the RBox $\mathcal{R}$ is regular.

The semantics of $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ is defined using *interpretations* $I = \langle \Delta^I, \cdot^I \rangle$, where Δ^I is a non-empty *domain* and $\cdot^I$ is a function associating to each individual name a an element of the domain $a^I \in \Delta^I$, to each concept C a subset of the domain $C^I \subseteq \Delta^I$,

and to each role R a binary relation on the domain $R^I \subseteq \Delta^I \times \Delta^I$; see [1, 7] or Appendix A for further details. An interpretation I is a *model* for $\mathcal{O}$ if it satisfies all the axioms in $\mathcal{O}$.

Given two concepts C and D we say that C is *subsumed* by D (or D *subsumes* C) with respect to the ontology $\mathcal{O}$, written $C \sqsubseteq_\mathcal{O} D$, if $C^I \subseteq D^I$ in every model I of $\mathcal{O}$. Further, C is *strictly subsumed by* D, written $C \sqsubset_\mathcal{O} D$, if $C \sqsubseteq_\mathcal{O} D$ but not $D \sqsubseteq_\mathcal{O} C$. Analogously, given two roles R and S, R is subsumed by S with respect to $\mathcal{O}$ ($R \sqsubseteq_\mathcal{O} S$) if $R^I \sqsubseteq S^I$ in all models I of $\mathcal{O}$. Again, $R \sqsubset_\mathcal{O} S$ holds if $R \sqsubseteq_\mathcal{O} S$ but not $D \sqsubseteq_\mathcal{O} C$.

2.3 The Web Ontology Language

Description logics are also the basis of the *Web Ontology Language* (OWL) [5, 17], which is a World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) recommendation and is extensively used as part of the semantic web. While the OWL 2 DL language is based on $\mathcal{SROIQ}$, OWL 2 also defines three so-called profiles that are fragments of the full OWL 2 language that trade-off expressive power for more efficient reasoning [16, 17]. The OWL 2 DL profile, which is the most expressive of the profiles that is still decidable[3], is based on $\mathcal{SROIQ}$.

2.4 Repairing Ontologies

As established in Section 2.1, maintaining the consistency and correctness of ontologies can be a difficult task. Ontology repair is the process of automatically correcting these inconsistencies or errors in ontologies. Several approaches have been proposed for ontology repair. This section will explore some of these approaches and their underlying principles.

2.4.1 Basic Definitions

We define a repair as proposed in [2]. It is assumed, as is the case for most description logics, that there exists a monotone consequence operator $\vDash$ such that for any two ontologies $\mathcal{O}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{O}_2$ and axiom α, $\mathcal{O}_1 \vDash \alpha$ implies $\mathcal{O}_2 \vDash \alpha$. Additionally, $\mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O})$ shall contain all consequences of $\mathcal{O}$, that is $\mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}) = \{\alpha \mid \mathcal{O} \vDash \alpha\}$. We split the ontology further into two disjoint sets $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}_s \cup \mathcal{O}_r$ of *static axioms* $\mathcal{O}_s$ and *refutable axioms* $\mathcal{O}_r$. Static axioms are assumed to be correct and may not be touched by the repair procedure, while refutable axioms are possibly be erroneous. This separation is useful for example if the static part of the ontology is hand-crafted, while the refutable part is automatically generated. Similarly, it is applicable in case multiple ontologies are combined, and some sources are seen as less trustworthy than others.

Definition 2. Given an ontology $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}_s \cup \mathcal{O}_r$ and an unintended consequence $\mathcal{O} \vDash \alpha$, $\mathcal{O}_s \nvDash \alpha$, the ontology $\mathcal{O}_s \subseteq \mathcal{O}'$ is a *repair* of $\mathcal{O}$ with respect to α if $\mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}') \subseteq \mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}) \setminus \{\alpha\}$. A repair $\mathcal{O}'$ is an *optimal repair* of $\mathcal{O}$ with respect to α if there exists no other repair $\mathcal{O}_s \subseteq \mathcal{O}''$ such that $\mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}') \subset \mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}'') \subseteq \mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}) \setminus \{\alpha\}$.

Given that $\mathcal{O}_s \nvDash \alpha$, a repair is guaranteed to exist, since $\mathcal{O}_s$ is one such repair. In contrast, generally an optimal repair does not need to exist.

[3] The most expressive profile, OWL 2 Full, is not decidable.

Example 4.

It should be noted also that there exists an infinite number of possible repairs, as adding tautologies to a repair will yield another valid repair. In the case that we are interested in making an inconsistent ontology consistent, we can use as α an unsatisfiable axiom, e.g., $\top \sqsubseteq \bot$. Since all axioms, including unsatisfiable axioms, are entailed by inconsistent ontologies, a repair that does not entail α is consistent. Notice also that in this case where $\mathcal{O}$ is inconsistent, any consistent ontology that does not entail α, even if completely unrelated to $\mathcal{O}$, will be a repair of $\mathcal{O}$.

In contrast, the classical approach to repair consists of locating and removing problematic axioms. As such, a classical repair is always a subset of the original ontology and the number of classical repairs for any pair $\mathcal{O}$ and α is necessarily finite.

Definition 3. Given an ontology $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}_s \cup \mathcal{O}_r$ and an unintended consequence $\mathcal{O} \models \alpha$, $\mathcal{O}_s \not\models \alpha$, the ontology $\mathcal{O}_s \subseteq \mathcal{O}' \subseteq \mathcal{O}$ is a *classical repair* of $\mathcal{O}$ with respect to α if $\mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}') \subseteq \mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}) \setminus \{\alpha\}$. A classical repair $\mathcal{O}'$ is an *optimal classical repair* of $\mathcal{O}$ with respect to α if there exists no other classical repair $\mathcal{O}_s \subseteq \mathcal{O}'' \subseteq \mathcal{O}$ such that $\mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}') \subset \mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}'') \subseteq \mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}) \setminus \{\alpha\}$.

