Project-Team LIS

Logical Information Systems

Rennes

Activity Report
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2 Overall Objectives

2.1 Overview
The LIS team aims at developing formal methods for handling complex data sets in a flexible and precise way. “Flexible” means that the content determines the shape of the container. Very often, it is the opposite that is observed; e.g., the tree-like shape of a hierarchical file system enforces the tree-like shape of software packages. “Precise” means that any subset of the data set can be easily characterized. Again, it is the opposite that is often observed; e.g., in a hierarchical file system only sub-trees can be easily characterized. More and more information is available on the Web, and more and more information can be stored on a single machine.
However, whereas the related low-level technology is developing, and performance is increasing, little is done for organizing the ever-growing amount of information. Therefore, the LIS team addresses the issues of organizing and querying information in general. The solutions are to be both formal and practical. Operational issues such as index technologies are important, but we are convinced that their scope is too limited to solve the crucial issues.

At a formal level, queries and answers are two key notions. It is nowadays standard to consider queries as logical formulas and answers as special models of queries. Computing the preferred model of a query in some context is conceptually easy, and it warrants flexibility. However, the opposite is not that easy in general; given a subset of the data, how can we compute a query of which it is a model? Given two different subsets of the data, how can we compute a query that explains the difference? Knowing this would warrant precision. The LIS team proved that formal concept analysis (FCA [GW99]) is a powerful framework for analyzing ⟨query, answer⟩ pairs. Formal concepts formalize the association between a query and its answers. Formal concepts are structured into a lattice which provides navigation links between concepts.

However, standard FCA cannot deal with queries considered as logical formulas (recall that this is the key for flexibility). Therefore a variant of FCA for logical description has been developed [5] altogether with the generic notion of Logical information system (LIS) that provided a reconstruction of all information system operations based on logical concept analysis. In particular, some data-mining operations are native in LIS [5, 3].

The mottoes of the LIS research are:

1. *Never impose a priori a structure on information.* E.g., do not use hierarchical structures. Imposing a priori a structure causes the tyranny of the dominant decomposition [TOHS99]. For instance, the usual class-based organisation of source code makes highly visible the connections between methods of the same class, but masks the possible connections between methods in different classes.

   Instead, consider pieces of information as a bulk. Structure should emerge *a posteriori* from the contents or the point of view. As a consequence, updating the contents may change the structure: we accept it.

2. *Consider every possible rational classification, and permit changes at any time.* Here, rational means that what makes a piece of information belong or not to a class depends on the very piece of information, not on other pieces. The concept lattice induced by FCA is precisely a means to grasp all possible rational classifications.

3. *Rare events are as important as the frequent ones.* One cannot say a priori if a piece of information is interesting because it presents a frequent pattern, or because it presents a rare pattern.

   So, rare events must not be masked by statistical artefacts. Statistics is not forbidden, but it is only a complement of a symbolic logic approach.

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4. **Queries should be possible answers.**

In usual information systems (say relational databases or Web browsers) there is a strict dichotomy between queries (they are intensional expressions), and answers (they are strictly extensional expressions, i.e. sets of things). We contend that a good answer must be a mix of extensional and intensional answers. E.g. the good answer to “I would like to buy a book” is seldom the whole catalog of the bookshop; it is more relevant to answer such a query with other queries, like “Is this for a child” or “Do you prefer novels or documents”.

Note that hierarchical file systems already do that. Queries (i.e., filepaths) yield answers that contain other queries (i.e., sub-directories). One of the LIS achievements is a formalization of this behaviour that does not rely on an *a priori* hierarchical structure.

Our research is intended to be *vertical* in the sense that all aspects of information systems are of interest: design, implementation, and applications.

On the implementation side, the LIS team develops systems that present the LIS abstraction either at the file system level [3] or at the user level [6].

On the application side, the LIS team explores the application of LIS to *Geographical information systems* (GIS). The intuition here is that the traditional layered organization of information in GIS suffers a rigid structure of thematic layers. Moreover, GIS applications usually cope with highly heterogeneous information and large amount of data; this makes them an interesting challenge for LIS. The team also works on a data-mining interpretation of bug tracking. In this case, the intuition is that pieces of information relevant to software engineering, e.g. programs, specifications or tests, can be explored very systematically by a LIS. More generally, applications to software engineering are important for the team. A recent trend of application is the assistance to *social choice*, e.g., committee decision making [2]. The idea is to register all the pros and cons of a set of candidates as a formal context and to explore their consequences.

