

Extensions to the Core Ontology for Robotics and Automation

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Abstract

The working group *Ontologies for Robotics and Automation*, sponsored by the *IEEE Robotics & Automation Society*, recently proposed a Core Ontology for Robotics and Automation (CORA). This ontology was developed to provide an unambiguous definition of core notions of robotics and related topics. It is based on SUMO, a top-level ontology of general concepts, and on ISO 8373:2012 standard, developed by the ISO/TC184/SC2 Working Group,

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which defines — in a natural language — important terms in the domain of Robotics and Automation (R&A). In this paper, we introduce a set of ontologies that complement CORA with notions such as industrial design and positioning. We also introduce updates to CORA in order to give a more ontologically sound account of autonomy and representation of robot parts.

Keywords: Ontologies for robotics and automation, Ontology-based standards, Core ontology, Ontology engineering, Knowledge representation.

1. Introduction

A well-structured *body of knowledge* for robotics is a crucial requirement for unambiguous communication and reasoning not only for robots, but also for ~~knowledge and information sharing about robots among~~ humans and for human-robot interaction. Recently, such bodies of knowledge have been successfully developed using ontologies. Ontologies are information artifacts that specify in a *formal* and *explicit* way the domain knowledge *shared* by a community [1]. The availability of well-founded methodologies allow us to develop ontologies in a principled way. The artifacts that result from this process ensure a mutual agreement among stakeholders, increase the potential of reuse of the knowledge and promote data integration.

In order to specify and clarify the meaning of the core notions common in robotics and automation (R&A), the working group *Ontologies for Robotics and Automation* (ORA), sponsored by the *IEEE Robotics & Automation Society*, have proposed a *Core Ontology for Robotics and Automation* (CORA). This ontology is meant to be used by robots and roboticists in tasks that require explicit knowledge about robots, such as robot-robot/robot-human communication, robot design and integration of data about robots. The ORA WG aims to standardize knowledge representation in R&A field [2]. Within this broad context, CORA is intended to provide the core conceptual structure that will integrate other specific ontologies developed for the domain of R&A.

CORA has been developed taking into account notions of formal ontology. In particular, we evaluated many of our ontological choices following guidelines proposed by known methodologies, such as METHONTOLOGY [3] and OntoClean [4]. In particular, CORA specializes SUMO [5], a top-level ontology that aims to define the main ontological categories describing the world. Such an approach is new in developing standards in R&A and has the

29 advantage of producing better founded standard, which requires less work to
30 use, maintain and extend.

31 This work reports the recent development of the ongoing CORA project,
32 and provides an overview of its current state. The previous version of CORA
33 [6] was extended, introducing new concepts and relations that have been
34 omitted. Thus, this paper presents some changes in modelling decisions that
35 has been implemented since the previous version. The major new contri-
36 bution can be divided in two broad areas. First, we propose CORAX, an
37 ontology that covers concepts too general to be part of CORA, and that are
38 not covered by SUMO. These include knowledge about *design* (as in the case
39 of product design), *physical environment*, *interaction* and *artificial systems*.
40 Moreover, we have proposed extensions and changes to CORA itself, in or-
41 der to improve its ontological commitment to the domain. Mainly, we are
42 concerned with representation of *operation modes* and *robot parts*. Finally,
43 we discuss some directions regarding new topics, yet to be covered (such as
44 control and planning).

45 2. Ontology Engineering

46 We developed CORA using a series of ontology tools and frameworks.
47 The main methodology is based on METHONTOLOGY [3], an ontology
48 engineering methodology for constructing ontologies. It provides a method-
49 ology for building ontology either from scratch, by reuse, or re-engineering
50 existing ones. In general, it consists of a set of guidelines about how to carry
51 out the activities identified in the ontology development process, the kinds of
52 techniques that are the most appropriate for each activity, and the resulting
53 products.

54 We also based many of the underlying *ontological commitments* on *Onto-*
55 *Clean* [4]. Ontoclean is a methodology for validating the ontological adequacy
56 of taxonomic relationships. It is based on highly generic ontological notions
57 drawn from philosophy, like *essence*, *identity* and *unity*. These notions are
58 used to characterize relevant aspects of the intended meaning of the proper-
59 ties, classes and relations that compose an ontology. OntoClean induces the
60 ontology engineer to make explicit the ontological commitments underlying
61 the concepts that are being modelled. As a result, OntoClean allowed us to
62 identify ambiguities in the definitions provided by other standards to some
63 core notions of R&A (see [6] for more details).

In addition, as a result of an evaluation process carried out in [6], we selected the *Suggested Upper Merged Ontology* (SUMO)¹ [5] as the most suitable top-level ontology for supporting the development of CORA. SUMO was developed by an IEEE working group, and according to our analysis, it is flexible enough to fit the purposes of the project. It includes the main notions and distinctions we would like to introduce in our ontology, such as *agent*, *device* and *agent group*. All concepts in CORA and related ontologies are specializations of concepts in SUMO.

SUMO defines the basic ontological categories across all domains. The remainder of this section gives a brief overview of its main concepts, illustrated in Fig. 1. Detailed information can be found in [5].

The main SUMO category is *Entity*, which is a disjoint partition of *Physical* and *Abstract* entities. Physical represents entities that have a location in space-time. Abstract describes entities that do not have a location in space-time.

Physical is further partitioned into *Object* and *Process*. Object exists in space, keeping its identity in time, and have spatial parts but not temporal parts. Process is the class of instances that happen in time and have temporal parts or stages. This means SUMO follows an *endurantist* perspective instead of a *perdurantist* one. For a perdurantist, an object is composed by every temporal part it has at all times. On the other hand, for an endurantist, an object changes through time, but keeps essential parts that define its identity. A good analogy is to think that perdurantists see object as tunnel-like regions in a 4D space, while endurantists see them as 3D region that travels through the time dimension.

Abstract is further partitioned into *Quantity*, *Attribute*, *SetOrClass*, *Relation* and *Proposition*. Quantity abstracts numeric and physical quantities. Attribute abstracts qualities that cannot or are chosen not to be considered as subclasses of Object. SetOrClass abstracts entities that have *elements* (in the case of sets) or *instances* (in the case of classes). Relation generalizes n-ary relations, functions and lists. Finally, *Propositions* are entities that express a complete thought or a set of such thoughts.

