# Analyzing the Modeling of Context with Ontologies

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**Abstract.** Ontologies are a widely accepted instrument for the modeling of context information. We consider the identification of the benefits and difficulties of ontology-based modeling to be an important next step to further improve the usability of ontologies in context-aware systems. We gather a set of criteria with respect to ontology engineering and context modeling and analyze some recent outcomes in the area of ontology-based context modeling. This state of the art analysis shall help to determine the necessary steps to fully exploit ontologies in pervasive computing.

## 1 Introduction

Ontologies – explicit formal specifications of the terms in a domain and the relations among them [18] – are widely accepted as instrument for the modeling of context information in pervasive computing applications. On the one hand its advantages compared to other traditional modeling approaches were recognized [36], while on the other the Semantic Web languages and tools have clearly gained maturity over the past years. In order to further improve the usability of ontologies for context-aware applications it is important to analyze the benefits and challenges. We outline a set of criteria with respect to context modeling and ontology engineering. The evaluation criteria shall help to investigate the recent achievements in the area of ontology-based context modeling and the same time depict the true benefits of ontology-based systems. This is considered to be an important step to fully exploit ontologies in pervasive computing.

In order to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of context models it is important to understand what context is and what role context and context modelling play in current systems. A widely accepted definition of context is [9]:

> *Context is any information that can be used to characterize the situation of an entity. An entity is a person, place or object that is considered relevant to the interaction between a user and an application, including the user and the application themselves.*

A system is then recognized to be context-aware if it uses context to provide relevant information and services to the user, where relevancy depends on the users task. Given the increasing number of services and agents on the Internet and their self-determinism we argue that the definition should be extended to include the interaction between machines too. Context-aware discovery, composition and negotiation of information and services are the dominant parameters of future systems [21,35]. This additionally emphasizes the requirement for interoperability and machine-understandability of context

information. Hence, it is not surprising that [6] calls the use of ontologies a key requirement for the realization of the pervasive computing vision.

Traditionally context models are created top down: first the application and its functionality is defined, and then the necessary context ontologies developed. The ontologies are often only used to formalize taxonomies that represent the values and types of simple properties [4]. There is however clearly more to ontology-based modelling. A generic, reusable ontology has direct impact on the interoperability of context-aware systems and hence directly influences the speed of creation, integration and implementation of new applications; a well-designed model is a key accessor to context [36].

The paper is structured as follows: In Section 2 the advantages and challenges of ontology-based context modeling are discussed. Section 3 introduces a set of evaluation criteria taking into account ontology engineering and context modeling aspects. They provide the key factors to fully exploit the advantages of ontologies in context modeling. Section 4 gives an overview of recent achievements in the concerned field of research and discussed with respect to the evaluation criteria. Section 5 concludes the paper.

## 2 Benefits and challenges

In [36] the authors presented six key requirements dominant in pervasive computing: (1) distributed composition, (2) partial validation, (3) richness and quality of information, (4) incompleteness and ambiguity, (5) level of formality, and (6) applicability to existing environments. On the basis of these critical success factors they analyzed six context modeling approaches, namely key-value, markup scheme, graphical, logic-based, object-oriented, and ontology-based models. They came to the conclusion that ontologies incorporated the most promising assets for context modeling. In particular, they provide better modelling facilities – like the intuitive notions of classes and properties – than pure logic-based approaches (e.g. Prolog), while being semi-structured and incorporating a clear model theoretic semantics, as compared to object-oriented models.

The powerful modeling tools of ontologies allow to specify concepts and interrelationships. They provide formalizations to project real-life entities onto machine-understandable data constructs. In that way, ontologies provide a uniform way for specifying the model's concepts, subconcepts, relations, properties and facts, altogether providing the means for the sharing of contextual knowledge and information reuse. The contextual knowledge is interpreted and evaluated by use of ontology reasoning, which subsequently allows computers to determine the contextual compatibility, to compare contextual facts and to infer new and more complex context from core measurements.

Object-oriented models provide hierarchical class layering too, and hence allow for at least limited formalization of class and instance dependency models.[1] As mentioned before, they lack however the semi-structuredness of ontologies and consequently do not provide any ad hoc computing. Moreover, taking the emerging globalism of applications and the increasing importance of the Web and Web services into account, it is obvious that pervasive computing environments must more and more address the problem of data and system heterogeneity in the large and not on a per application basis.