### 2.2 Key Issues

In its current state, LIS studies the following key issues:

- The LIS formalism is generic w.r.t. the logic used for describing pieces of information.

  *What are the appropriate logics for the application fields that we have chosen? (GIS and error localization) Do we need a brand new logic for every application, or is there something that different applications can share?*

- Genericity of LIS w.r.t. logic opens the door for creating ad hoc logics for describing pieces of information of an application. We already have proposed the framework of *logic functors* for helping a user build safely ad hoc logics. Logic functors are certified logic components that can be composed to form certified implementations of a logic.

  *What are the useful logic functors? How can we be sure that a toolbox of logic functors is complete for a given purpose?*
Can the idea of certified composition be applied to another domain? Given a domain \texttt{foo}, \texttt{foo} functors would be certified \texttt{foo} components that can be assembled to form certified implementations of \texttt{foo} systems.

Is it possible to certify other properties than meta-logical properties? E.g. is it possible to characterize complexity, or other non-functional properties like security?

- A family of non-commutative logics has developed over the years in the domain of computational linguistics, e.g. Lambek logic, pregroups. As for LIS, a great amount of creativity is expected for extending this family with ad hoc logics that would tackle fine-grained linguistics phenomena.

Is it possible to build up an implementation of these logics using logic functors?

Some LIS applications deal with objects that are sequential by nature (say, texts).

Can these non-commutative logics primarily developed for computational linguistics help in LIS applications?

- Hierarchical file systems have a preferred metaphor which is the tree.

  What is the proper metaphor for LIS?

  The tree is also the graphical metaphor of hierarchical file systems.

  What is the graphical metaphor for LIS?

  Knowing this is crucial for the acceptance of LIS in end-user applications.

- Geographical information systems also suffer the tyranny of the dominant decomposition. Here, the dominant decomposition is in rigid thematic layers that inherit from plastic sheets of ancient map design. These layers are omnipresent in the design and interface of GIS applications.

  How can LIS abstract these layers, and still display layers when needed?

  Mining geographical information is difficult because of the layers and because it must cope with complex spatial relations.

  What is the proper modeling of these relations that will permit efficient LIS operations, including data-mining?

- Up to now, mining execution traces for bug tracking has used poor trace representations and ad hoc algorithms.

  How can the theoretical and practical framework of LIS help benefit from the wide range of information of program development environments?

- The file system implementation of LIS can handle around 1 million elementary pieces of information, which corresponds approximately to a full homedir with 10 to 20 thousands files. This is rather small compared to relational database capabilities, but already large compared to other approaches based on formal concept analysis.

  How can it handle more? Can we reach 100 million in the next few years?
3 Scientific Foundations

3.1 Logics for Information Systems

**Keywords:** Syntax, interpretation, semantics, subsumption.

**Glossary:**

**Syntax** Definition of the well-formed statements of a language. Statements are finite.

**Interpretation** Complete description of a world. Interpretations can be arbitrary mathematical constructs, and so can be infinite. Interpretations are models of statements, namely the worlds in which the statement is true. Statements are features of interpretations, namely the statements that are true in the world.

**Semantics** A binary relation between syntactic statements and interpretations.

**Subsumption** A relation which states that a property is more specific than another property.

Logic is the core of Logical Information Systems. However, this does not say everything because every particular usage of logic is also a point of view on logic. For instance, logic in Logic Programming is not the same as in Description Logics. This section describes the point of view on logic from information systems.

Logic is a wide domain that is concerned with formal representation and reasoning. The point of view on logic in logical information systems can be characterized by two things. Firstly, we are interested in the individual description of objects (e.g., files, pictures, program functions or methods), so that we need to represent concrete domains and data structures. This entails two levels of statements: (1) statements about objects, and (2) statements about the world (e.g., ontologies and subsumption). Subsumption helps to decide when an object is an answer to a query. Secondly, we need automated reasoning facilities as the subsumption must be decided between any object and a query in information retrieval. This forces us to only consider decidable logics, unless consistency or completeness are weakened.