¹<http://www.ontologyportal.org/>

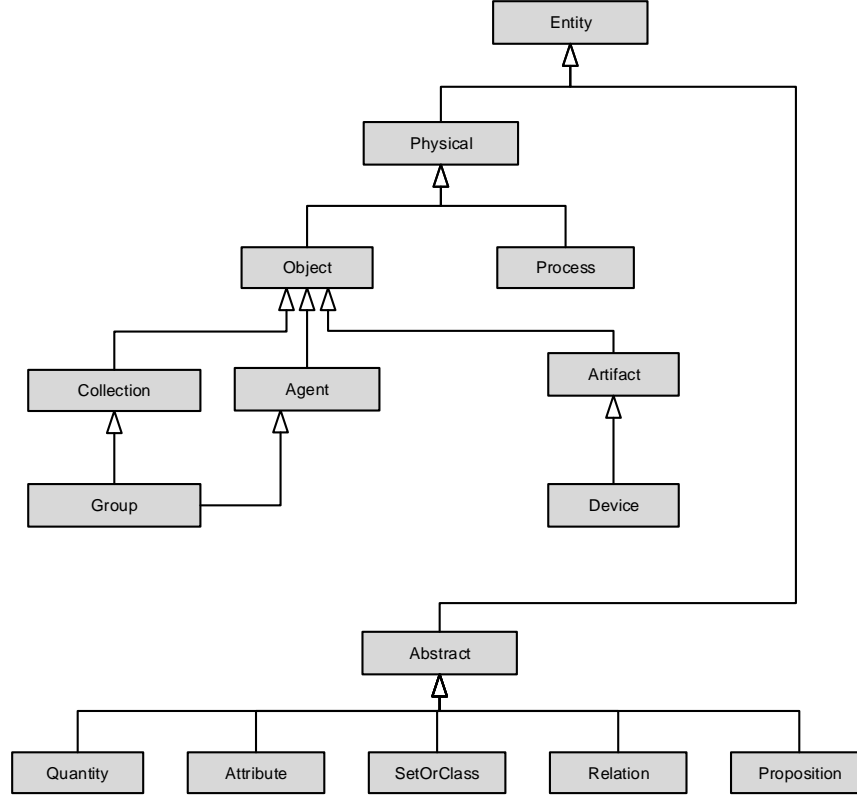


Figure 1: Overview of top-level concepts of SUMO.

3. Overview of CORA

CORA aims to describe what a robot is and how its concept relates to other concepts. It defines three broad entities: *robot*, *robot group* and *robotic system* (Fig. 2). In this paper, we are not going to delve into details about each concept, since they were presented in [6]. Instead, we provide a short description of each domain entity.

The term *robot* may have as many definitions as people writing about the subject. This inherent ambiguity in this term might be an issue when one needs to specify an ontology for a broad community. We acknowledge this ambiguity as an intrinsic feature of the domain and, therefore, we decided to elaborate a definition based purely on necessary conditions, without specifying sufficient conditions. Thus, our goal is to ensure that CORA covers

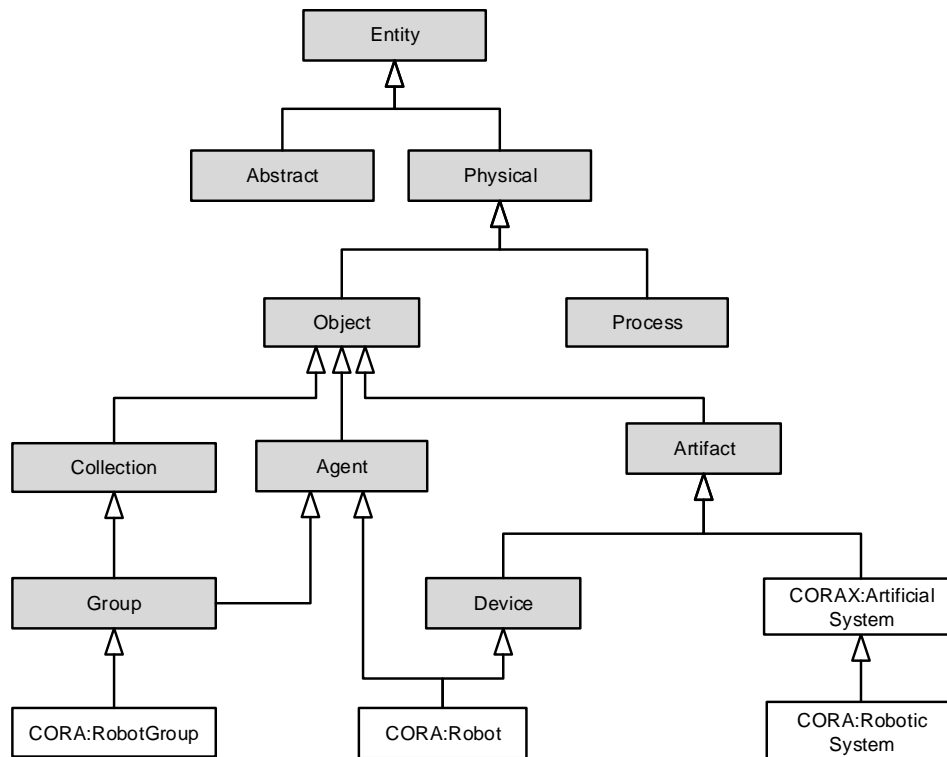


Figure 2: Overview of the main concepts in CORA: *robot*, *robot group* and *robotic system*

108 ~~probably~~ most of the entities that the community actually considers as a
 109 robot, at the cost of classifying as a robot some entities that actually are not
 110 robots in the point of view of some roboticists. However, the concepts in our
 111 ontology could be specialized according to the needs of specific sub-domains
 112 or applications of R&A.