We can observe that every classical repair is in fact a valid repair. It follows that also a classical repair is guaranteed to exist. Unlike for the general case of optimal repairs, an optimal classical repair is always guaranteed to exist. This follows from the fact that the set of classical repairs is finite, and the $\subset$ relation is a strict partial order, so there can not be an infinite sequence of classical repairs $\mathcal{O}^{(1)}, \mathcal{O}^{(2)}, \ldots$ such that $\mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}^{(i)}) \subset \mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{O}^{(i+1)})$.

2.4.2 Repair Approaches

Classical Repairs

Generating a classical repair can be achieved in a number of equivalent ways. One way to compute an optimal classical repair is using justifications and hitting sets [18].

Definition 4. Given an ontology $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}_s \cup \mathcal{O}_r$ and an axiom $\mathcal{O} \models \alpha$, $\mathcal{O}_s \not\models \alpha$, a *justification* for α in $\mathcal{O}$ is a minimal subset $J \subseteq \mathcal{O}_r$ such that $J \cup \mathcal{O}_s \models \alpha$. Given the set of all justifications $J_1, \ldots, J_n$ for α in $\mathcal{O}$, a *hitting set* H for these justifications is a set of axioms such that $H \cap J_i \neq$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. H is a *minimal hitting* set if it does not strictly contain another hitting set.

Example 5.

Justifications are necessarily non-empty since $\mathcal{O}_s \not\models \alpha$, and therefore hitting sets and minimal hitting sets always exist. Given any minimal hitting set H for the justification $J_1, \ldots, J_n$ of α in $\mathcal{O}$, the ontology $\mathcal{O}' = \mathcal{O} \setminus H$ is an optimal classical repair of $\mathcal{O}$ with respect to α.

This algorithm for computing optimal classical repairs requires the computation of all justifications, which can in general be very computationally intensive. Black-box approaches for computing justifications have been proposed [11, 20, 21] that compute justifications by repeatedly making calls to pre-existing highly-optimized reasoners. These may however, in the worst-case, need to make an exponential number of calls to the reasoner. Nevertheless, in practice they may often be fast enough, as for example the hitting set tree base algorithm presented in [11], which conveniently can compute both all justifications and all hitting sets. There exist also glass-box approach

to computing justifications [11], that require only a single reasoning request to find justifications, but they also require specialized, generally less efficient, reasoners.

An alternative to computing all justification is to directly find a minimal correction subset C of $\mathcal{O}_r$ such that $\mathcal{O} \setminus C \not\models \alpha$. Finding a single such set can be done efficiently using similar algorithms to the ones for finding single justifications. Algorithms for solving the minimal subsets over monotone predicate problem, such as the QuickXplain algorithm [9] or a progression-based algorithm [14] may be used. A subset of all such sets can be found efficiently using the MergeXplain algorithm [22]. Of course, computing all minimal correction subsets directly is also possible, using similar algorithms to the ones used for computing all justifications [13].

More Gentle Repairs

While the classical approach is sufficient to guarantee finding a repair of the ontology, it can lead to information loss. That is, the repaired ontology might be missing some consequences of the original ontology that were actually desirable.

Example 6.

Since ideally, one wants to retain as much information as possible, alternative methods for repairing ontologies have been proposed that are able to preserve more information than the classical approach.

One option is to first modify the original ontology and afterwards apply the classical repair approach. The intuition is that in the modified ontology the individual axioms contain less information, and therefore the removal of axioms can be more granular relative to the unmodified ontology. In [6] the authors propose a structural transformation, that replaces axioms with a set of weaker axioms that are semantically equivalent.

Example 7.

Another approach to repairing ontologies more gently that has been proposed in the literature is using *axiom weakening* [23, 4, 3, 2, 12]. Instead of removing axioms, they are replaced with weaker axioms. In [12] the authors show a method for pinpointing the causes for unsatisfiability a within axioms, and propose a way of weakening axioms guided by this information. The authors of [2] show general theoretical results for repair using axiom weakening, and propose a concrete weakening relation for the $\mathcal{EL}$ description logics. They further show that the repair algorithm using the proposed axiom weakening terminates in at most an exponential number of weakening steps. [23] presents the repair of inconsistent ontologies using axiom weakening with the help of a refinement operator. This approach is extended in [4, 3] to cover more expressive description logics and a proof of almost sure termination.

2.5 Axiom Weakening in $\mathcal{ALC}$

Chapter 3

Theoretical Foundations

3.1 Problems of Expressivity

3.2 RBox weakening

Let us now consider the weakening of RBox axioms, starting with the weakening of role hierarchies. Weakening role hierarchies in $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ becomes complicated due to global restrictions that are placed on the ontology. Adding an axiom to a valid $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ ontology, even if the axiom on its one may be valid, does not guarantee that the resulting ontology is still valid. Both the restrictions in the usage of simple roles and the regularity constraint on the RBox need to be considered if we want to ensure that a resulting ontology adheres to the restrictions in $\mathcal{SROIQ}$.

Example 8. Take as an example the ontology $\mathcal{O} = \{a \circ b \circ a \sqsubseteq c\}$ that defines the simple roles a and b, and a non-simple role c. Adding the axiom $c \sqsubseteq b$, even if it is correct in isolation, will result in an ontology that is not regular.