**Properties of a Logic** A characteristic of logic is the ability to derive new statements from known statements. Such a derivation is valid w.r.t. semantics only if every model of the known statements is also a model of the new statements. This ability opens the room for reasoning, i.e. the production of valid statements by working at the syntactical level only. Reasoning is formalized by inference systems (e.g., axioms and rules). An inference system is *consistent* if it produces only valid statements; it is *complete* if it produces all valid statements. Reasoning is *decidable* if a consistent and complete inference system can be realized by an algorithm.

**Examples of Logics for Information Systems** Proposition logic is a possible logic for an information system, but it needs a lot of encoding for handling structured information. Instead, non-standard logics have been defined for some structured domains.

A large family of logics that comes into our scope is the family of Description Logics...
(DL) [(Bra79, CLN98)] which have been widely studied, implemented, and applied in knowledge and information management. Moreover, their semantic structure is especially well-suited to be used in a LIS. The semantics of proposition logic is often exposed in terms of truth values and truth tables. To the contrary, the semantics of description logic is defined in terms of sets of objects that are close to answers to a query. DL are, therefore, of a special interest for the LIS team.

Another family of interest is categorial grammars. Many substructural logics come into this scope, among which non-commutative linear logic or Lambek Calculus [(Lam58)] that handle various concatenation principles (or ordered conjunction) in categorial grammars where logic is used both for attaching formulas to objects and for parsing seen as deduction.

At an empirical level, the categorial approach comes very close to the LIS approach. Categorial grammars correspond to LIS contents, because they both attach formulas to objects, and sentence types correspond to queries. The difference is that the answer to a LIS query is an unordered set, whereas a sentence generated by a categorial grammar is an ordered sequence. We expect a cross-fertilization of both theories in the future, especially in the LIS applications where the objects are naturally ordered.

3.2 Concept Analysis

Keywords: Objects, descriptors, context, instance, property, extension, intension, concept.

Glossary:

- **Objects** A set of distinguished individuals.
- **Descriptors** A set of distinguished properties.
- **Context** A set of objects associated with descriptors.
- **Instance** An object is an instance of a descriptor if it is associated with it in a given context.
- **Property** A descriptor is a property of an object if it is associated with it in a given context.
- **Extension** The extension of a collection of descriptors is the set of their common instances. Extent is a synonym.
- **Intension** The intension of a collection of objects is the set of their common properties. Intent is a synonym.
- **Concept** Given a context, and extensions and intensions taken from it, a concept is a pair \((E, I)\) of an extension \(E\) and an intension \(I\) that are mutually complete; i.e., \(I\) is the intention of the extension, and \(E\) is the extension of the intention.


**Formal Concept Analysis**  Formal Concept Analysis (FCA) is part of the mathematical branch of applied lattice theory \([\text{Bi}40,\text{DP}90]\). It can be seen as a reformulation by Wille of Galois lattices \([\text{BM}70]\) that emphasizes lattices as conceptual hierarchies \([\text{Wi}82]\). The mathematical foundations of FCA have been extensively studied by Ganter and Wille \([\text{GW}99]\).

FCA mainly aims at the automatic construction of concepts and their classification according to a generalization ordering, given a flat representation of data. The adjective *formal* means that concepts are given a mathematical definition, which reflects the usual philosophical meaning of a "concept". The basic notions of FCA are those of *formal context*, and *formal concept*.

A *formal context* is a binary relation between a set of objects, and a set of attributes. Through this relation attributes can be seen as properties of objects, and reciprocally, objects can be seen as instances of attributes. This is a very general settings that applies to various domains such as data analysis, information retrieval, data-mining or machine learning. In all these domains, the objects of interest are described by sets of attributes, and the objective is to relate in some way sets of objects and sets of attributes. In information retrieval a set of attributes is a query, whose answers is a set of objects. In machine learning a set of objects is a set of positive examples, whose characterization is a set of attributes.

A *formal concept* is the association of a set of objects, the *extent*, and a set of attributes, the *intent*. This comes close to the classical definition of concept in philosophy, but in FCA the relationship between extent and intent is formally defined. The extent must be the set of instances shared by all attributes of the intent; and the intent must be the set of properties shared by all objects in the extent.