113 More importantly, we introduced a definition of robot that emphasizes its
 114 functional aspects. For our general purposes, *robots are agentive devices* in a
 115 broad sense, purposed to act in order to accomplish a task. In some cases, the
 116 actions of a robot might be subordinated to actions of other agents, such as
 117 software agents (bots) or humans. Robots are also *devices*, composed of suit-
 118 able mechanical and electronic parts. Robots can form *social groups*, where
 119 they interact to achieve a common goal. A robot (or a group of robots) can
 120 form robotic systems together with other devices. An environment equipped

121 with a robotic system is a robotic environment.

122 A *robot* is a *device* in the sense of SUMO. According to SUMO, a device
123 is an artifact (i.e., a *physical object product of making*), which participates
124 as a tool in a process. Being a device, robot inherits from SUMO the notion
125 that devices have parts. Therefore, CORA allows one to represent complex
126 robots with robots parts.

127 A robot is also an *agent*. SUMO states that agent is “*something or*
128 *someone that can act on its own and produce changes in the world*”. Robots
129 perform tasks by acting on the environment or themselves. Action is strongly
130 related to agency, in the sense that the acting defines the agent. A robot can
131 form robot groups. A *robot group* is also an agent; in the sense that its own
132 agency emerges from its participants. This notion can be used to describe
133 robot teams, or even complex robots formed by many independent robotic
134 agents acting in unison.

135 *Robotic systems* are systems composed of robots (or robot groups) and
136 other devices that facilitate the operations of robots. A good example of a
137 robotic system is a car assembly cell at a manufacturing site. It is located in
138 an environment equipped with actuated structures that manipulate the car
139 body, in a way that industrial robots can act on them. Finally, as previously
140 stated, an environment equipped with a robotic system is a *robotic environ-*
141 *ment*. See [6, 7] for a more detailed discussion on CORA’s main concepts.
142 Next, we describe new notions that have been integrated to CORA.

143 4. Updating CORA

144 CORA has been updated since its initial proposal [6, 7]. The main driving
145 force behind these changes came from aligning it with existing ontologies and
146 more expert involvement in the ~~developing~~ process. We compared CORA
147 with an application *ontology for kitting* developed within the group [8]. Our
148 objective was to investigate whether or not both ontologies could be merged
149 and to check whether all notions in the kitting ontology were present in the
150 combination of SUMO and CORA. This merging process led us to discover
151 important concepts and relations present in ~~the~~ kitting ontology that were not
152 covered by ~~neither~~ CORA ~~nor~~ SUMO. Based on that, we developed a series
153 of new ontology modules to bridge the gap between SUMO and the kitting
154 ontology, which are mostly covered by CORAX and the position ontologies.

155 Furthermore, more involvement of independent experts and feedback was
156 received after ~~that~~ the preliminary ~~standard~~ draft ~~was~~ completed. Appar-

157 ently, experts were more comfortable to discuss concepts and relations after
 158 a first set of ontological commitments was made. The initial model served as
 159 a pivot for articulating new requirements on the ontology. Since it was based
 160 on well-founded ontological commitments, the model was more resilient to
 161 ad-hoc proposals to change it, translating into a more stable evolution of the
 162 ontology. Notably, changes were more eminent in aspects of the ontology that
 163 were not well founded in the first version of the ontology, such as autonomy.

164 In the following sections, we describe the changes made in and around
 165 CORA as a result of that process. They consist mostly of sub-ontologies
 166 complementing or specializing CORA (see Fig. 3).

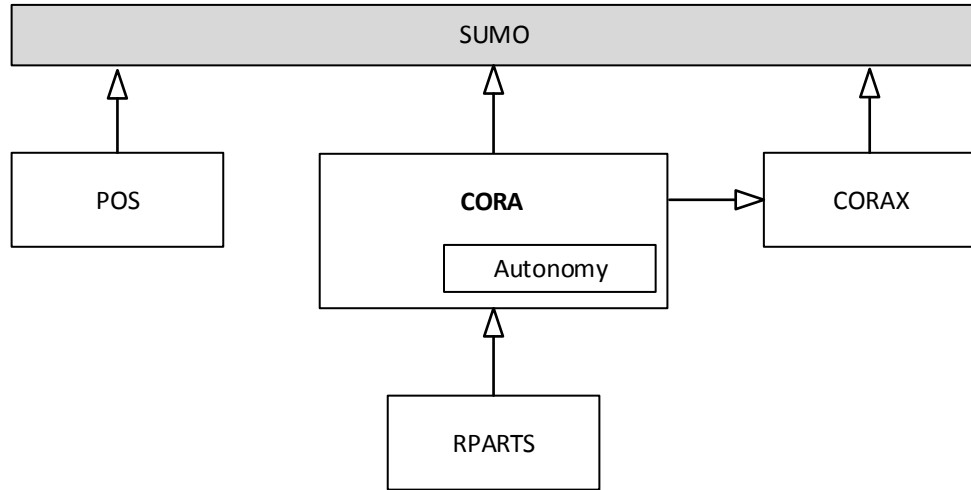


Figure 3: Extensions made to CORA and SUMO. CORAX, POS and RPARTS are extensions made to SUMO and CORA. The way CORA represents autonomy was also updated.

167 5. CORAX: connecting CORA and SUMO

168 Naturally, SUMO does not cover every possible aspect of reality, even
 169 when we restrict ourselves to R&A. At the same time, some of parts of reality
 170 are too general to be included in CORA. Due to this fact, we introduced
 171 the CORAX ontology, which plays a role bridging SUMO and CORA. In
 172 particular, CORAX includes concepts and relations associated with design,
 173 interaction and environment that are not covered in SUMO.

5.1. Design

Design is an important concept in engineering, specially in manufacturing. In R&A, the concept is frequently related to industrial robotics, where robots perform the job of building artifacts. Those robots have to know the design of the artifacts they are building in order to coordinate their actions.

A design is an abstract entity; it does not have materiality in itself. Rather, *content-bearing objects* (in SUMO), such as manuals and blueprints, give materiality to a design. One could reason ~~that this in the other way around:~~ a design is what links a series of related *blueprints*; it is the common abstract content that is represented in different blueprints. Furthermore, an artifact is related to a particular design, so that one should expect that the *artifact* realizes the design.