[1] [36] indicates that object-oriented models are the second most appropriate technique.

This highlights the need for semi-automatic and flexible integration of data sources and applications. Object-oriented models however require low-level implementation agreement between applications to ensure interoperability and are thus not suited for knowledge sharing in open and dynamic systems [6].

In summary, we conclude that ontology-based approaches combine the assets of logic-based models and object-oriented technology. The modeling, and in particular the formalized modeling of concept and property dependencies allows inference engines to (at least partially) validate the models, as well as instance derivations. Moreover, the ontological schemas and instances can be used by reasoners to infer additional knowledge that helps to counteract the common problems of ambiguity, incompleteness, and validity of contextual data. Inferred knowledge may fill the information gaps that are left by interruptions, incoherent data or low quality measurements. This clearly emphasizes the strength of ontological models and its benefits for pervasive computing environments.

One big challenge that remains to fully exploit the power of ontology-based approaches is the right choice of an ontology languages and the appropriate tools. Formalizing context models, performing consistency checks as well as data mediation provide the measures to address the well-known and aforementioned heterogeneity, ambiguity and quality-related issues. However, inappropriate use of tools and languages may limit the impact of context modeling ontologies.

### 2.1 Ontologies: languages and tools

In this section we emphasize on the aspect of formality in the definition of ontologies [18]. There are many dimensions one can characterize languages, most attention is usually received by the properties of decidability and computational complexity. Although these are important we will emphasize on other characteristics important for modeling.

First of all there are certain semantic properties of a language. A language relies either on a closed or an open world assumption. This has consequences on the reasoning task of consistency checking. Imagine an ontology containing the description of a plane which must have at least one pilot, further assume only the instance definition of a plane is given. Under the open world assumption this will not break any constraints, a reasoner would simply infer the existence of a pilot, while under the closed world assumption a consistency violation would be detected. A language assuming a closed world considers only the defined instances to exist, while the open world assumption implies all non-defined instances to be potentially existent. Another choice is whether or not to make a unique name assumption. Assume the description of a plane seat defines that a seat has at most one passenger sitting on it. Given an ontology with two persons sitting on one seat, a language with non-unique name assumption will not detect an inconsistency, but that the two persons must be them same.

Besides semantic properties of a language the available syntactic constructs are important for usability. For example the popular language OWL DL [28] is from a logicians point of view just a syntactic variation of well known Description Logic fragments [1]. As another example, languages based on logic programming (such as the rule variants of the Web Service Modeling Language [8]) allow the specification of common rules, such as `hasChild inverseOf(hasParent)`. This construct is roughly equivalent to a rule like `hasChild(?x,?y) implies hasParent(?y,?x)`.

When looking at tool support, especially reasoner, it is very important to consider the underlying logic. In principle we can differentiate two branches of formal languages to specify ontologies: First-Order Logic (FOL, [12]) and Logic Programming (LP, [26]). FOL does adhere to the open world semantics and the non-unique name assumption, whereas the LP based languages usually do not. Description Logics (DL) is a subset of FOL. The strength of DL lies in subsumption reasoning and consistency checking. For classification and satisfiability checking there are mature reasoners available, while there is a lack of support for efficient instance retrieval. LP on the other hand has its strength in query answering. Table 1 depicts some well known reasoners and their respective target languages.

**Table 1.** Engines for Ontology Interpretation

| | DL | FOL | LP | license | release | url |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (Open)Cyc | X | X | | Apache v2 | 07/2006 | opencyc.org |
| DLV | X | | X | custom[1] | 07/2006 | dlvsystem.com |
| FaCT++ | X | | | GPL | 12/2006 | owl.man.ac.uk/factplusplus |
| Pellet | X | | | MIT | 11/2006 | pellet.owldl.com |
| RACER | X | | | commercial[2] | 12/2005 | racer-systems.com |
| XSB[3] | | | X[4] | LGPL | 07/2006 | xsb.sourceforge.net/ |
| Vampire | X | X | | ? | ? | vampire.fm/ |
| OntoBroker | | | X[4] | commercial[2] | 12/2006 | ontoprise.de |
| Kaon2 | X[5] | | X | custom[1] | 01/2007 | kaon2.semanticweb.org |
| IRIS | | | X | LGPL | 02/2007 | iris-reasoner.sourceforge.net |

[1] free for academic and non-commercial use. [2] Academic Licenses on request.
[3] basis for others: F-OWL, Flora-2, TRIPLE. [4] supports function symbols
[5] without nominals

An important issue when using ontologies to model contextual information is the choice of the formal language. The modeler has to be aware of the consequences and implications of the language in use, and the supported reasoning tasks in order to draw maximum benefit.