The fundamental theorem of FCA says that the set of all concepts forms a complete lattice when they are ordered according to the set inclusion on extents (or intents). This is called the *concept lattice*, and it can be computed automatically from the formal context. The concept lattice is the structure that is implicit in any formal context. It contains all the information contained in the formal context; the latter can be rebuilt from the former. In data analysis, the concept lattice permits a flexible classification of data (where a concept is a class), because concepts are not organized as a strict hierarchy. In information retrieval and data-mining it is used as a search space for answers.

**Logical Concept Analysis**  In Formal Concept Analysis (FCA) object properties are restricted to Boolean attributes. In many applications there is a need for richer properties, where properties are not independent. For instance, if a book has been published in 2000, it can be given the property *year = 2000*, and has then the implicit properties *year in 1990..2000* and *year in 2000..2010*. This means that properties are statements about objects that can

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be subject to reasoning, exactly like logical statements. Other examples of useful properties are strings and string patterns, spatial descriptions for locating objects, or patterns over the programming type of functions and methods.

FCA has been extended by other authors to handle multi-valued contexts [GW99], but this extension takes the form of a preprocessing stage that results in a standard formal context, and forgets all logical relations between properties. Moreover it is limited in practice to valued attributes with finite domains of attributes. In 2000 we proposed a logical generalization of FCA, named Logical Concept Analysis (LCA) [5], that is the abstraction of FCA w.r.t. object descriptions and concept intents. This makes LCA an abstract component, and makes FCA the composition of LCA with a logic component. LCA makes the theory of concept analysis easily reusable in various applications.

For good composable LCA and logics, they must agree on the specification of logics. What LCA needs from a logic is:

- a language of formulas (or statements), $L$, for the representation of object descriptions and concept intents,
- a procedure, $\sqsubseteq$, for deciding the subsumption between 2 formulas; $\sqsubseteq$ means “is subsumed by”, “is more specific than”, “entails”,
- a procedure, $\sqcup$, for computing the least common subsumer of 2 formulas; it is a kind of logical disjunction,
- a formula, $\bot$, that is the most specific according to subsumption (logical contradiction).

This specification provides everything required to extend fundamental results of FCA to LCA (formal context, extent, intent, concept, complete lattice of concepts). For information retrieval and the expression of queries, it is useful to add, to this specification, operations such as logical conjunction, and logical tautology (the most general formula).

Any formal context defines a logic whose subsumption relation is isomorphic to the concept lattice that is derived from the formal context. An interesting result is that the contextualized logic (the logic defined by the logical context) is a refinement or extension of the logic used by LCA. Everything true in the logic is also true in the contextualized logic (because it is eternal truth); and everything true only in the contextualized logic says something that is true in the context, but not in general (because it is instant truth). Thus, contextualized logic forms the basis for data-mining and machine learning tasks, whose aim is to discover outstanding regularities in a given context [5, 3].

3.3 Logical Querying, Navigation, and Data-mining

Keywords: Querying, navigation, data-mining.

Glossary:

Querying: The process that takes a query (e.g., a logical formula), and returns the collection of objects that satisfy the query (e.g., the extent of the query).

Navigation The process of moving from place to place, where each place indicates objects they contain (i.e. local objects) and other places where it is possible to move (i.e. neighbouring places).

Data-mining The process of extracting outstanding regularities from data (e.g., a context) hoping to discover new and useful knowledge.

In most information systems, querying and navigation are two disconnected means for information retrieval. With querying, users formulate queries which belong to more or less complex querying languages, from simple words as in Google to highly structured languages like SQL. The system returns a set of answers to the query. This permits expressive search criteria over large amounts of data, but lacks interactivity because the dialogue is only one-way. If the answers are not satisfying, users have to imagine new queries and formulate them, which requires a priori knowledge of both querying language and data. With navigation, users move from place to place following links. The most common systems are folder hierarchies (e.g., file systems, bookmarks, emails), and hypertext. As opposed to querying, navigation provides interactivity by making suggestions at each step, but offers limited expressivity because navigation structures are rigid. In a hierarchy, selection criteria are presented in a fixed order. For instance, if pictures are classified first by date, then by type, one cannot easily find all landscape pictures.