In our point of view, SUMO does not provide a good specification of design. One of its sub-ontologies—namely the engineering ontology—defines the concept *Model*, which is a type of abstract entity that seems to capture the notion of design described above. However, a model is not clearly related to content bearing objects, ~~neither~~ to *artifacts* in general. SUMO defines the *models* relationship between *Model* and *Engineering Component*, which is too restrictive to our purposes; since we would like to represent models of any kind of artifact.

In response to ~~that~~, we defined the concept of *Design*, which is a kind of *Proposition*. According to SUMO, a *proposition* is an abstract entity that express a complete thought or a set of thoughts. For instance, the phrases “*the cat is on the mat*” and “*o gato está no tapete*” express the *same proposition* in English and in Portuguese, respectively. Much in the same way, many *blueprints* might express the same *design*.

Furthermore, it is required to express properties of the object that a design is about. For instance, the design of a phone is about an ideal (*idealized*) phone that is materialized in the individual realizations of the design. This ideal phone has ideal properties, such as ideal weight and shape. There are many ways of representing such an object. For instance, one could represent it as a special instance of the concept *Phone*, called prototype. Another alternative is to collapse both the design and the ideal object in the same entity. This is exactly the approach that was adopted in a complex design ontology that is presented in [9] and that is based on SUMO as well. However, regarding this approach, since the ideal object is also a proposition, there might be issues when modelling attributes and parts of it. For instance, if both the design of a phone and the ideal phone (the content of the design) are

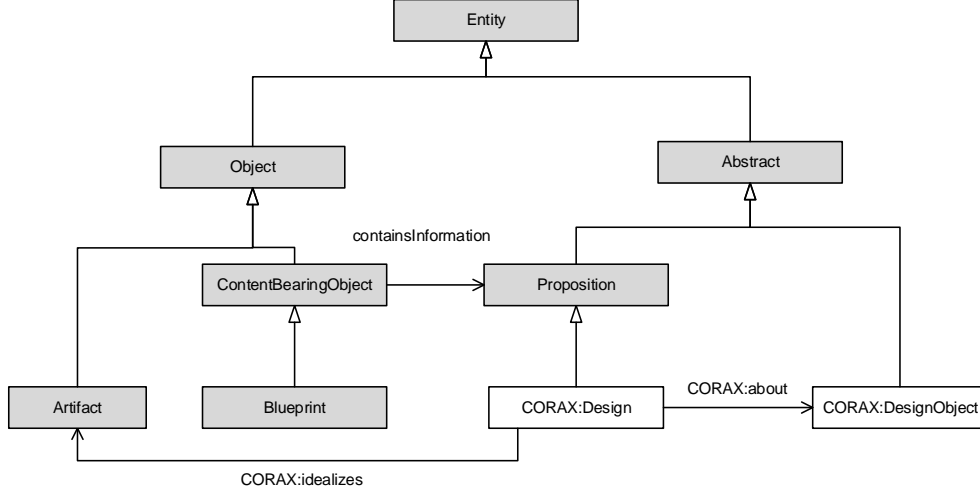


Figure 4: Entities associated to Design in CORAX.

212 the same entity, this entity, as a proposition, will have a designed color and
 213 a designed shape. However, *a proposition cannot have a color or a shape*.
 214 Thus, we have proposed to model the ideal object as a separate abstract
 215 entity called *Design Object*, which specifies the idealized object that is the
 216 *content* of a Design. We believe this definition better matches the intuitive
 217 notion that experts have about engineering models, which is close to the one
 218 of a blueprint; it also does not introduce a new metacategory in SUMO (such
 219 as prototype). As with physical objects, design objects also have properties,
 220 such as weight and shape. SUMO provide two main relations to represent
 221 properties, namely *attribute* and *measure*. However, these can only predicate
 222 physical objects. Thus, we created the relations *designAttribute* and *design-*
 223 *Measure*, which are analog to attribute and measure in SUMO, reusing their
 224 domain values. In this way, we can specify that, for instance, an idealized
 225 phone (an instance of *Object Design*) has a *design shape* and a *design weight*.

226 Designs *idealize* artifacts (therefore, the relation *CORAX:idealizes* in Fig-
 227 ure 4). It is important to note that it is the *design* that idealize the artifact,
 228 and not the design object. The properties of the design object and those of
 229 the artifact possibly correlate, but we will not provide a theory about how
 230 this correlation occurs at this stage.

231 5.2. Physical Environment

232 Another important notion missing in SUMO is that of *physical environ-*
 233 *ment*. We added this concept to CORAX in order to support specification of
 234 *robotic environments*. In our view, an *environment* is intuitively composed
 235 by a physical region, plus other eventual physical entities that characterize
 236 the environment. In addition, the definition of physical environment depends
 237 on another physical entity, which serves as a kind of landmark from which it
 238 is possible to define the main region of an environment. Landmarks can be
 239 located within the region of interest of the environment or not. For instance,
 240 the environment of an office room depends on the physical configuration of
 241 its walls, which are located ~~at~~ the environment. However, we can also define
 242 an arbitrary environment cube ~~at~~ outer space that depends on Earth as a
 243 landmark. In this case, Earth might not be located at the region defining
 244 the borders of the environment.

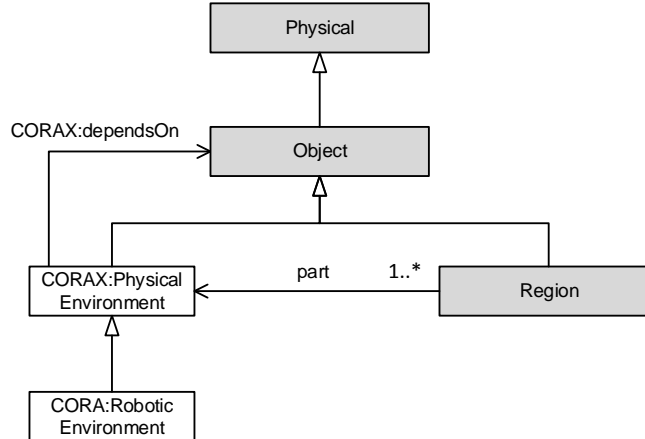


Figure 5: Concepts and relations of Physical Environment in CORAX.

245 More formally, we defined a physical environment in CORAX as a physical
 246 object that has at least one region as *part* and that depends on another entity.
 247 All other physical objects being part of an environment must be located at
 248 a region that is part of the environment.

