

The Semantic Web:

The Roles of XML and RDF

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The World Wide Web is possible because a set of widely established standards guarantees interoperability at various levels. Until now, the Web has been designed for direct human processing, but the next-generation Web, which Tim Berners-Lee and others call the “Semantic Web,” aims at machine-processible information.¹ The Semantic Web will enable intelligent services—such as information brokers, search agents, and information filters—which offer greater functionality and interoperability than current stand-alone services.

The Semantic Web will only be possible once further levels of interoperability have been established. Standards must be defined not only for the syntactic form of documents, but also for their semantic content. Notable among recent W3C standardization efforts are XML/XML schema and RDF/RDF schema, which facilitate semantic interoperability.

In this article, we explain the role of ontologies in the architecture of the Semantic Web. We then briefly summarize key elements of XML and RDF, showing why using XML as a tool for semantic interoperability will be ineffective in the long run. We argue that a further representation and inference layer is needed on top of the Web’s current layers, and to establish such a layer, we propose a general method for encoding ontology representation languages into RDF/RDF schema. We illustrate the extension method by applying it to Ontology Interchange Language (OIL), an ontology representation and inference language.²

ONTOLOGIES: DOMAIN CONCEPTUALIZATION

Ontologies can play a crucial role in enabling Web-based knowledge processing, sharing, and reuse between applications. Generally defined as shared formal conceptualizations of particular domains, ontologies provide a common understanding of topics that can be communicated between people and application systems.

Ontologies are used in e-commerce to enable machine-based communication between buyers and sellers; vertical integration of markets (such

XML and RDF are the current standards for establishing semantic interoperability on the Web, but XML addresses only document structure. RDF better facilitates interoperation because it provides a data model that can be extended to address sophisticated ontology representation techniques.

```

class-def animal
class-def plant
  subclass-of NOT animal
class-def tree
  subclass-of plant
class-def branch
  slot-constraint is-part-of
    has-value tree
class-def leaf
  slot-constraint is-part-of
    has-value branch
class-def defined carnivore
  subclass-of animal
  slot-constraint eats
  value-type animal
class-def defined herbivore
  subclass-of animal, NOT carnivore
  slot-constraint eats
  value-type plant
  OR (slot-constraint is-part-of has-value plant)
class-def giraffe
  subclass-of herbivore
  slot-constraint eats
  value-type leaf
class-def lion
  subclass-of animal
  slot-constraint eats
  value-type herbivore
class-def tasty-plant
  subclass-of plant
  slot-constraint eaten-by
  has-value herbivore, carnivore

```

% animals are a class
 % plants are a class
 % that is disjoint from animals
 % trees are a type of plants
 % branches are parts of trees
 % leaves are parts of branches
 % carnivores are animals
 % that eat only other animals
 % herbivores are animals, but not carnivores
 % that eat only plants or parts of plants
 % giraffes are herbivores
 % and they eat leaves
 % lions are also animals
 % but they eat herbivores
 % tasty plants are plants that are eaten by
 % both herbivores and carnivores

Figure 1. Example ontology defining African wildlife. The hierarchy of concepts is formulated using the Ontology Interchange Language.

as VerticalNet [http://www.verticalnet.com]); and description reuse between different marketplaces. Search engines also use ontologies to find pages with words that are syntactically different but semantically similar.

An ontology typically contains a hierarchy of concepts within a domain and describes each concept's crucial properties through an attribute-value mechanism. Further relations between concepts might be described through additional logical sentences. Finally, constants (such as "January") are assigned to one or more concepts (such as "Month") in order to assign them their proper type.

The OIL ontology consists of slot definitions (slot-def) and class definitions (class-def). Figure 1 is an example ontology (though it omits slot definitions due to space constraints). A slot-def describes a binary relation between two entities. A class-def associates a class name with a class description and consists of the following components (any of which can be omitted):

- *definition type* can be either "defined" or "primitive." For defined types, a class is completely specified in the class definition. For primitive types, the conditions in the class definition are necessary, but insufficient for determining class membership.
- *slot constraint* restricts the possible values a slot can have when applied to an instance of the class.
- *subclass-of* relates the defined class to a list of one or more *class expressions*—class names, slot constraints, or an arbitrarily complex Boolean combination of these. Hence, the class being defined is a subclass of those defined by each class expression.

The main components of a slot constraint are:

- *name*—a string that delineates the slot being constrained.
- *value-type*—a list of one or more class expressions that are range constraints for the slot with

respect to the class defined. All instances are related by the slot to an instance of the class defined by it and must be instances of all the class expressions in the list. For example, if a class has a slot *eats* with the slot constraint *value-type animals*, then instances of the class only eat animals.