## 3 Evaluation criteria

In this section we present a set of evaluation criteria that not only consider the important features of context models, but that in particular look at critical ontology engineering aspects. The former are partially based on [36]. The ontology specific aspects were considered in the latter in order to evaluate the quality of the ontological support. These criteria can of course be generalized and are not context ontology engineering specific. We expect these success factors and guidelines to help improving the development of future ontology-based context models.

### 3.1 Context modeling criteria

The following criteria constitute the first part. The considered factors are concerned with aspects like uncertainty and quality of data, traceability and comparability of information and the applicability of the model. The criteria are built around questions that allow a more detailed look at the ways the context models address the respective issues.

**Applicability:** Traditionally the definition of models is conducted on a per task basis, hence for a given problem a respective model is developed. Context information results however from and is applied to very heterogeneous systems of devices and applications. A model that serves as a context information encoding infrastructure should be very flexible from an implementation point of view. This criterion considers the usability and applicability of the context model within existing infrastructures and various applications domains. Does the model in any way restrict the domain of application?

**Comparability:** Context information is generally provided by a multitude of sensors and devices. Different measuring and coding systems used by different manufacturer result in a heterogeneous set of values describing the same entities. Hence, it is necessary to provide means to compare values with different units and encodings. Moreover high-order context often consists of non-countable values without obvious ordering. The question to answer is thus the means that a model provides in order to support comparability of diverse and non-countable information.

**Traceability:** In order to provide adequate control and interpretation of contextual information, it is necessary to determine the provenance and undergone manipulations of data. This becomes particularly true when using calculated context, where it is highly important to know the derivation rules applied. The interpretation of 'warm' is impossible, if the rule '$warm = temp > 21\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$' is not known. Thus, it is necessary to investigate to which extent the model, and how, provides means to record provenance and processing information.

**History, logging:** Often decisions depend on past events and facts. It is hence necessary to support the logging of past information. This allows moreover to trace the evolution of states and measures. Furthermore, logging is closely related to timestamping, an important tool for versioning of information. Comparing information on the basis of time provides tools to address ambiguity of contextual data: when sensor failures are detected or assumed past measures can fill the gap, or inconsistencies can be detected based on sudden and substantial changes. Does the model, and in which ways, address the issue of data logging and history records?

**Quality:** The quality of information delivered by a sensor varies over time. Is quality of information an issue that is directly integrated into the model? Are there means available to model precision, resolution or richness, possibly depending on the source of information?

**Satisfiability:** While quality is about the trustworthiness of accepted information, satisfiability deals with the conformance of measured or derived information to the defined model. A model should define the range a context value can take, or define a particular co-existence of values to be impossible [24]. Does the model provide means to check the satisfiability of information context instances?

**Inference:** Low-order context is generally produced by sensors and combined in order to establish high-order context like situations, activities or procedures. Does the context model know, as integral part of it, a conceptualization of an derivation mechanisms or means to define high-order context types? In other words, are there tools defined that permit the definition of new contextual categories and facts on the basis of low-order context?

**Incompleteness** and **ambiguity** are also stated as critical in [36]: Sensor networks and mobile devices are connected in unstable and often unreliable networks. Thus the contextual information available at any point in time is usually non-deterministic. The ontology schema and the value ranges defined therein provide means to restrict the arbitrariness of contextual data. Moreover, the support for traceability, satisfiability and logging helps to detect and counteract system-related deficiencies.

### 3.2 Ontology engineering criteria

The second set of criteria is used to evaluate the ontologies and are influenced by [17,19]. The considered facts touch issues like flexibility, extensibility and completeness of the ontology, consistency and granularity of the concepts and properties, as well as the language formalism applied.