249 5.3. Interaction and Artificial System

250 In order to properly define a *robotic system*, we have to specify what is
 251 an *artificial system*. An artificial system is simply an artifact formed from

252 various devices (and other objects) that interact with each other and with
253 the environment in order to fulfill a function.

254 This requires a basic definition of *interaction*. We define interaction as a
255 process in which two agents participate, where an *action* generated by one
256 agent causes a *reaction* on the other. More specifically, an interaction process
257 is composed by two sub-processes corresponding to action and reaction. The
258 action sub-process initiated by agent x on a patient agent y causes a reaction
259 sub-process, having y as agent and x as patient.

260 6. CORA: Autonomy revisited

261 *Autonomy* is one of the most important terms in R&A, yet one of the
262 hardest to define precisely. In the previous version of CORA, we advocated
263 for a flexible definition that — while not being precise — could distinguish
264 between robots that were clearly autonomous from others with questionable
265 autonomy. In CORA, it is pushed a step further in making the modelling
266 more versatile.

267 In this new version, our definitions are aligned with those from ALFUS
268 [10], which performed an extensive study about autonomy in unmanned ve-
269 hicles. In short, ALFUS states that autonomy is generally dependent on
270 *degree of human intervention* and *context*, where the latter is characterized
271 by *type of mission* and *environment*.

272 In CORA, autonomy is presented in close relation to what ALFUS de-
273 fines as *modes of operation for unmanned systems*. These modes stretches
274 from fully autonomous to remote controlled, representing the degree of hu-
275 man interaction needed for the robot to perform its task. In our view, they
276 encapsulate the expert's intuitive notion of autonomy in R&A². More specif-
277 ically, CORA includes:

278 ***Fully autonomous robots:*** A role for a robot performing a given task
279 in which the robot solves the task without human intervention, while
280 adapting to operational and environmental conditions.

281 ***Semi-autonomous robot:*** A role for a robot performing a given task in

²ALFUS even goes a step further in trying to characterize absolute levels of autonomy, which correlates with the modes of operation presented here. However, the exact nature of this relation is not clarified.

282 which the robot and a human operator plan and conduct the task,
283 requiring various levels of human interaction.

284 **Teleoperated robot:** A role for a robot performing a given task, in which
285 a human operator either directly controls the actuators using sensory
286 feedback, or assigns incremental goals on a continuous basis, from a
287 location off the robot. A teleoperated robot will complete its last com-
288 mand after the operator stops sending commands, even if that com-
289 mand is complex and time-consuming.

290 **Remote controlled robot:** A role for a robot performing a given task, in
291 which the human operator controls the robot on a continuous basis,
292 from a location off the robot via only her/his direct observation. In
293 this mode, the robot takes no initiative, and relies on continuous, or
294 nearly continuous input from the human operator.

295 **Automated robot:** A role for a robot performing a given task in which the
296 robot acts as an automaton, not adapting to changes in the environment
297 ~~and/or following scripted plans.~~

298 It is important to note that *automated robot* is not part of ALFUS' modes
299 of operation. Experts in our groups determined that certain robots require
300 little human interaction, but at the same time, they are too simple to be
301 characterized as fully autonomous. This is the case of automatons, including
302 automated dolls and toys, which hardly react to changes in environment.
303 Relatively simple code scripts or mechatronics determine the behavior of
304 these robots.

305 One could mention at this point that some robots are inherently au-
306 tonomous, or, at least, are made with this purpose. Therefore, autonomy
307 would not depend on context. Indeed, there is a correlation between purpose
308 and physical capabilities of a robot, and the modes of operation it can achieve
309 in certain tasks. Yet, this is not the definitive factor in how the robot will
310 operate during its lifetime. It only means that such a robot *can* play a role
311 of autonomous robots.

312 The fact that this classification is context-dependent also affected our
313 modelling choices. A mode of operation is a *role*, ~~in a modelling sense.~~ A
314 role can predicate a given entity at a given time, but it can cease to predicate
315 it at a later time. For instance, the canonical example of role is *Student*: one
316 can predicate a person as a student at a given time, and later cease to do so.

317 This contrasts with rigid types, such as *Person*, that cannot stop predicating
 318 an entity without this entity ceasing to exist. That is, someone cannot cease
 319 to be a person without ceasing to exist. In general, a role is also dependent
 320 on another entity. For instance, it is necessary to a person to be enrolled at
 321 an educational institution in order to be predicated as a student.

322 A modeler can specify roles in many ways. The earlier version of CORA
 323 specified the various modes of operation as concepts. However, SUMO does
 324 not support roles as concepts (contrary to other ontologies [11]). For that
 325 reason, we modified the modelling of operational modes so that they became
 326 a specific type of relation present in SUMO, namely *Case Role*.

327 A case role in SUMO is a type of relation between an entity and a process.
 328 It describes a role that an entity plays in the process in which it participates.
 329 In order to define autonomy levels as case roles, we specialized the relation
 330 *agent* present in SUMO into the relation *robotAgent*. The relation *agent* is
 331 a relationship that links entities to the processes where they have an “active
 332 determinant” behavior. The relation *robotAgent* applies to robots and the
 333 processes in which the robot is the active determinant. A given operation
 334 mode depends on the way a robot determines the outcome of processes where
 335 it is involved. We represent the operational modes as a subrelation of *robotAgent*:
 336 *fullyAutonomousRobot*, *semiAutonomousRobot*, *teleoperatedRobot*,
 337 *remoteControlledRobot* and *automatedRobot*. When a particular robot as-
 338 sumes a particular operation mode at a particular task, it is predicated with
 339 the appropriate relation. For instance, a robot that is autonomous at driv-
 340 ing, assumes the role *fullyAutonomousRobot* at the autonomous driving pro-
 341 cess. The same robot can assume different operation modes in different
 342 processes, depending on the context. Interestingly, since processes can have
 343 sub-processes, a robot can assume different roles at different sub-processes.
 344 For instance, a cleaning robot might be fully autonomous regarding planning
 345 routes around the house, but semi-autonomous at detecting dirty places to
 346 clean.