- *has-value*—a list of one or more class expressions in which all instances of the class defined by the slot must be related via the slot to at least one instance of each class expression in the list. For example, if a class has a slot *eats* with the slot constraint *has-value zebra, wildebeest*, then each instance of the class eats at least one instance of class *zebra* and one of class *wildebeest*. (It might also eat instances of other classes, such as *gazelle*.)

XML and RDF each have their merits as a foundation for the Semantic Web, but RDF provides more suitable mechanisms for applying ontology representation languages like OIL to the task of interoperability. To argue this point, we will first briefly describe XML and RDF and then discuss their respective merits for knowledge representation on the Web.

XML GRAMMARS

XML is already widely known in the Internet community and is the basis for a rapidly growing number of software development activities.³ It is designed for markup in documents of arbitrary structure, as opposed to HTML, which was designed for hypertext documents with fixed structures.

A well-formed XML document creates a balanced tree of nested sets of open and close tags, each of which can include several attribute-value pairs. There is no fixed tag vocabulary or set of allowable combinations, so these can be defined for each application. In XML 1.0, this is done using a *document type definition* to enforce constraints on which tags to use and how they should be nested within a document. A DTD defines a grammar to specify allowable combinations and nestings of tag names, attribute names, and so on. Developments are well under way at W3C to replace DTDs with XML-schema definitions.^{4,5} Although XML schema offer several advantages over DTDs, their role is essentially the same: to define a grammar for XML documents.

Figure 2 shows an example serialization of part of the ontology from Figure 1. The basic XML data model is a labeled tree, where each tag corresponds to a labeled node in the model, and each nested subtag is a child in the tree. Of course, this example

```
<class-def>
  <class name="plant"/>
  <subclass-of>
    <NOT><class name="animal"/></NOT>
  </subclass-of>
</class-def>
<class-def>
  <class name="tree"/>
  <subclass-of>
    <class name="plant"/>
  </subclass-of>
</class-def>
<class-def>
  <class name="branch"/>
  <slot-constraint>
    <slot name="is-part-of"/>
    <has-value>
      <class name="tree"/>
    </has-value>
  </slot-constraint>
</class-def>
```

Figure 2. Partial XML serialization of the example ontology in Figure 1. This XML document contains one possible serialization. It introduces a tag for each part of the grammar.

shows just one possible XML-based syntax for the ontology. XML is foremost a means for defining grammars, and because different grammars can be used to describe the same content, XML allows multiple serializations. The information in the final class definition in Figure 2, for example, could be expressed in an entirely different form as:

```
<class-def>
  <name>branch</name>
  <slot-constraint>
    <name>is-part-of</name>
    <has-value>tree</has-value>
  </slot-constraint>
</class-def>
```

XML is used to serve a range of purposes:

- *Serialization syntax for other markup languages.* For example, the Synchronized Multimedia Integration Language (SMIL)⁶ is syntactically just a particular XML DTD; it defines the structure of a SMIL document. The DTD is useful because it facilitates a common understanding of the meaning of the DTD elements and the structure of the DTD.
- *Semantic markup of Web pages.* An XML serialization (such as the example above) can be used

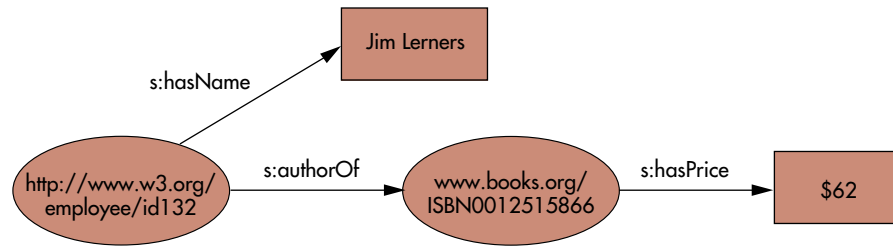


Figure 3. RDF graph. RDF is defined as syntax independent; the RDF data model defines objects and relationships between them.

in a Web page with an XSL style sheet to render the different elements appropriately.⁷

- *Uniform data-exchange format.* An XML serialization can also be transferred as a data object between two applications.

It is important to note that a DTD specifies only syntactic conventions; any intended semantics are outside the realm of the XML specification.

RDF: RESOURCE METADATA

The Resource Description Framework is a recent W3C recommendation designed to standardize the definition and use of metadata—descriptions of Web-based resources.⁸ However, RDF is equally well suited to representing data.