**Reusability, standardization:** Applicability covered previously is different from ontology reusability. Increasing the reusability implies the maximization of use among several independent modeling tasks, while usability rather means the maximization of applications using the ontology for the same or similar tasks. To what extend does the ontology allow reusability in other independent modeling tasks?

**Flexibility, extensibility:** This criterion refers to the possibility of adding new definitions to the ontology without altering the existing dependencies. How much effort and changes are needed to extend the ontology model? Does the model allow flexible and low-cost adjustments with respect to given applications?

**Genericity:** Ontologies are about the integration of knowledge and the relationship of resources. It is important that a generic and multi-functional backbone is provided for the modeling of information. Ontologies that are applicable across large sets of domains are referred to as upper ontologies and belong to the most general category of ontologies. Does the context ontology restrict the application domain? Does it provide an upper ontology for context modeling?

**Granularity:** This criterion highly related to the details of the concepts defined and the scope of their meaning. A fine-grained ontology defines concepts for closely related objects, while in contrast a coarse-grained model knows more general and distinguishable terms. Hence granularity is related to the diversity and coverage of individual concepts. Upper ontologies are often coarse-grained, while application ontologies become more fine-grained.

**Consistency:** This criterion is about the existence of explicit or implicit contradictions in the represented ontological content. A good approach for a methodical evaluation of the criterion is presented in [19].

**Completeness:** According to [17] an ontology is complete if it (explicitly or implicitly) covers the intended domain. A ontology can thus be complete without covering all possible aspects, if its target domain is restrictive to some particular world. Does the ontology cover all relevant concepts, properties? Can the entities and their interactions be modeled?

**Redundancy:** The redundancy criterion investigates the existence of superfluous repetitions or overlapping definitions. Redundancy errors occur by explicit redefinition

or by inference of information through other existing definitions. Short, redundancy is caused by the definition of two or more concepts or instances with the same formal definition, but different names [17].

**Readability:** This measure accounts the usage of intuitive labels to denominate the ontological entities. The importance of this criterion is concerned with the understandability and intuitiveness for humans. Hence, it is a relevant indicator for the adoptability of a model.

**Scalability:** Ontology engineers distinguish three types of scalability: cognitive scalability which refers to the possibilities of humans to oversee and understand the ontology, engineering scalability which refers to the available tool support that is still quite limited for large scale ontologies, and reasoning scalability which refers to the difficulties of reasoning with large data sets.

**Language, formalism:** This criterion looks at the language used to model the ontology and its expressivity (cf. Section 2.1). Possible languages are standard First-Order Logic and subsets thereof like Description Logic, as well as non-monotonic rule languages like investigated in Logic Programming. UML-based languages are excluded, as they do not have a model theoretic semantics.

In the next section we discuss an evaluation process and look at some of the criteria by means of an objective evaluation of ontology-based context models.

## 4 Ontology-based context modeling: an initial survey

Analogous to the two categories of criteria there are two steps in developing or evaluating a context modeling ontology: the context model and its features, and the ontology development. We first consider the desired features of the context model.

**Genericity and applicability:** A core requirement is definitively the flexibility of the model with respect to the application domain; this is mostly achieved by defining a generic core model that allows the definition of arbitrary context types and values. In ConOnto [21] a root concept *ContextView* provides an organizational reference point for declaring context information. Relevant entities are then described by at least one ContextView which is bound to *ContextFeature*s and *ContextEngagement*s. A similar approach comes from CoOL [37], where entities are characterized by *ContextInformation* instances which in turn are defined and interlinked by use of the aspect-scale-context (ASC) model. ASC provides an umbrella vocabulary to transfer arbitrary context models and is therefore a strong approach with respect to the comparability criterion. In fact, relating different scales for the same context aspects and deriving and aggregating new scales from existing ones is one of the motivations for this ontology. mySAM [2] on the other hand introduces a model to define arbitrary context predicates.