Example 9. As another example, take the ontology $\mathcal{O} = \{a \circ a \sqsubseteq a, \top \sqsubseteq \exists c.\mathrm{Self}\}$ that defines the transitive role a and simple role c used in a self-assertion. Adding the axiom $a \sqsubseteq c$, even if it may be correct in isolation, will result in a violation of the restrictions because c will become non-simple and non-simple roles may not be used in self-assertions.

3.2.1 Weakening role hierarchies in $\mathcal{ALCH}$

To avoid these complications, we will first consider the simple case of weakening role hierarchies in $\mathcal{ALCH}$. $\mathcal{ALCH}$ supports only simple RIAs, and does not have any of the restrictions that are present in $\mathcal{SROIQ}$. Also, we can note that

3.3 Axiom Weakening in $\mathcal{SROIQ}$

3.4 Ensuring Correct Weakening

Chapter 4

Implementation

4.1 Implementing $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ Weakening

4.2 Axiom Weakening in Protégé

Chapter 5

Experiments and Evaluation

Chapter 6

Conclusion and Future Work

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Appendix A

The $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ Description Logic

A.1 $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ Syntax

The *vocabulary*[1] $\mathrm{N} = \mathrm{N}_I \cup \mathrm{N}_C \cup \mathrm{N}_R$ of a $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ knowledge base is made up of three disjoint sets:

- The set of *individual names* N_I used to refer to single elements in the domain of discourse.
- The set of *concept names* N_C used to refer to classes that elements of the domain may be a part of.
- The set of *role names* N_R used to refer to binary relations that may hold between the elements of the domain.

A $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ knowledge base $\mathcal{KB} = \mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{T} \cup \mathcal{R}$ is the union of an *ABox* $\mathcal{A}$, a *TBox* $\mathcal{T}$, and a regular *RBox* $\mathcal{R}$. The elements of $\mathcal{KB}$ are called axioms.

A.1.1 RBox

The RBox $\mathcal{R}$ describes the relationship between different roles in the knowledge base. It consists of two disjoint parts, a role hierarchy $\mathcal{R}_h$ and a set of role assertions $\mathcal{R}_a$.

Given the set of role names N_R, a *role* is either the *universal role* u or of the form r or r^- for some role names $r \in \mathrm{N}_R$, where r^- is called the *inverse role or* r. For convenience in the latter definitions, and to avoid roles like r^{--}, which are not valid in $\mathcal{SROIQ}$, we define a function Inv such that $\mathrm{Inv}(r) = r^-$ and $\mathrm{Inv}(r^-) = r$. We denote the set of all roles as $\mathbf{R} = \mathrm{N}_R \cup \{u\} \cup \{r^- \mid r \in \mathrm{N}_R\}$.

A *role inclusion axiom* (RIA) is a statement of the form $r_1 \circ \cdots \circ r_n \sqsubseteq r$ where $r, r_1, \ldots r_n \in \mathbf{R}$ are roles. For the case in which $n = 1$, we obtain a *simple role inclusion*, which has the form $r \sqsubseteq s$ where s and r are role names (the case where $n > 1$ is called a *complex role inclusion*). A finite set of RIAs is called a *role hierarchy*, denoted $\mathcal{R}_h$.

Roles can be partitioned into two disjoint sets, simple roles and non-simple roles. Intuitively, non-simple roles are those that are implied by the composition of two or

[1] There are no strict rules for how to write down different elements of the vocabulary. However, there is a convention of using PascalCase for concept names and camelCase for names referring to roles and individuals.

more other roles. In order to preserve decidability, $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ requires that in parts of expressions only simple roles are used. We define the set of *non-simple roles* as the smallest set such that:

- the universal role u is non-simple,
- any role r that appears in a RIA of the form $r_1 \circ \cdots \circ r_n \sqsubseteq r$ where $n > 1$ is non-simple,
- any role r that appears in a simple role inclusion $s \sqsubseteq r$ where s is non-simple is itself non-simple, and
- if a role r is non-simple, then $\mathrm{Inv}(r)$ is also non-simple.

All roles which are not non-simple are *simple roles*. We denote the set of all non-simple roles with $\mathbf{R}^N$ and the set of simple roles with $\mathbf{R}^S = \mathbf{R} \setminus \mathbf{R}^N$.

Example 10.

There is an additional restriction that is placed upon the role hierarchy in a $SROIQ$ knowledge base. The role hierarchy in $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ must be regular. A role hierarchy $\mathcal{R}_h$ is *regular* if there exists a strict partial order $\prec$ (that is, an irreflexive and transitive relation) on the set of roles $\mathbf{R}$, such that $s \prec r \iff \mathrm{Inv}(s) \prec r$ and $s \prec r \iff \mathrm{Inv}(s) \prec \mathrm{Inv}(r)$ for all roles r and s, and all RIA in $\mathcal{R}_h$ are $\prec$-regular. A RIA is defined to be *$\prec$-regular* if it is of one of the following forms:

- $\mathrm{Inv}(r) \sqsubseteq r$,
- $r \circ r \sqsubseteq r$,
- $r \circ s_1 \circ \cdots \circ s_n \sqsubseteq r$,
- $s_1 \circ \cdots \circ s_n \circ r \sqsubseteq r$, or
- $s_1 \circ \cdots \circ s_n \sqsubseteq r$,

such that $s_1, \ldots, s_n, r \in \mathbf{R}$ are roles, and s_i is simple or $s_i \prec r$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

This condition on the role hierarchy prevents cyclic definitions with role inclusion axioms that include role chains. These types of cyclic definition could otherwise lead to undecidability of the logic.

Example 11.