RDF Foundations

The basic building block in RDF is an object-attribute-value triple, commonly written as $A(O, V)$. That is, an object O has an attribute A with value V . Another way to think of this relationship is as a labeled edge A between two nodes, O and V : $[O]-A \rightarrow [V]$. This notation is useful because RDF allows objects and values to be interchanged. Thus, any object can play the role of a value, which amounts to chaining two labeled edges in a graph representation. The graph in Figure 3, for example, expresses the following three relationships in $A(O, V)$ format:

```

hasName
  ('http://www.w3.org/employee/id1321',
   "Jim Leners")
authorOf
  ('http://www.w3.org/employee/id1321',
   'http://www.books.org/ISBN0012515866')
hasPrice
  ('http://www.books.org/ISBN0012515866',
   "$62").
    
```

RDF also allows a form of reification in which any RDF statement can be the object or value of a triple, which means graphs can be nested as well as chained. On the Web this allows us, for example, to express doubt or support of statements created by other people. Finally, it is possible to indicate that a given object is of a certain type, such as stating that "ISBN0012515866" is of the *rdf:type book*, by creating a type arc referring to the *book* definition in an RDF schema:

```

<rdf:Description about="www.books.org/
  ISBN0012515866">
  <rdf:type rdf:resource="http://description.org/
    schema/#book">
</rdf:Description>
    
```

It is important to note that RDF is designed to provide a basic object-attribute-value data model for metadata. Other than this intentional semantics—described only informally in the standard—RDF makes no data-modeling commitments. In particular, no reserved terms are defined for further data modeling. As with XML, the RDF data model provides no mechanisms for declaring property names that are to be used.

RDF Schema

Just as XML schema provides a vocabulary-definition facility, RDF schema lets developers define a particular vocabulary for RDF data (such as *authorOf*) and specify the kinds of object to which these attributes can be applied.⁹ In other words, the RDF schema mechanism provides a basic type system for RDF models. This type system uses some predefined terms, such as *Class*, *subPropertyOf*, and *subClassOf*, for application-specific schema. RDF schema expressions are also valid RDF expressions (just as XML schema expressions are valid XML).

RDF objects can be defined as instances of one

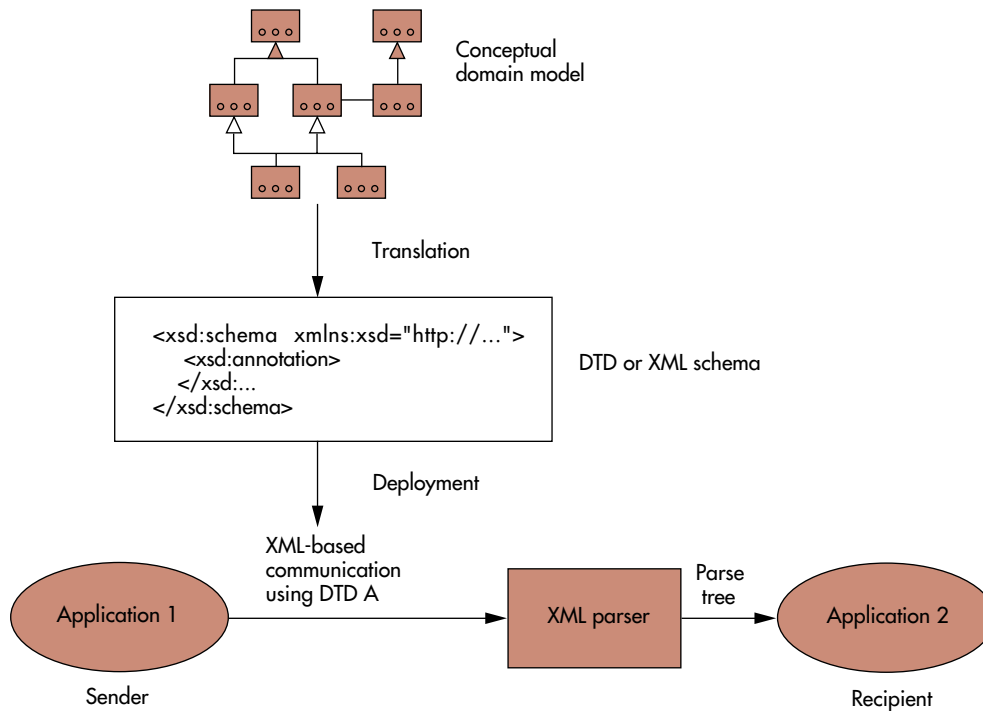


Figure 4. DTD development and point-to-point communication with XML. Using XML to establish communication between applications requires that the domain model be encoded in XML. Both parties must agree on a translation schema before any communication can take place.

or more classes using the type property. The `subClassOf` property allows the developer to specify the hierarchical organization of such classes, and `subPropertyOf` does the same for properties. Constraints on properties can also be specified using domain and range constructs, which can be used to extend both the vocabulary and the intended interpretation of RDF expressions. This is the mechanism we used to translate an ontology representation language to RDF.