The need for combining querying and navigation has already been recognized. Most proposals, however, are unsatisfying. Indeed, either querying and navigation cannot be mixed freely in a same search, or consistency of querying is not maintained. An example of the former is SFS [GJSO91], once a querying step is done, there is no more navigation. An example of the latter is HAC [GM99], some query answers may not satisfy the query. A proposal based on FCA has not these drawbacks [GMA93], and we have generalized it to work within LCA, which allows us to use logical formulas for object description and queries [5]. Logic brings expressivity in querying, and concept analysis brings the concept lattice as a navigation structure (i.e., navigation places are formal concepts). The advantages of this navigation structure is that (1) it is automatically derived from data, the logical context (see motto 1), (2) it is complete as navigation alone makes it possible to reach any object (see motto 3), and (3) it is flexible because selection criteria can be chosen in any order, thus allowing user to express their preferences (see motto 2). Querying and navigation can be freely mixed (see motto 4) in a same search because every logical formula points to a formal concept, and every formal concept is labelled by a logical formula. Put concretely, this means that a user can at each step of his search: either modify by hand the current query and reach a new place, or follow a suggested link that will modify the current query and reach a new place.

The critical operation is the computation of navigation links, which correspond to edges in

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Indeed, the worst-case time complexity for computing the concept lattice is exponential in the number of objects, which makes it intractable in most interesting cases. We demonstrated both in theory and practice that this computation is not necessary. A key feature of LIS is that its semantics is expressed in terms of LCA, though it is not required to actually build the concept lattice. This is opposed to most (all?) previous proposals for using LCA in information retrieval.

The concept lattice upon which our navigation is based is also a rich structure for data-mining and machine learning [Kuz04]. Here again, we have combined existing techniques with logic [Fir02], and applied them to the automatic classification of emails [Fir02], and the prediction of the function of proteins from their sequence [Fir02].

3.4 Genericity and Components

Keywords: Abstraction, reusability, composability, component.

Glossary:
Abstraction a mechanism and practice to reduce and factor out details so that one can focus on few concepts at a time.
Reusability the likelihood a segment of structured code can be used again to add new functionalities with slight or no modification. Reusable code reduces implementation time, it increases the likelihood that prior testing and use has eliminated bugs and it localizes code modifications when a change in implementation is required.
Composability a system design principle that deals with the inter-relationships of components. A highly composable system provides recombinant components that can be selected and assembled in various combinations to satisfy specific user requirements.
Component a unit of composition with contractually specified interfaces and explicit context dependencies only. A software component can be deployed independently and is subject to composition by third parties.

The application scope of Logical Information Systems is very large, and we do not expect that one design (e.g., one logic) will fit all possible applications. That is why we emphasize genericity, and we use the plural in "logical information systems". The need for genericity is not limited to theoretical results and design, but extends to the concrete implementation of LIS.

Genericity requires programming facilities for abstraction, composability, and reusability of software components.

In LIS, abstraction is of the upper importance in the design of logical concept analysis; LCA is an abstraction of FCA. It is also at the heart of the logic functor framework and of its implementation; a logic functor is an abstraction of a logic (see Section 3.5). Reusability and composability are the expected outcomes of this framework. It is expected to make things


easier to the designer of a LIS application. Composability is also at the heart of the very notion of formal context, and thus at the heart of concept analysis. Indeed, the flat structure of formal concepts makes it trivial to extend a context or merge two contexts, and the burden of giving a structure to the context is left to the construction of the concept lattice.

A generic implementation of LIS can be seen as a central component that is parameterized by several application-dependent components: at least a logic, and a transducer for importing data. These parameter components can be linked at compilation time (plugins). The central component as well as parameter components can themselves be the result of the composition of smaller components.