Example 12.

To make axiom weakening simpler, this definition is slightly more general than necessary. The definition of regularity presented here is more permissive than the one in [8] in that it always allows simple roles on the left-hand side similar to what has been described in [19]. However, it is more permissive than stated in [19] in that it allows for inverse roles on the right-hand side. Still, the restriction is stronger than those present in OWL 2 DL [17].

The set of *role assertions* $\mathcal{R}_a$ is a finite set of statements with the form $\mathrm{Dis}(s_1, s_2)$ (*disjointness*) where s_1, and s_2 are simple roles in $\mathcal{R}_h$. In [8] the authors define additionally the role assertions $\mathrm{Sym}(r)$ (*symmetry*), $\mathrm{Asy}(s)$ (*asymmetry*), $\mathrm{Tra}(r)$ (*transitivity*), $\mathrm{Ref}(r)$ (*reflexivity*), and $\mathrm{Irr}(r)$ (*irreflexivity*). These additional assertions can,

however, be written using the alternative sets of axioms $\{r^- \sqsubseteq r\}$, $\{\mathrm{Dis}(r, r^-)\}$, $\{r \circ r \sqsubseteq r\}$, $\{r' \sqsubseteq r, \top \sqsubseteq \exists r'.\mathrm{Self}\}$, and $\{\top \sqsubseteq \neg\exists r.\mathrm{Self}\}$ respectively. Note that the asymmetry assertion requires a simple role, and that r' in the case of reflexivity must be a role name not otherwise used in the ontology [2].

A.1.2 TBox

The TBox $\mathcal{T}$ describes the relationship between different concepts. In $\mathcal{SROIQ}$, the set of *concept expressions* (or simply *concepts*) given an RBox $\mathcal{R}$ is inductively defined as the smallest set such that:

- $\top$ and $\bot$ are concepts, respectively called *top concept* and *bottom concept*,
- all concept names $C \in \mathrm{N}_C$ are concept, called *atomic concepts*,
- all finite subsets of individual names $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\} \subseteq \mathrm{N}_I$ are concepts, called *nominal concepts,*
- if C and D are concepts, the $\neg C$ (*negation*), $C \sqcup D$ (*union*), and $C \sqcap D$ (*intersection*) are also concepts,
- if C is a concept and $r \in \mathbf{R}$ a (possible non-simple) role, then $\exists r.C$ (*existential quantification*) and $\forall r.C$ (*universal quantification*) are also concepts, and
- if C is a concept, $s \in \mathbf{R}^S$ a simple role and $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ a non-negative number, then $\exists r.\mathrm{Self}$ (*self restriction*), $\leq ns.C$ (*at-most restriction*), and $\geq ns.C$ (*at-least restriction*) are concepts, the last two may together be referred to as *qualified number restrictions.*

Given two concepts C and D, a *general concept inclusion axiom* (GCI) is a statement of the form $C \sqsubseteq D$. The TBox $\mathcal{T}$ is a finite set of general concept inclusion axioms.

A.1.3 ABox

The ABox $\mathcal{A}$ contains statements about single individuals called individual assertions. An *individual assertion* has one of the following forms:

- $C(a)$ (*concept assertion*) for some concept C and individual name $a \in \mathrm{N}_I$,
- $r(a, b)$ (*role assertion*) or $\neg r(a, b)$ (*negative role assertion*) for some role $r \in \mathbf{R}$ and individual names $a, b \in \mathrm{N}_I$, or
- $a = b$ (*equality*) or $a \neq b$ (*inequality*) for some individual names $a \in \mathrm{N}_I$.

An ABox $\mathcal{A}$ is a finite set of individual assertions. In $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ due to the inclusion of nominal concepts, all ABox axioms can be rewritten into TBox axioms.

[2] This is necessary to allow the use of non-simple roles in a reflexivity assertion. Multiple assertions can share the same role name r'.

A.2 $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ Semantics

A.2.1 Interpretations

The semantics of $\mathcal{SROIQ}$, similar to other description logics, are defined in a model-theoretic way. Therefore, a central notion in that of the interpretations. And *interpretation* $\mathcal{I} = \langle \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}, \cdot^{\mathcal{I}} \rangle$ consists of a set $\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$ called the *domain* of $\mathcal{I}$, and an *interpretation function* $\cdot^{\mathcal{I}}$. The interpretation function maps the vocabulary elements as follows:

- for each individual name $a \in \mathrm{N}_I$ to an element $a^{\mathcal{I}} \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$ in the domain,
- for each concept name $C \in \mathrm{N}_C$ to a subset $C^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$ of the domain, and
- for each role name $r \in \mathrm{N}_R$ to a relation $r^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \times \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$ over the domain.

An interpretation maps the universal role u to $u^{\mathcal{I}} = \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \times \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$. We extend the interpretation function to operate over inverse roles such that $(r^-)^{\mathcal{I}}$ contains exactly those elements $\langle \delta_1, \delta_2 \rangle$ for which $\langle \delta_2, \delta_1 \rangle$ is contained in $r^{\mathcal{I}}$, that is $(r^-)^{\mathcal{I}} = \{\langle \delta_1, \delta_2 \rangle \mid \langle \delta_2, \delta_1 \rangle \in r^{\mathcal{I}}\}$. Further, we define the extension of the interpretation function to complex concepts inductively as follows:

- The top concept is true for every individual in the domain, therefore $\top^{\mathcal{I}} = \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- The bottom concept is true for no individual, hence $\bot^{\mathcal{I}} =$ where represents the empty set.
- Nominal concepts contain exactly the specified individuals, that is $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}^{\mathcal{I}} = \{a_1^{\mathcal{I}}, \ldots, a_n^{\mathcal{I}}\}$.
- $\neg C$ yields the complement of the extension of C, thus $(\neg C)^{\mathcal{I}} = \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \setminus C^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- $C \sqcup D$ denotes all individuals that are in either the extension of C or in that of D, hence $(C \sqcup D)^{\mathcal{I}} = C^{\mathcal{I}} \cup D^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- $C \sqcap D$ on the other hand, denotes all elements of the domain that are in the extension of both C and D, which can be expressed as $(C \sqcap D)^{\mathcal{I}} = C^{\mathcal{I}} \cap D^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- $\exists r.C$ holds for all individuals that are connected by some element in the extension of r to an individual in the extension of C, formally $(\exists r.C)^{\mathcal{I}} = \{\delta_1 \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \exists \delta_2 \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \,.\, \langle \delta_1, \delta_2 \rangle \in r^{\mathcal{I}} \wedge \delta_2 \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\}$.
- $\forall r.C$ refers to all domain elements for which all elements in the extension of r connect them to elements in the extension of C, that is $(\forall r.C)^{\mathcal{I}} = \{\delta_1 \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \forall \delta_2 \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \,.\, \langle \delta_1, \delta_2 \rangle \in r^{\mathcal{I}} \rightarrow \delta_2 \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\}$.
- $\exists r.\mathrm{Self}$ indicates all individuals that the extension of r connects to themselves, hence we let $(\exists r.\mathrm{Self})^{\mathcal{I}} = \{\delta \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \langle \delta, \delta \rangle \in r^{\mathcal{I}}\}$.
- $\leq nr.C$ represents those individuals that have at most n other individuals they are r-related to in the concept extension of C, that is $(\leq nr.C)^{\mathcal{I}} = \{\delta_1 \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \left|\{\delta_2 \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \langle \delta_1, \delta_2 \rangle \in r^{\mathcal{I}} \wedge \delta_2 \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\}\right| \leq n\}$ where $|S|$ denotes the cardinality of a set S.
- $\geq nr.C$ corollary to the case above indicates those domain elements that have at least N such r-related elements,
  $(\geq nr.C)^{\mathcal{I}} = \{\delta_1 \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \left|\{\delta_2 \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \langle \delta_1, \delta_2 \rangle \in r^{\mathcal{I}} \wedge \delta_2 \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\}\right| \geq n\}$.

A.2.2 Satisfaction of Axioms

The purpose of the (extended) interpretation function is mainly to determine satisfaction of axioms. We define in the following when an axiom α is true, or holds, in a specific interpretation $\mathcal{I}$. If this is the case, the interpretation $\mathcal{I}$ satisfies α, written $\mathcal{I} \vDash \alpha$. If an interpretation $\mathcal{I}$ satisfies an axiom α, we also say that $\mathcal{I}$ is a model of α.

- A role inclusion axiom $s_1 \circ \cdots \circ s_n \sqsubseteq r$ holds in $\mathcal{I}$ if and only if for each sequence $\delta_1, \ldots, \delta_{n+1} \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$ for which $\langle \delta_i, \delta_{i+1} \rangle \in s_i^{\mathcal{I}}$ for all $i = 1, \cdots, n$, also $\langle \delta_1, \delta_n \rangle \in r^{\rangle}$ is satisfied. Equivalently, we can write $\mathcal{I} \vDash s_1 \circ \cdots \circ s_n \sqsubseteq r \iff s_1^{\mathcal{I}} \circ \cdots \circ s_n^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq r^{\mathcal{I}}$ where $\circ$ denotes the composition of the relations.
- A role reflexivity axiom $\mathrm{Ref}(r)$ hold iff for each element of the domain $\delta \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$ the condition $\langle \delta, \delta \rangle \in r^{\mathcal{I}}$ is satisfied. In other words, $\mathcal{I} \vDash \mathrm{Ref}(r) \iff \{\langle \delta, \delta \rangle \mid \delta \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}\} \subseteq r^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- A role asymmetry axioms $\mathrm{Asy}(r)$ is holds $\mathcal{I} \vDash \mathrm{Asy}(r)$ iff $\langle \delta_1, \delta_2 \rangle \in r^{\mathcal{I}}$ implies that $\langle \delta_2, \delta_1 \rangle \notin r^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- A role disjointness axiom $\mathrm{Dis}(s, r)$ hold iff the extensions of r and s are disjoint, formally $\mathcal{I} \vDash \mathrm{Dis}(s, r) \iff s^{\mathrm{I}} \cap r^{\mathrm{I}} =$.
- A general concept inclusion axiom $C \sqsubseteq D$ is true iff the extension of C is fully contained in the extension of D, hence $\mathcal{I} \vDash C \sqsubseteq D \iff C^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq D^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- A concept assertion $C(a)$ holds iff the individual that a is mapped to by $\cdot^{\mathcal{I}}$ is in the concept extension of C, therefore $\mathcal{I} \vDash C(a) \iff a^{\mathcal{I}} \in C^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- A role assertion $r(a, b)$ holds iff the individuals denoted by the name a and b are connected in the extension of r, thus $\mathcal{I} \vDash r(a, b) \iff \langle a^{\mathcal{I}}, b^{\mathcal{I}} \rangle \in r^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- A negative role assertion $\neg r(a, b)$ is true exactly than when the corresponding role assertion $r(a, b)$ is false. Equivalently, $\mathcal{I} \vDash \neg r(a, b) \iff \langle a^{\mathcal{I}}, b^{\mathcal{I}} \rangle \notin r^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- An equality assertion $a = b$ holds iff the individuals identified by a and b are the same element of the domain, formally written $\mathcal{I} \vDash a = b \iff a^{\mathcal{I}} = b^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- Dual to the above, $a \neq b$ holds iff the names a and b denote different elements, accordingly $\mathcal{I} \vDash a \neq b \iff a^{\mathcal{I}} \neq b^{\mathcal{I}}$.