KNOWLEDGE REPRESENTATION

The Web is the first widely exploited many-to-many data-interchange medium, and it poses new requirements for any exchange format:

- *Universal expressive power.* Because it is not possible to anticipate all potential uses, a Web-based exchange format must be able to express any form of data.
- *Syntactic interoperability.* Applications must be able to read the data and get a representation that can be exploited. Software components like parsers or query APIs, for instance, should be as reusable as possible among different appli-

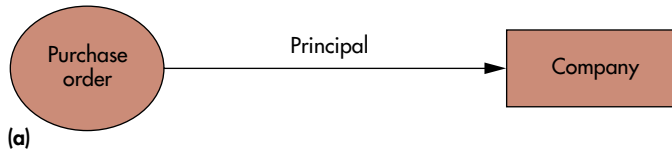
cations. Syntactic interoperability is high when the parsers and APIs needed to manipulate data are readily available.

- *Semantic interoperability.* One of the most important requirements for an exchange format is that data be understandable. Whereas syntactic interoperability is about parsing data, semantic interoperability is about defining mappings between terms within the data, which requires content analysis.

Using XML

XML fulfills the universal expressive power requirement because anything for which a grammar can be defined can be encoded in XML. It also fulfills the syntactic interoperability requirement because an XML parser can parse any XML data, and is usually a reusable component. When it comes to semantic interoperability, however, XML has disadvantages.

XML's major limitation is that it just describes grammars. There is no way to recognize a semantic unit from a particular domain because XML aims at document structure and imposes no common interpretation of the data contained in the document. Although this limitation is at the heart of the "schema



Encoding DTD	Example XML Instance Data
<pre><!ELEMENT PurchaseOrder (principal)> <!ATTLIST PurchaseOrder id ID #REQUIRED> <!ELEMENT principal (Company)> <!ATTLIST Company id ID #IMPLIED></pre>	<pre><PurchaseOrder id="X"> <principal> <Company id="Y"/> </principal> </PurchaseOrder></pre>
<pre><!ELEMENT principal (PurchaseOrder, Company)> <!ELEMENT PurchaseOrder (#CDATA)> <!ELEMENT Company (#CDATA)></pre>	<pre><principal> <PurchaseOrder>X</PurchaseOrder> <Company>Y</Company> </principal></pre>
<pre><!ELEMENT PurchaseOrder (id, principal)> <!ELEMENT id (#CDATA)> <!ELEMENT principal (Company)> <!ELEMENT Company (id)></pre>	<pre><PurchaseOrder> <id>X</id> <principal> <Company> <id>Y</id> </Company> </principal> </PurchaseOrder></pre>
<pre><!ELEMENT rel EMPTY> <!ATTLIST rel src CDATA #REQUIRED type CDATA #REQUIRED dest CDATA #REQUIRED></pre>	<pre><rel src="X" type="principal" dest="Y" /></pre>
<pre><!ELEMENT PurchaseOrderInfo (Company)> <!ATTLIST PurchaseOrderInfo orderID ID #REQUIRED> <!ELEMENT Company (#CDATA)></pre>	<pre><PurchaseOrderInfo orderID="X"> <Company>Y</Company> </PurchaseOrderInfo></pre>

(b)

Figure 5. Binary relationship (a) and XML encoding possibilities (b). The same information can be represented in many ways in XML. Communication between parties can be difficult because they must first establish a common understanding of the information.

wars” currently raging at forums such as Biztalk.com and RosettaNet.org, it is not yet widely recognized.

Fixed vs. flexible communication. Figure 4 (previous page) shows two applications trying to communicate with each other. Both agree on the use and intended meaning of the document structure given by DTD *A*, but a model of the domain of interest must be built to clarify the kind of data being sent before the data can be exchanged. (This model is usually described in terms of objects and relations, as it is in Unified Modeling Language¹⁰ or entity-relationship modeling.¹¹) A DTD or an XML schema is then con-

structed from the domain model—usually in an ad-hoc way.

Figure 5a shows a simple binary relationship, *principal* (owner), between two concepts, *purchase order* and *company*. Figure 5b shows several possibilities for encoding the relationship in XML. A DTD just describes a grammar, and there are multiple ways to encode any given domain model into a DTD, so no direct connection remains between them. It is impossible to determine from the DTDs the concepts and relation between them, and significantly more encoding options exist when there are, for example, multiple ordered relationships. It is thus difficult to reengineer the domain model from the DTDs. (Note, however, that the relationship depicted in Figure 5a represents a valid RDF model.)