347 7. RPARTS: Robot parts and extensibility

348 RPARTS is a sub-ontology of CORA that specifies the notions related to
 349 specific kinds of robot parts.

350 According to CORA, robots are (agentive) devices *composed of* other de-
 351 vices. There is a myriad of devices that can be robot parts, and we cannot
 352 determine in advance what *kinds* of devices can or cannot be robot parts.

353 Notice that this is an issue that arises at the *conceptual level*. This is a
354 consequence of the “open-ended” nature of robots, whose design is only con-
355 strained by ~~the~~ human needs, human creativity and available technological
356 resources. Therefore, types of devices that have never thought ~~to~~ be parts
357 of a robot so far can be used as a robot part by some designer in the future.
358 An ontology for R&A, as CORA is, must take into account this issue.

359 Furthermore, there is another issue regarding the notion of robot parts
360 that arises at the *instance level*. According to our analysis, none of the
361 instances that can be classified as robot parts is *essentially* a robot part,
362 since they can exist by themselves when they are not connected to a robot
363 (or when they are connected to other complex devices). For instance, a power
364 source is essentially a device, and we cannot consider power source ~~as~~ a sub-
365 class of the class of robot parts, because this would imply that all instances
366 of power sources are always robot parts. This is not true, since a specific
367 instance of power source can be dynamically considered as a part of different
368 complex devices during different specific time intervals. Due to this, CORA
369 assumes that the notion of “robot part” is a *role* (in the sense previously
370 discussed) that can be played by other devices.

371 In the earlier version of CORA [6], the notion of robot part was considered
372 as a *class*, whose instances are not *essentially* instances of it. Thus, instances
373 of robot part could cease to be robot parts, without ceasing to exist. In this
374 sense, for example, an instance of power source that is considered as a robot
375 part at a given moment (when it is connected to a robot) could cease to be
376 a robot part in another moment without ceasing to exist (as an instance of
377 power source). Thus, *Robot part* was considered as an *anti-rigid* class, in
378 the sense of [4, 11]. Our modelling pattern [6] was developed accordingly,
379 inspired by [11]. It represents how a specific instance of a specific kind of
380 device (e.g., power source) could be classified as a robot part.

381 ~~As a matter of fact,~~ this pattern becomes complex when we take into
382 account the principles advocated in [4, 11]. According to these frameworks,
383 an anti-rigid class (e.g., robot part) cannot subsume a rigid one (e.g., power
384 source). Considering this principle, for each rigid class *c* that can play the role
385 of robot part, we must create another specific anti-rigid class (a specific role)
386 that will be subsumed by both *c* and *Robot Part*. For instance, considering
387 an instance of the rigid class *Wheel*; it only becomes a robot part when it is
388 attached to a particular robot. Given this condition, it becomes a member of
389 the more specific class (e.g., “*Wheel as Robot Part*”), which is subsumed by
390 the rigid class *Wheel* and the anti-rigid class *Robot Part* (see [6] for further

391 details.)

392 We changed the representation of robot parts in the new edition of CORA.
393 One of the reasons that justifies the changes is that the modelling pattern
394 proposed for representing robot parts lead to domain models that are over-
395 whelmingly complex. Some classes that must be created in order to maintain
396 the consistency of the model do not fit well into the domain conceptualization
397 held by most of the practitioners. Moreover, the resulting complexity is hard
398 to manage. Therefore, this modelling pattern could hinder the broad adop-
399 tion of the ontology in the domain. Another factor leading to the revision was
400 that it is not clear how to fit the dynamical behavior that is expected from
401 roles in the framework of SUMO. The modelling of roles adopted in [4, 11]
402 relies on the notion of *possibility* (a *modal* notion). However, as pointed out
403 in [12], the treatment of possibilities in SUMO is not clear.

404 In the current version of CORA, we have modeled the notion of robot part
405 as a relationship between a given device d and a robot r , indicating that d is
406 playing the role of robot part, when it is connected to r . During the analysis
407 of the domain literature, we have identified some specific types of parts that
408 are important to distinguish beside the notion of robot part. These types of
409 parts—according to our analysis—would be different sub-roles of robot part,
410 which could be played by devices with specific features. Thus, robot parts
411 in CORA can be:

412 **Robot sensing part:** responsible for sensing the surrounding environment.

413 Formally, robot sensing parts must be measuring devices connected to
414 the robot. A measuring device, according to SUMO, is *any device*
415 *whose purpose is to measure a physical quantity*. For example, a *laser*
416 *sensor* can play the role of robot sensing part, when connected to a
417 robot.

418 **Robot actuating part:** allow the robot to move and act in the surrounding
419 environment. Formally, robot actuating parts must be devices that
420 are instruments in a process of robot motion, which is any process of
421 movement where the robot is the agent and the patient is one of its
422 parts.

423 **Robot communicating part:** ~~role played by any device that serves as in-~~
424 ~~strument in a process of~~ communication between robots and humans,
425 by allowing the robot to send (or receive) information to (or from) a
426 robot or a human.

427 **Robot processing part:** ~~allow the robot to process~~ data and information.
428 Formally, robot processing ~~devices~~ must be processing devices con-
429 nected to the robot. A processing ~~device~~, on the other hand, is any
430 electric device whose purpose is to serve as an instrument in a subclass
431 of computer process.

432 It is important to emphasize that although these different types of robot
433 parts are modeled as relations between specific devices and robots, they are
434 intended to behave as roles.

435 This modelling choice is also interesting regarding modularity issues. This
436 approach ~~allows keeping~~ CORA as a minimal core of high-level concepts that
437 provide the structure to the domain, without going deep into details regarding
438 the myriads of different devices that could play the roles specified here. In
439 this sense, this structure of roles can be viewed as an interface (in the sense of
440 *object oriented programming paradigm*) that can be implemented in different
441 ways. Naturally, this schema poses a need of sub-ontologies to define the
442 taxonomies of devices that can play the roles specified in CORA, such as
443 *ontology of sensors, ontology of grippers, etc.*

444 8. POS: Position, orientation and pose

445 The position (POS) ontology is an ontology that extends SUMO and
446 complements CORA, developed for capturing the main concepts and rela-
447 tions underlying the notions of *position*, *orientation* and *pose*. These are
448 essential for dealing with information about the relation between the robot
449 and the surrounding space. In this section, we summarize the main notions
450 regarding positional information. Figure 6 presents an overview of some of
451 the main notions captured in POS, showing their relationships with concepts
452 of SUMO.