We say a set of axioms holds in an interpretation $\mathcal{I}$ iff every axiom of the set hold in $\mathcal{I}$. Accordingly, $\mathcal{I}$ satisfies a knowledge base $\mathcal{KB}$, written $\mathcal{I} \vDash \mathcal{KB}$, iff $\mathcal{I}$ satisfies every axiom $\alpha \in \mathcal{KB}$ of the knowledge base, i.e., $\mathcal{I} \vDash \mathcal{KB} \iff \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{KB} \,.\, \mathcal{I} \vDash \alpha$. If $\mathcal{I}$ satisfies $\mathcal{KB}$, we say $\mathcal{I}$ is a model of $\mathcal{KB}$.

A.2.3 Reasoning tasks

In general, logic-based knowledge representation is useful for the ability to perform reasoning task on knowledge bases. There are a number of reasoning tasks that can be performed by a reasoner in description logics. In this section, we will take a look at three basic reasoning tasks, and how they can be reduced to each other. While there exists other reasoning task, this section will focus on *knowledge base satisfiability, axiom entailment, and concept satisfiability.*

α	B
$s_1 \circ \cdots \circ s_n \sqsubseteq r$	$s_1(a_1, a_2), \ldots, s_n(a_n, a_{n+1})$, and $\neg r(a_1, a_{n+1})$
$\mathrm{Dis}(s, r)$	$s(a, b)$ and $r(a, b)$
$C \sqsubseteq D$	$(C \sqcap \neg D)(a)$
$C(a)$	$\neg C(a)$
$r(a, b)$	$\neg r(a, b)$
$\neg r(a, b)$	$r(a, b)$
$a = b$	$a \neq b$
$a \neq b$	$a = b$

Table A.1: The axioms in B together have the "opposite" meaning of those in α. This means, checking entailment of α with respect to $\mathcal{KB}$, is equivalent to checking unsatisfiability of $\mathcal{KB} \cup B$. a, a_i, and b are assumed to not appear in $\mathcal{KB}$.

Knowledge base satisfiability

A knowledge $\mathcal{KB}$ base is satisfiable iff there exists a model $\mathcal{I} \vDash \mathcal{KB}$ for $\mathcal{KB}$. Otherwise, the knowledge base is called unsatisfiable, inconsistent, or contradictory. As discussed in Section 2.1, an inconsistent knowledge base can be a sign of modelling errors. An inconsistent knowledge base entailed every statement, and as such all information extracted from it is useless. Therefore, an unsatisfiable knowledge base is generally undesirable. Furthermore, both the task of deciding concept satisfiability and axiom entailment can be reduced to deciding knowledge base consistency.

Axiom entailment

An axiom α is entailed by $\mathcal{KB}$ if every model $\mathcal{I} \vDash \mathcal{KB}$ of the knowledge base also satisfies the axiom $\mathcal{I} \vDash \alpha$. We also write this as $\mathcal{KB} \vDash \alpha$ and say that α is a consequence of $\mathcal{KB}$. Deciding axiom entailment is an important task in order to derive new information from the collected knowledge. If α is entailed by the empty knowledge base, α is said to be a *tautology*. Further, the *set of consequences* of $\mathcal{KB}$ if the set of all axioms which are entailed by $\mathcal{KB}$, we write $\mathrm{Con}(\mathcal{KB}) = \{\alpha \mid \mathcal{KB} \vDash \alpha\}$. It is clear that the set of consequences will always be infinite, since there is an infinite number of tautologies.

The problem of axiom entailment can be reduced to determining for the satisfiability of a modified knowledge base. This is achieved by using an axiom β that imposes the opposite restriction to α, to be more precise, for all interpretations $\mathcal{I} \vDash \alpha \iff \mathcal{I} \nvDash \beta$. If α is entailed by $\mathcal{KB}$, it must hold in every model of $\mathcal{KB}$, hence β must not hold in any model. It follows that the extended knowledge base $\mathcal{KB} \cup \{\beta\}$ has no new model, and is therefore unsatisfiable. We can consequently solve the axiom entailment problem by testing for satisfiability of a modified knowledge base, if we can find such an opposing axiom for α. For some cases in $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ finding such an opposite is obvious, for others the desired behaviour must be emulated with a set of axioms. Appendix A.2.3 shows the correspondence for every type of $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ axiom.

Concept satisfiability

A concept C is satisfiable with respect to $\mathcal{KB}$ iff there exists a model of the knowledge base $\mathcal{I} \vDash \mathcal{KB}$ such that the extension of C is not empty, i.e., $C^{\mathcal{I}} \neq$. A concept which is not satisfiable is called unsatisfiable. Clearly, some concepts are unsatisfiable with respect to every knowledge base, for example $\bot$ or $A \sqcap \neg A$. However, similar to an unsatisfiable knowledge base, an unsatisfiable atomic concept may be an indication of a modelling mistake.

Like axiom entailment, concept satisfiability can be reduced to knowledge base satisfiability. If a concept is unsatisfiable, every model $\mathcal{I} \vDash \mathcal{KB}$ maps the concept to the empty set, that is $C^{\mathcal{I}} =$. Since the other direction is trivial, we can rewrite this as $C^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq$. It follows that since $\bot^{\mathcal{I}} =$ the every such model satisfies $\mathcal{I} \vDash C \sqsubseteq \bot$, meaning $\mathcal{KB} \vDash C \sqsubseteq \bot$. We conclude that we can test for unsatisfiability of a concept C by checking for entailment of $C \sqsubseteq \bot$.