The advantage of using XML in this case is limited to the reusability of the parsing software components. This is certainly useful, but this scenario deals with a one-on-one communication between parties with an advance agreement. It neglects the reality of the Web, which requires communicating with multiple partners that change frequently.

Not the silver bullet. XML is useful

for data interchange between applications that both know what the data is, but not for situations where new communication partners are frequently added. On the Web, new information sources continually become available and new business partners join existing relationships. It is thus important to reduce the costs of adding communication partners as much as possible. As the steps in Figure 6 show, however, using XML and DTDs (or schema) for this operation requires much more effort than necessary.

One domain model cannot be mapped easily to another because they are both encoded in DTDs. A direct mapping based on the different DTDs is not

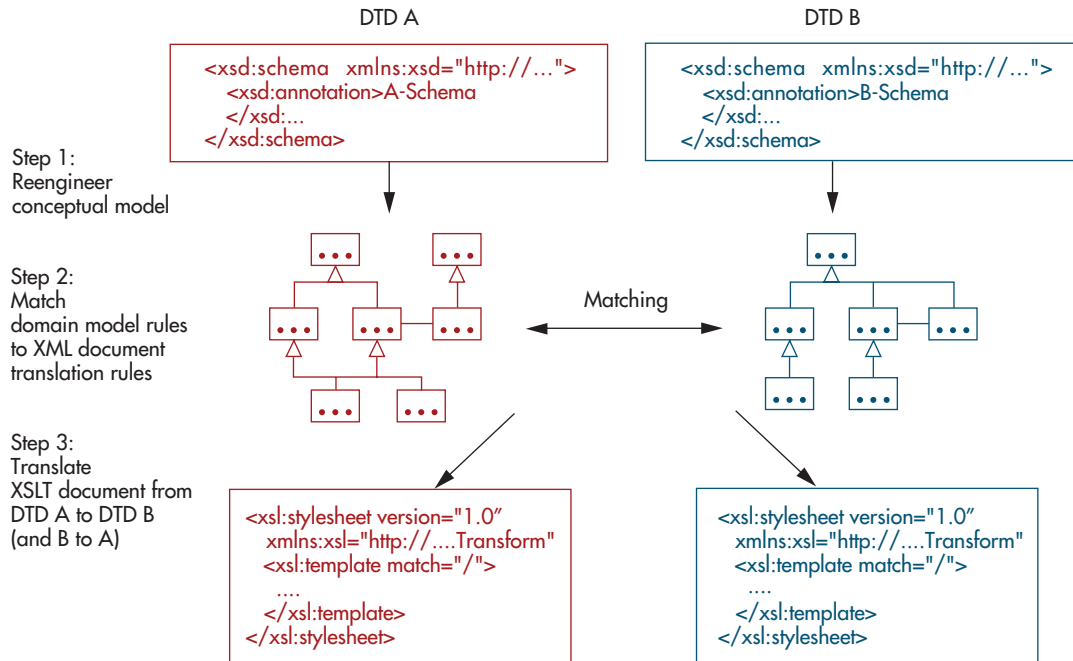


Figure 6. Alignment of conceptual models. Several additional steps are necessary in XML to add new communication partners to an existing communication, including the reengineering of the conceptual model used to construct the DTDs.

possible as the task is not to map grammars to each other, but to map objects and relations between domains of interest. Therefore, we must reengineer the original domain models and define the mappings between the concepts and relationships. (Techniques developed in knowledge engineering and database research are often helpful for this task.^{12,13}) Afterward, the additional step of defining the mapping between DTDs must be performed.

To exchange XML documents, the domain mappings must be translated using mapping procedures such as XSL Transformations (XSLT) for grammars. This is again a high-effort task and depends on the encoding used to construct the initial DTDs. Additional effort is required in translating the reengineered domain model into an XML DTD and generating mapping procedures for XML documents based on established domain mappings. Using a more suitable formalism than pure XML for data transfer can save much of this additional effort.

Using RDF

RDF's nested object-attribute-value structure satisfies our universal expressive power requirement for an exchange format, although this is not easy to see. Application-independent RDF parsers are also available, so RDF fulfills our syntactic interoperability requirement as well.