453 According to the literature, roboticists and other domain experts usually
454 utilize two kinds of positional information [13]: *quantitative* or *qualitative*.
455 In the quantitative case, a position is represented by a *point* in a given
456 coordinate system. On the qualitative case, a position is represented as a
457 *region* defined as a function of a reference object. For instance, one can
458 describe a robot as being positioned at the coordinates (x, y) in the global
459 coordinate system, or that the robot is positioned *at the front of the box*,
460 where “front” comprises a conical region centered on the box and pointed
461 forward.

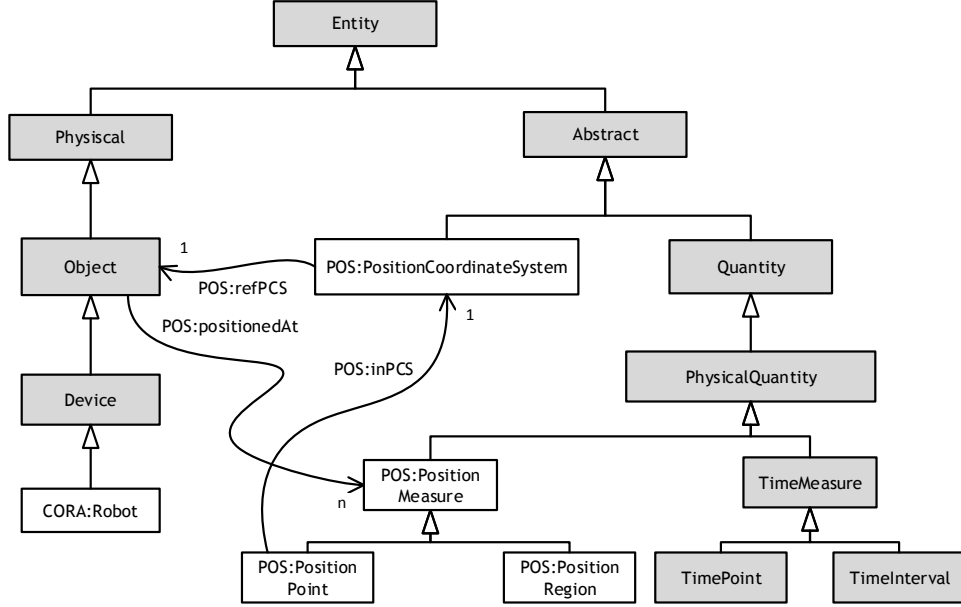


Figure 6: Fragment of POS ontology, presenting the main concepts and relations underlying the notion of *position*.

We consider that a *position* can be attributed to a (physical) *object*. In this sense, when we say that “a robot x is positioned at y ”, this means that there is a *measure* that relates a given “robot x ” to a *position measurement* y .

Position measurements are *physical quantities* that can be *position points* or *position regions*. A position point refers to a point in a *coordinate system* projected on the physical space. A position region is an *abstract region* in a *coordinate system* comprising a series of position points.

A position point denotes the *quantitative* position of an object in a coordinate system. More specifically, position points are always defined in a single coordinate system.

A *coordinate system* is an *abstract* entity that is defined in relation to a *single reference* object, i.e., there is an object that is the reference to each coordinate system. For instance, the local coordinate system of a robot is referenced by the robot itself. Additionally, the reference object does not need to be ~~necessarily~~ at the origin of the coordinate system.

478 This ontology does not commit to a particular kind of coordinate system.
 479 It can be stated however, that a coordinate system defines at least one dimen-
 480 sion in which points get their coordinate values. A n -dimensional coordinate
 481 system, c , is homeomorphic to a subset of \mathbb{R}^n , such that a coordinate $p \in c$
 482 can be represented as n -tuple $\phi(p) = (x_1(p), x_2(p), \dots, x_n(p))$. The functions
 483 x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are coordinate functions that attribute to p a real value in the
 484 dimension n of the coordinate system [14].

485 A fundamental aspect of coordinate systems is the notion of *transformation*,
 486 which maps position points in a coordinate system to position points
 487 in another coordinate system. The transformations can be composed gener-
 488 ating new transformations. In our ontology, an object can display multiple
 489 positions in different coordinate systems only if there is a transformation that
 490 can map between the two.

491 In addition, coordinate systems are related through *hierarchies* (i.e. trees).
 492 We say that a given coordinate system, c_1 , is parent of a coordinate system,
 493 c_2 , if there is a transformation, t_1 that maps the points of c_1 in points in c_2
 494 and there is a transformation, t_2 , which maps the points of c_2 in points in
 495 c_1 . According to this, if two coordinate systems share a parent node in the
 496 hierarchy tree, there is a transformation between them. Usually, an agent
 497 chooses a coordinate system as the global reference frame, which constitutes
 498 the *global coordinate system* (GCS) for that agent. This GCS can be *ar-*
 499 *bitrarily* chosen and does not have reference a particular coordinate frame.
 500 *Local coordinate systems* (LCS) are defined in relation to GCS by hierarchical
 501 links. This notion of hierarchy is an arbitrary one, defined by the agent.

502 As already stated earlier, besides the quantitative position, our ontology
 503 also provides concepts about qualitative positions, which are defined in terms
 504 of position regions. Example of qualitative positions are “left of”, “in front
 505 of”, “on top of”, etc. These expressions define regions in relation to a refer-
 506 ence object o_r in which other objects are placed. More specifically, a *position*
 507 *region* is composed by poses in the coordinate system generated by a *spa-*
 508 *tial operator* on the reference object. The spatial operator is a *mathematical*
 509 *function* that maps reference objects to regions in a coordinate system, in
 510 arbitrary ways.