Appendix B

Axiom Weakening in OWL 2 DL

Since OWL 2 DL is reducible to $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ it would be sufficient to perform this normalization and then apply the weakening as described to the resulting $\mathcal{SROIQ}$ ontology. This transformation is unproblematic in some contexts, for example if the result is only going to be used for automatic reasoning tasks. However, if the output must be further manipulated by a user of the system, the added noise introduced by the normalization may cause confuting and hinder understanding. Further, weakening OWL 2 DL ontologies directly can be seen as a heuristic, giving an indication as to which weakening might make sense from a modelling perspective.

Example 13. OWL has an axiom $\mathrm{DisjointClasses}(C_1, \ldots, C_n)$[1] that allows specifying that a set of classes all are pairwise disjoint. $C_i \sqcap C_j \sqsubseteq \bot$ for all $i \neq j = 1, \ldots, n$. One reasonable approach to weakening the OWL axiom is to replace any of the classes C_i with a more specific class $C_i' \in \rho_{\mathcal{O}}(C_i)$. In contrast, after normalization, there will be $n-1$ occurrences of C_i. It is unlikely, increasingly so with growing n, that all such occurrences will be weakened to the same concept. After weakening the normalized ontology, it is thus in general not possible to reconstruct the disjointness axiom.

It should be noted that working directly with OWL 2 axioms will make repairs less gentle. For some axiom types, it is not obvious how they could reasonably be weakened to another single axiom. For these kinds of axioms, removal is the only available weakening.

Example 14. The OWL axiom $\mathrm{EquivalentClasses}(C_1, \ldots, C_n)$ can not easily be weakened. One option for weakening is removing one of the arguments. The axiom would be normalized to a set of $\mathrm{SubClassOf}$ axioms, for which both the subclass and superclasses can be modified. It is evident that this is more gentle than completely removing arguments.

For OWL 2 DL we must follow the same restrictions, when it comes to regularity and simplicity of roles, as for $\mathcal{SROIQ}$. The same definitions for the upward and downward covers, $\mathrm{UpCover}_{\mathcal{O}}$ and $\mathrm{DownCover}_{\mathcal{O}}$, are used. We define the refinement operator $\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}$ for OWL 2 DL as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(A) &= \uparrow(A) \qquad \text{for } A \in \mathrm{N}_c \cup \mathbf{R} \cup \{\top, \bot\} \\ \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\mathrm{ObjectComplementOf}(C)) &= \uparrow(\mathrm{ObjectComplementOf}(C)) \\ &\quad \cup \{\mathrm{ObjectComplementOf}(C') \mid C' \in \zeta_{\downarrow,\uparrow}(C)\} \end{aligned}$$

[1] In the rest of this section, the OWL 2 functional syntax (cf. [17]) will be used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectIntersectionOf}(C_1,\ldots,C_n)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectIntersectionOf}(C_1,\ldots,C_n)) \\
& \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{\text{ObjectIntersectionOf}(C_1,\ldots,C_i',\ldots C_n) \mid C_i' \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(C_i)\} \\
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectUnionOf}(C_1,\ldots,C_n)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectUnionOf}(C_1,\ldots,C_n)) \\
& \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{\text{ObjectUnionOf}(C_1,\ldots,C_i',\ldots C_n) \mid C_i' \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(C_i)\} \\
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectAllValuesFrom}(r,C)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectAllValuesFrom}(r,C)) \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectAllValuesFrom}(r',C) \mid r' \in \zeta_{\downarrow,\uparrow}(r)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectAllValuesFrom}(r,C') \mid C' \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(C)\} \\
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectSomeValuesFrom}(r,C)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectSomeValuesFrom}(r,C)) \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectSomeValuesFrom}(r',C) \mid r' \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(r)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectSomeValuesFrom}(r,C') \mid C' \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(C)\} \\
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectHasSelf}(r)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectHasSelf}(r)) \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectHasSelf}(r') \mid r' \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(r)\} \\
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectMaxCardinality}(n,r,C)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectMaxCardinality}(n,r,C)) \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectMaxCardinality}(n',r,C) \mid n' \in \uparrow(n)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectMaxCardinality}(n,r',C) \mid r' \in \zeta_{\downarrow,\uparrow}(r)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectMaxCardinality}(n,r,C') \mid C' \in \zeta_{\downarrow,\uparrow}(C)\} \\
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectMinCardinality}(n,r,C)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectMinCardinality}(n,r,C)) \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectMinCardinality}(n',r,C) \mid n' \in \downarrow(n)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectMinCardinality}(n,r',C) \mid r' \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(r)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectMinCardinality}(n,r,C') \mid C' \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(C)\} \\
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectOneOf}(a_1,\ldots,a_n)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectOneOf}(a_1,\ldots,a_n))
\end{aligned}
$$