When it comes to semantic interoperability, RDF has significant advantages over XML: The object-attribute structure provides natural semantic units because all objects are independent entities. A domain model—defining objects and relationships—can be represented naturally in RDF, so translation steps are not necessary as they are with XML. To find mappings between two RDF descriptions, techniques from research in knowledge representation are directly applicable. Of course, this does not solve the general interoperability problem of finding semantics-preserving mappings between objects, but using RDF for data interchange raises the level of potential reuse of software components much beyond parser reuse, which is all XML offers. Furthermore, the RDF model (and software using the RDF model) can still be used even if the current XML syntax changes or disappears because RDF describes a layer independent of XML.

Ideally, we would like a universal shared knowledge-representation language to support the Semantic Web, but for a variety of pragmatic and technological reasons, this is unachievable in practice. Instead, we will have to live with a multitude of metadata representations. RDF contains as much knowledge-representation technology as can be shared between widely varying metadata languages. Furthermore, the RDF schema language is

Modeling Semantics

There are two main approaches to modeling semantics in computer science: *declarative* and *procedural* semantics.

With declarative semantics, an expression E is given meaning by mapping it to another well-understood formalism, or by stating the conclusions or properties that follow from E . The expression can be understood without reference to any specific computational procedure, which is why this approach is dubbed “declarative.”

Using procedural semantics, expression E is given meaning by referring to the behavior that some real or virtual procedure (or program, or machine) will exhibit on E . Often the only way to obtain the expression’s meaning using procedural semantics is to simply execute the procedure and observe the outcome.

This difference between declarative and procedural semantics loosely coincides with the difference between the XML and RDF approaches to Web-page semantics. As we’ve argued, an XML expression has no inherent semantics, and its meaning is only determined by the actions that one or more programs undertake on it (whether tag-nesting is interpreted as part-of or as a subtype-of, for instance). An RDF expression, on the other hand, has a specific declarative semantics

(such as the intended meaning of `subClassOf`), and this is specified independently of any RDF processor; that is, all RDF processors must conform to the intended semantics.

Together with the W3C, we stand in a long tradition in computer science and AI, which argues that the declarative approach to semantics leads to more sharable and extensible information and knowledge sources. The arguments about XML versus RDF do not change substantially when XML schema is used instead of XML DTDs for specifying XML document structure.

Readers might be tempted to compare XML schema’s “type-extension” mechanism with the `subClassOf` mechanism in RDF schema, but the similarity between them is only superficial. In fact, the type-extension mechanism cannot be used to model ontological subtypes at all: in XML schema, if type T' is derived from type T , then elements of the derived type T' are not necessarily members of the original type T . In the `subClassOf` relationship in RDF schema, on the other hand, a member of a subclass is also a member of the original superclass. As a result, `subClassOf` can be used to model ontological subtyping, whereas XML schema’s type extension cannot.

powerful enough to define richer languages on top of RDF’s limited primitives.

ENRICHING RDF

Before showing how RDF can be enriched to define sophisticated data models, we recall Brachman’s distinction of the three layers in a knowledge representation system¹⁴:

- the *implementation level* consists of data structures for a particular implementation;
- the *logic level* defines, in an abstract way, the inferences that are performed by the system; and
- the *epistemological level* defines adequate representation primitives for expressing knowledge in a convenient way—usually those used by a knowledge engineer.

The epistemological level is usually defined by a grammar that defines the language of interest, but the representation primitives can also be regarded as an ontology—as objects of a particular domain. Using this view, domain-modeling techniques are again suitable for defining a knowledge representation language. Thus, the epistemological level is itself an ontology that defines the terms of the representation

language. Defining an ontology in RDF means defining an RDF schema, which specifies all the concepts and relationships of the particular language. (One example of a language definition as an ontology is the RDF schema, which is defined in terms of itself.⁹)

Defining a More Expressive Ontology Language

Figure 7 shows how the RDF schema mechanism can be used to define elements of OIL. The shaded ellipses are elements that must be added to the existing schema definition to obtain a schema for OIL.

We illustrate this principle with an example from the ontology in Figure 1. The definition of *herbivore* uses the `subClassOf` modeling primitive, which is a relation that identifies the two arguments as objects: the class (*herbivore*) and a sophisticated class expression (*animal AND NOT carnivore*). The class expression can justifiably be viewed as an object because the expression *animal AND NOT carnivore* indeed defines a new (unnamed) class.