Other ontologies address the genericity issue by means of upper ontologies. This approach is, as mentioned in Section 3 generally quite appealing. There is however also a negative side to this, in particular if the upper ontology consists of a large set of definitions. Whenever one agrees on a particular ontology, the systems is bound to all the assertions made therein, also the ones that potentially contradict the semantics to be modeled. Therefore it is often necessary to thoroughly examine them and determine

whether the model could cause problems. Hence, it is not surprising that most popular ontologies are small vocabularies such as Dublin Core or FOAF that only provide a small set of concepts and properties.[2]

Within this paper we concentrate on purpose only on upper ontologies resulting from pervasive computing projects. General upper ontologies like DOLCE [15], SUMO [29] or Cyc [25] could be used to generalize or ground any context ontology. A respective example is SWIntO, an ontology for mobile systems [30].

The most renowned upper ontology for context modeling is SOUPA, a very complete family of ontologies [6]. SOUPA defines a very large number of concepts, however, thanks to its modular approach it still provides a good ground for reusability. CONON defines 14 core classes to model *Person*, *Location*, *Activity* and *Computational Entities* [39]. CoDAMoS points in the same direction by defining an ontology around four concepts used to model the profiles of *User*s, the *Environment*, *Platform*s and *Service*s [32]. Both approaches focus on the modeling of profiles for human users and applications, and might be limited with respect to future context-awareness tasks in service-service interaction models. Resembling ontologies were presented by [7,10] in order to model devices, services and users; the latter is targeted at the telecommunication industry. These approaches are to a big extent formalized markup scheme models (cf. [36]) and provide tools for ontology-based profiling, however clearly lack to address the dynamics and error-proneness of context information.

**Quality, traceability and other context modeling features:** In summary, there are many models that satisfy the applicability and genericity criteria. We thus concentrate on the other criteria. With respect to comparability we already pointed to ASC-CoOL. Similar ideas were applied in [14], a model heavily influenced by the former. While quality of data is integrated by most models, traceability, recording of past data, and satisfiability are still too often neglected. Quality is bound to the model by means of quality classes [14,39] or dedicated attributes: *quality*, *meanError* [37], *confidence* [23,33] or *probability* as in CDF [22] and SCAFOS [20]. Some approaches moreover incorporate fuzzy inference or bayesian reasoning [21,33]. Traceability is to our knowledge only explicitly addressed by CONON and the Context Management Framework of VTT Finland [23]. The former uses *classifiedAs* to indicated the provenance of information: sensed, derived, aggregated, or deduced, while the latter knows the *source* attribute. Data logging is mostly provided by use of timestamps. GAIA makes moreover use of an external database for temporal queries [33], while [5] proposes to integrate a temporal vector space. Satisfiability at last is directly incorporated in ASC in form of so-called *memberCheck* operations. This is of particular interest when verifying non-countable values like for example reservation categories in airplanes.

In principle the context modeling criteria considered so far help to put in place and analyze the relevant terms and context modeling features. The ontology engineering process takes those terms as starting point to determine the required concepts, properties and relations.

**Extensibility and reusability:** The considered ontologies show that extensibility is often tightly coupled to the genericity of the approach; an obvious fact. No restrictions

[2] Dublin Core: http://dublincore.org/ – FOAF: http://foaf-project.org

to extensibility come from the approaches that provide backbone vocabularies for the modeling of arbitrary context types and values [2,13,22,37]. Interesting however is to look at the reusability criterion and the granularity and modularity of the approaches.

In fact, many of the considered ontologies are reusing existing vocabularies, which increases the interoperability. Very popular is the agent description vocabulary FOAF. Then again, only SOUPA seems to be regularly reused by other projects. This is certainly due to the fact that SOUPA is written in a very modular way by combining sub-ontologies for time, location, policies, persons (FOAF) and the MoGATU BDI ontology [31]. This enables the partial reuse of the context ontology, which makes integration much easier. Similar modularizations are at the basis of CoDAMoS that is built around four core concepts and CaMiDO which has chosen a 3-tier model: middleware, context, and application [3].

The reuse and extension of existing ontologies must be the general objective. Building whole ontologies from scratch has indeed two clear disadvantages: 1) it requires potentially large overhead in engineering, 2) it obviously decreases the interoperability with existing approaches [38].