OWL 2 concepts:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectExactCardinality}(n,r,C)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectExactCardinality}(n,r,C)) \\
& \cup \{\phi_1 \sqcap \phi_2 \mid \phi_1 \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectMaxCardinality}(n,r,C)) \\
& \qquad \wedge\, \phi_2 \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectMinCardinality}(n,r,C))\} \\
\zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\text{ObjectHasValue}(r,a)) = {} & \uparrow(\text{ObjectHasValue}(r,a)) \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectHasValue}(r',a) \mid r' \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(r)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectSomeValuesFrom}(r,A) \mid A \in \zeta_{\uparrow,\downarrow}(\{a\})\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Using this abstract refinement operator, we build two concrete refinement operators, a generalization operator $\gamma_{\mathcal{O}} = \zeta_{\text{UpCover}_{\mathcal{O}},\text{DownCover}_{\mathcal{O}}}$ and a specialization operator $\rho_{\mathcal{O}} = \zeta_{\text{DownCover}_{\mathcal{O}},\text{UpCover}_{\mathcal{O}}}$. Using these generalization and specialization operators, we then define the axiom weakening operator $g_{\mathcal{O}}$ for OWL 2 DL axioms as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{SubClassOf}(C,D)) = {} & \{\text{SubClassOf}(C',D) \mid C' \in \rho_{\mathcal{O}}(C)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{SubClassOf}(C,D') \mid D' \in \gamma_{\mathcal{O}}(D)\} \\
g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{ClassAssertion}(C,a)) = {} & \{\text{ClassAssertion}(C',a) \mid C' \in \gamma_{\mathcal{O}}(C)\} \\
g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{ObjectPropertyAssertion}(r,a)) = {} & \{\text{ObjectPropertyAssertion}(r',a) \mid r' \in \gamma_{\mathcal{O}}(r)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{ObjectPropertyAssertion}(r,a), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\} \\
g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{NegativeObjectPropertyAssertion}(r,a)) = {} & \{\text{NegativeObjectPropertyAssertion}(r',a) \mid r' \in \rho_{\mathcal{O}}(r)\} \\
& \cup \{\text{NegativeObjectPropertyAssertion}(r,a), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\} \\
g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{SameIndividual}(a_1,\ldots,a_n)) = {} & \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{\text{SameIndividual}(\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\} \setminus \{a_i\})\} \\
& \cup \{\text{SameIndividual}(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\} \\
g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{DifferentIndividuals}(a_1,\ldots,a_n)) = {} & \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{\text{DifferentIndividuals}(\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\} \setminus \{a_i\})\} \\
& \cup \{\text{DifferentIndividuals}(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{DisjointObjectProperties}(r_1, \ldots, r_n)) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{\text{DisjointObjectProperties}(r_1, \ldots, r'_i, \ldots, r_n) \mid r'_i \in \rho_{\mathcal{O}}(r_i)\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{SubObjectPropertyOf}(s, r)) = {} & \{\text{SubObjectPropertyOf}(s', r) \mid s' \in \rho_{\mathcal{O}}(s)\} \\ & \cup \{\text{SubObjectPropertyOf}(s, r') \mid r' \in \gamma_{\mathcal{O}}(r) \wedge r \text{ is simple}\} \\ & \cup \{\bot \sqsubseteq \top\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{SubObjectPropertyOf}(& \\ \text{ObjectPropertyChain}(s_1, \ldots, s_n), r)) = {} & \{\text{SubObjectPropertyOf}(\\ & \quad \text{ObjectPropertyChain}(s_1, \ldots, s'_i, \ldots, s_n), r) \mid s'_i \in \rho_{\mathcal{O}}(s_i)\} \\ & \cup \{\text{SubObjectPropertyOf}(\\ & \quad \text{ObjectPropertyChain}(s_1, \ldots, s_n), r)\} \end{aligned}$$

OWL 2 axioms:

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{EquivalentClasses}(C_1, \ldots, C_n)) = {} & \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{\text{EquivalentClasses}(\{C_1, \ldots, C_n\} \setminus \{C_i\})\} \\ & \cup \{\text{EquivalentClasses}(C_1, \ldots, C_n)\} \end{aligned}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{DisjointClasses}(C_1, \ldots, C_n)) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{\text{DisjointClasses}(C_1, \ldots, C'_i, \ldots, C_n) \mid C'_i \in \rho_{\mathcal{O}}(C_i)\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{DisjointUnion}(D, C_1, \ldots, C_n)) = \{\text{DisjointUnion}(D, C_1, \ldots, C_n), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{EquivalentObjectProperties}(r_1, \ldots, r_n)) = {} & \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{\text{EquivalentObjectProperties}(\{r_1, \ldots, r_n\} \setminus \{r_i\})\} \\ & \cup \{\text{EquivalentObjectProperties}(r_1, \ldots, r_n)\} \end{aligned}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{InverseObjectProperties}(s, r)) = \{\text{InverseObjectProperties}(s, r), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{FunctionalObjectProperty}(r)) = \{\text{FunctionalObjectProperty}(r), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{InverseFunctionalObjectProperty}(r)) = \{\text{InverseFunctionalObjectPro}(r), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{SymmetricObjectProperty}(r)) = \{\text{SymmetricObjectProperty}(r), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{AsymmetricObjectProperty}(r)) = \{\text{AsymmetricObjectProperty}(r), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{TransitiveObjectProperty}(r)) = \{\text{TransitiveObjectProperty}(r), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{ReflexiveObjectProperty}(r)) = \{\text{ReflexiveObjectProperty}(r), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{IrreflexiveObjectProperty}(r)) = \{\text{IrreflexiveObjectProperty}(r), \bot \sqsubseteq \top\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{ObjectPropertyDomain}(r, C)) = \{\text{ObjectPropertyDomain}(r, C') \mid C' \in \gamma_{\mathcal{O}}(C)\}$$

$$g_{\mathcal{O}}(\text{ObjectPropertyRange}(r, C)) = \{\text{ObjectPropertyRange}(r, C') \mid C' \in \gamma_{\mathcal{O}}(C)\}$$