Defining the language primitives as an ontology results in the RDF graph depicted in Figure 7, which defines several properties and classes. The class `oil:ClassExpression` is a placeholder class that groups

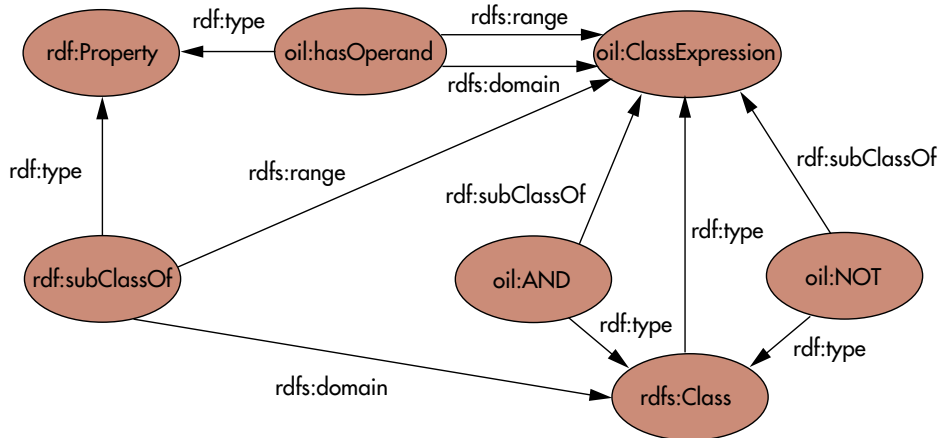


Figure 7. RDF graph. The relationships between RDF schema primitives and OIL modeling primitives are described using RDF schema.

various types of class expressions for definitional purposes. `oil:AND` and `oil:NOT` are two particular types of class expressions. The property `oil:hasOperand` is an auxiliary property needed to connect an operator-type class expression with another class expression. The existing description of the primitive `rdfs:subClassOf` is extended so that the range now includes `oil:ClassExpression` (instead of just `rdfs:Class`). Also, the existing description of `rdfs:Class` is extended: It is also a subclass of `oil:ClassExpression` (because it is considered a particular type of class expression).

Using the graph in Figure 7, the expression:

```
class-def defined herbivore subclass-of animal,
      NOT carnivore
```

can be described in RDF as depicted in Figure 8.

Because every ontology (RDF schema) uses its own namespace (we chose the prefix *oil*), terms from different ontologies can be mixed in one RDF document without confusion.³ RDF defines a clear object structure, so it is possible to make assertions with one language about an object defined in terms of another language. For example, we could mix the ontology with behavior statements about different animal classes using a finite-state automaton language.¹⁵ This is not possible in XML because a tag's meaning (object, attribute, value, and so on) is not defined, and nothing can be assumed about the object structure.

Using OIL

The domain ontology defines a vocabulary—properties and classes—that can be used to write instance

information in RDF. We propose a mechanism for extending the RDF data model with modeling primitives from any ontology language. Our approach for using the primitives from ontology language *L* to describe a particular domain has three steps:

- Step 1. Describe language *L*'s modeling primitives using RDF schema (effectively writing the meta-ontology of *L* in RDF schema).
- Step 2. Describe a specific ontology in *L* using the resulting RDF schema document.
- Step 3. Use the RDF schema documents to describe instances of the specific *L* ontology modeled in step 2.

Table 1 (next page) lists the expression types for each step, along with specific examples of what each produces and the RDF vocabulary used for encoding. This three-step approach suggests an additional requirement for an ontology language *L*: Because RDF schema is already an ontology definition language, *L* must be compatible with it. Thus, existing RDF schema processors can make maximum use of ontologies defined in *L*. The same tools are applicable for all possible *L*s, which leads to flexibility in designing customized languages.

MERGING AN ONTOLOGY LANGUAGE WITH RDF SCHEMA

Defining an ontology language as an extension of RDF schema means every RDF-schema ontology is valid in the new language (for example, an OIL processor will also understand RDF schema). However, by defining the new language as closely

Table 1. Steps in the OIL approach to using an ontology language to extend RDF.

Step	Expression Type	Example	Encoding
1	Modeling primitives of ontology language <i>L</i>	oil:AND, oil:NOT, ...	RDF: Meta-ontology in RDF schema
2	Specific ontology expressed in <i>L</i>	Class-def giraffe Subclass of herbivore Slot-constraint eats Value-type leaf	RDF: Ontology (using meta-ontology and RDF schema)
3	Instances of the specific ontology	animal12-eats-leaf34...	RDF (RDF schema, meta-ontology, and ontology)