**Modeling language:** Finally, we briefly address the applied formalisms. OWL-DL seems to be a natural choice to model ontologies for its ensured decidability and as it is a W3C recommendation. CONON uses a straightforward extension to FOL to integrate user rules, while GAIA claims to use FOL [34]. Details of the implementation suggest however that they are using LP reasoning combined with DL reasoning in separate tasks. Also in [24] we find a DL+rules algorithm. Such approaches are however known to be problematic and risk to become undecidable. LP was applied by [37].

A minority of the context modeling approaches rely on the less expressive Resource Description Framework (RDF, [27]). Noteworthy are in particular the context rules approach of CAPNET [13] and the Context Description Framework (CDF, [22]). CAPNET defines RDF-based rules that have two properties: *Action* and *Condition*. The predicate in the *Action* statement indicates what to carry out if the condition statements are satisfied. CDF is a logic extension to RDF: it adds a TrueInContext statement to every RDF triple and considers contextual values as a container of RDF statements. Moreover CDF defines vocabularies to model significance and probability of truth.

**Table 2.** Summary of Initial Survey

| **Criteria** | | **Criteria** | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Genericity** | ASC, CAPNET, CDF, ConOnto, mySAM, (SOUPA) | **Quality** | ASC, CDF, CMF-VTT, CONON, GAIA, SCAFOS |
| **Traceability** | CMF-VTT, CONON | **Satisfiability** | ASC |
| **History** | ASC, CMF-VTT, GAIA | **Comparability** | ASC |

Table 2 shows the core criteria considered in this first analysis associated with exemplary representatives. The idea is to highlight the good solutions to the indicated key factors in alphabetical order. The chosen approaches serve as positive reference points for further contributions to ontology-based context modeling for pervasive computing.

There are in fact no bad examples in this survey, but features like traceability, satisfiability and comparability are too often neglected.

An alternative and very interesting approach that is not resulting from pervasive computing is the description and situation plug-in to DOLCE (DnS, [16]). DnS provides domain independent concepts and relations derived from linguistics, philosophy and mathematics and aims at the modeling of descriptions, situations and roles.

## 5 Conclusion

In this paper we resumed the context modeling survey of Strang [36] with a clear focus on ontology-based modeling. We are convinced that a state of the art analysis and a solid list of success factors are necessary to further improve ontology-based context modeling. The main contribution is a set of context modelling and ontology engineering criteria that shall help to evaluate existing approaches and more importantly that shall serve as support for future deployments. We also pointed out the relevant languages to formalize ontologies and the critical aspects of the different language constructs. The choice of language is a very important issue when constructing intelligent systems. Furthermore we considered some of the current achievements in the domain, together with a short description of an evaluation process. The mentioned approaches provide an overview to give an idea of the current contributions in the domain and might serve as reference points for future work. The list is – unfortunately – by no means complete. In fact it seems to be a general problem that the ontologies are not publicly available.

The interoperability and applicability of ontologies depends not only on the success factors, but certainly on their dissemination and availability. A few good counter examples to this unfortunate trend of non-publication are SOUPA[3] (with COBRA-ONT[4], MoGATU BDI[5]) and ConOnto.[6]

Ontologies in the large should be the general aim. However, due to the clear scalability issues with current technologies, the reasoning tasks will continue for a while to be forced to be application domain specific, and thus reasoning will be based on application domain ontologies [11]. Keeping this current technological limitation in mind, we would like to emphasize again on the importance of good ontology engineering in order to ensure interoperability in the long-term.

With this paper we intend to initiate an context model integration process by highlighting the important features and critical aspects of ontology-based context modeling. In the short-run this allows to optimize the impact of ontologies by facilitating the evaluation of the provide features and by providing at least minimal support in choosing the right language constructs and inference engines. In the long-run the establishment of a solid set of well-designed context ontologies is compulsory in order to guarantee full integration of contextual data – a prerequisite for future context-aware applications. Moreover, integration and cross-fertilization efforts conducted today avoid the reestab-

[3] http://pervasive.semanticweb.org/soupa-2004-06.html
[4] http://cobra.umbc.edu/ontologies-2004-05.html
[5] http://mogatu.umbc.edu/bdi/
[6] http://www.site.uottawa.ca/˜mkhedr/contexto.html

lishment and reduplication of modeling work once the reasoning technologies caught up with the requirements and dimensions of large scale mobile and pervasive systems.

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