511 Our ontology also allows the representation of *relative positions* of the
 512 objects regarding a given reference object. In general, this kind of informa-
 513 tion is represented through *spatial relations* that are held between objects.
 514 An example of this kind of information is the relation $\text{leftOf}(o, o_r)$, which
 515 represents that the object o is positioned at left of the object o_r . This kind

of relation can be defined in our framework using the notions of *relative position* and *spatial operator*. For example, the relation $\text{leftOf}(o, o_r)$ holds when there is a qualitative position s (a position region) that was generated by the spatial operator leftOfOp over the reference object o_r and the object o has the relative position s regarding o_r . Through this mechanism, our ontology provides the semantics to spatial relations like “at left of”.

The usual notion of orientation is similar to position regarding its conceptual structure. Due to this, we will provide only a brief overview. An object can have a quantitative orientation defined as a value in an orientation coordinate system, as well as a qualitative orientation defined as a region in relation to a reference object. For instance, an example of use of orientation is in the phrase “the robot is oriented at 54 degrees”; the orientation value in this case is 54 in the circular, one-dimensional coordinate system of a compass. On the other hand, orientation regions capture a less intuitive notion. The expression “the robot is orientated to the north of the Earth” allows for interpretations where the robot has a range of possible orientation points around the 0 degrees. Thus, we model “north” as a region (or interval) in the one-dimensional compass coordinate system that overlaps with the general orientational extension of the object.

A position and an orientation constitute a pose. The pose of an object is the description of any position and orientation bearing the same object. Often, a pose is defined with a position and an orientation to different coordinate systems/reference objects. In addition, since objects can have many different positions and orientation, they can also have many different poses.

It is important to note that the current version of the POS ontology is *synchronic*. That is, it considers only facts about a single time point, just like a snapshot in time. As such, two objects cannot have the exact same quantitative position *e.* occupy the same pose. One of the future extensions to this ontology will consider the modelling of the world along different instants. Thus, in the future, a *diachronic* version of the POS ontology will be developed.

9. Discussion

The importance of information sharing in R&A emphasizes the necessity of standardization in the field. These standards must be *clear*, *precise* and *easy to use*. CORA is supposed to fill that necessity: it specifies the central concepts of R&A and related fields. In this paper, we presented new additions

552 to CORA and its adjoint domains, providing concepts about positioning,
553 autonomy (and modes of operation), and interaction. These can already be
554 used for building more detailed sub-domain ontologies and algorithms.

555 Several scenarios could take advantage of using CORA (and the related
556 ontologies) in R&A. Firstly, CORA can be immediately applied in offline
557 *meaning negotiation* among roboticists. That is, our ontologies could be used
558 as *reference conceptual models* for ensuring the mutual agreement among
559 humans regarding the meaning concepts of R&A domains.

560 Moreover, used as a *software component*, the ontology has an appealing
561 application for enhancing communication among (heterogeneous) robots, as
562 well as, among robots and humans. For example, a natural application for
563 CORA is to be used as a tool developing a *middleware* for communication
564 among robots, ensuring the semantic interoperability among them.

565 Our ontologies can be used as *reusable knowledge components* in *knowledge-*
566 *based problem-solving processes*. Using CORA, ~~when performing its tasks~~, a
567 robot can apply high-level logical reasoning capabilities, taking advantage of
568 its high-level knowledge about the world for deciding the suitable action that
569 it should perform for achieving a goal. In general, robots can use ontologies
570 in this way to support tasks as *planning* [15, 16, 17] and *navigation* [18]. In
571 addition, other ontologies can be integrate with our ontologies, providing a
572 wide range of concepts and relations for allowing richer descriptions of the
573 robot's world. Such semantic descriptions can be used by the robot in per-
574 ception processes, such as in [19, 20, 21, 22], for enhancing tasks that require
575 *object recognition* through *visual perception*, ~~for example~~.

576 Furthermore, our ontologies can be used for defining the notions underly-
577 ing *robot programming frameworks*. CORA could provide these frameworks
578 with a conceptual structure that fits the conceptualization that is shared
579 among the roboticists. ~~Thus, for~~ instance, an object-oriented programming
580 framework for robots based on concepts and relations in CORA would be
581 easier to be assimilated by new programmers. In this way, dealing with these
582 frameworks would become more natural for the practitioners of R&A. In ad-
583 dition, our ontologies could define standard *interfaces* for these frameworks,
584 promoting the semantic interoperability among them.

585 CORA can also be used for promoting *data integration* and *semantic in-*
586 *teroperability* among robot databases. This could have positive impacts to
587 the *knowledge management* process of companies that commercialize prod-
588 ucts and components for R&A field.

589 10. Future work: what should we expect from now?

590 CORA and related ontologies still do not cover some important areas
591 in R&A. For instance, *control* still needs to be taken into account. This
592 issue is complex, since it involves other important concepts in robotics, such
593 as perception, planning and action. It should also incorporate information
594 ranging from simple classical controllers — such as P — to complex non-
595 linear control. It should account for different control strategies as well.

596 The notion of *task* is also important in the domain. Since ~~nowadays~~ robots
597 should be able to operate in complex scenarios, task definitions must be clear
598 to allow robots to communicate with each other, other machines and humans.
599 In this sense, ontologies play a clear role in tasks specification. CORA must
600 be designed to allow several types of tasks in various environments, e.g.,
601 grasp, move, scan and so on. Future work will be devoted to the ontological
602 characterization of what kind of entity a task is. We believe that a good
603 starting point is to separate *tasks* from *tasks executions*, ~~for example~~. With
604 this distinction, we acknowledge that tasks are *abstract* entities that describe
605 goals to be reached; while tasks executions are *events* composed by *actions*
606 that are performed by robots in the world in order to reach a given goal.
607 Moreover, in future steps it is necessary to identity the basic kinds of tasks
608 that robots usually perform. These ~~tasks~~ definitions will be the basis of more
609 complex task definitions. CORA must define clearly the interfaces to domain
610 ontologies, like industrial [23] or surgical [24] [25].

611 Furthermore, planning is also an important related issue. Given a task,
612 the *plan* is an abstract partially ordered set of references to actions, which
613 when performed contribute ~~for~~ the task execution. Possibly, any development
614 in this area should take into account SUMO concepts related to plan.

615 Finally, CORA and related ontologies do not represent change in time
616 (e.g. changes in sensor data). We envisage *diachronic* version of CORA,
617 where time is taken into account.

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