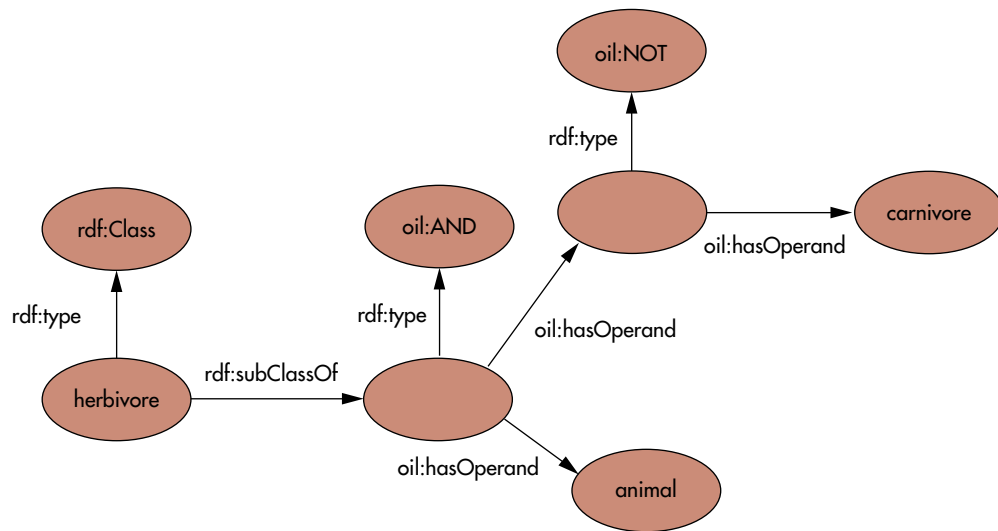


Figure 8. RDF graph for the RDF-OIL definition of herbivore. The figure shows the subclass definition of herbivore (Figure 1) expressed as an RDF graph. Blank ovals indicate anonymous resources, which are necessary as intermediate nodes.

as possible to RDF schema, we also maximize reuse of existing RDF-schema-based applications and tools. Because the ontology language usually contains vocabulary the RDF schema processor does not know, however, 100-percent compatibility is not possible.

In OIL, a class can be a subclass of a Boolean class expression, but the original RDF subclass statement only allows primitive classes as values. We thus had to extend the OIL subclass statement definition. We also introduced `oil:SlotConstraint` to allow restrictions on slots in class definitions—another aspect of OIL that is unavailable in RDF schema. To maintain maximum compatibility with existing applications, however, it is recommended to use the RDF schema vocabulary wherever pos-

sible (for a case study on how to do this with OIL, see Broekstra et al.¹⁶).

RDF follows an object-attribute-value model, so we made a basic design decision that every OIL expression would be an object. To allow subexpressions, we introduced auxiliary attributes that do not correspond to any original OIL vocabulary (`oil:hasOperand`, `oil:hasClass`, and `oil:hasProperty`).

The major integration points between RDF/RDF schema and OIL are defined by the abstract OIL class `ClassExpression`. Furthermore, OIL slots are realized as instances of `rdf:Property` or as subproperties of the original `rdf:Property`. The subplot relationship is also expressed by original RDF means—namely, the `rdfs:subPropertyOf` relationship. `rdf:Property` is enriched

by several properties that specify inverse and transitive roles and cardinality constraints, which were not originally possible in RDF/RDF schema (for details, see Horrocks et al.²).

Class definitions are inherited from the original `rdfs:Resource` from the RDF schema specification. Classes can be related with arbitrary class expressions via subclass or equivalence relationships. By doing this, existing classes from RDFS vocabularies can be accessed and refined in OIL descriptions. Table 2 contains some of the OIL mappings.

We have implemented an inference engine for OIL based on the description logic inference engine, FaCT (<http://www.cs.man.ac.uk/~horrocks/FaCT/>). We have also performed several case studies, including modeling an ontology for the CIA World Factbook (see <http://www.ontoknowledge.org/oil/>), to test the overall framework's flexibility. Furthermore, the DARPA Agent Markup Language (<http://www.daml.org>) uses the principles of OIL as well.

CHALLENGES

The Web community currently regards XML as the most important step toward semantic integration, but we argue that this is not true in the long run. Semantic interoperability will be a *sine qua non* for the Semantic Web, but it must be achieved by exploiting the current RDF proposals, rather than XML labeling. The RDF data model is sound, and approaches from artificial intelligence and knowledge engineering for establishing semantic interoperability are directly applicable to extending it.

Our experience with OIL shows that this proposal is feasible, and a similar strategy should apply to any knowledge-modeling language. The challenge is now for the Web and AI communities to expand this generic method for creating Web-enabled, special-purpose knowledge representation languages. ■

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Table 2. OIL vocabulary mapping to RDF schema.

OIL original vocabulary	RDF vocabulary
Class-def	<code>rdfs:Class</code>
Subclass-of	<code>rdfs:subClassOf</code>
Slot constraint	<code>oil:hasSlotConstraint</code> <code>oil:SlotConstraint</code>
AND	<code>oil:AND</code>
NOT	<code>oil:NOT</code>
Has-value	<code>oil:hasValue</code>

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