3.5 Logic Functors

**Keywords:** Logics, genericity, composability.

The genericity w.r.t. logic implies that for every new application a logic has to be found for describing objects in a logic context. Either a suitable logic is already known, or it must be created. Creating a logic requires designing a syntax, a semantics, algorithms for subsumption and other procedures, and proving that these algorithms are correct w.r.t. semantics. This definitely requires logic expertise and programming skills, especially for the subsumption procedure that is a theorem prover for which consistency and completeness must be proven. However, application developers and logic experts are likely to be different persons in most cases. Moreover, creating new logics from scratch for each application is unsatisfying w.r.t. reusability as these logics certainly share common parts. For instance, many applications need propositional reasoning, only changing the notion of what is a propositional variable.

We introduced high-level logic components, named *logic functors* [4], in order to make the creation of a new logic the mere composition of abstract and reusable components. All logics share a common specification that contains all useful procedures (e.g., subsumption); logic functors are functions from logics to logics, implemented as parameterized modules. Some logic functors take no parameter, and provide stand-alone but reusable logics: this is the case of concrete domains such as integers or strings. Other logic functors take one or several logics as parameters. For instance the functor Prop(X) is propositional logic abstracted over its atoms. This makes it possible to replace atoms in propositional logic by the formulas of another logic (e.g., valued attributes, terms from a taxonomy).

Logics are built by applying logic functors to sub-logics, which can themselves be defined as a composition of logic functors. For instance, the propositional logic where atoms are replaced by integer-valued attributes (and allowing for integer intervals) can be defined by the expression

$$ L = \text{Prop(Prod(Atom, Interval(Int))))}. $$

This results in a concrete software component L that is fully equipped with implementations of the logic specification procedures. This component can then be composed itself with LCA or a LIS system.

3.6 Categorial Grammars

**Keywords:** Categorial grammar, identification in the limit.
Categorial grammars are used for natural language modeling and processing; they mainly handle syntactic aspects, but Lambek variants also have a close link with semantics and Lambda-calculus. Formally, a \textit{categorial grammar} is a structure $G = (\Sigma, I, S)$ where: $\Sigma$ is a finite alphabet (the words in the sentences); $I$ is a function that maps a finite set of types to each element of $\Sigma$ (the possible categories of each word, a lexicon); $S$ is the main type associated to correct sentences. A \textit{k-valued categorial grammar} is a categorial grammar where, for every word $a \in \Sigma$, $I(a)$ has at most $k$ elements. A \textit{rigid categorial grammar} is a 1-valued categorial grammar. Rigidity is a useful constraint to get learnable subclasses of grammars (and related algorithms).

Each variant of categorial grammar formalism is also determined by a derivability relation on types $\vdash$ (which can be seen as a subcase of linear logic deduction in the case of Lambek grammars). Given a categorial grammar $G = (\Sigma, I, S)$, a sentence $w$ on the alphabet $\Sigma$ belongs to the language of $G$ whenever the words in $w$ can be assigned by $I$ a sequence of types that derive (according to $\vdash$) the distinguished type $S$.

A simplified example is $G_1 = (\Sigma_1, I_1, S)$ with $\Sigma_1 = \{John, Mary, likes\}$ $I_1 = \{John \mapsto \{N\}, Mary \mapsto \{N\}, likes \mapsto \{N \backslash (S/N)\}\}$ the sentence “John likes Mary” belongs to the language of $G_1$ because $N, N\backslash (S/N), N \vdash S$ due to successive applications of the two elimination rules: $X, X \backslash Y \vdash Y$ and $Y, Y/X \vdash Y$. Type constructors $/$ and $\backslash$ can be seen as oriented logic implications, the elimination rules are analogues of the “Modus Ponens” logic rule. An interesting issue is how the underlying rules or logics may compose (this is the design of logic functors) to deal with more fine-grained linguistic phenomenon.

Since they are lexicalized, such grammar formalisms seem well-adapted to automatic acquisition or completion perspectives. Such studies are performed in particular in Gold’s paradigm.

\textit{Identification in the limit in the model of Gold} consists in defining an algorithm on a finite set of (possibly structured) sentences that converges to obtain a grammar in the class that generates the examples. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a class of grammars that we wish to learn from positive examples; let $\mathcal{L}(G)$ denote the language associated with a grammar $G$; a \textit{learning algorithm} is a function $\phi$ from finite sets of (structured) strings to $\mathcal{G}$, such that for any $G \in \mathcal{G}$ and $\langle e_i \rangle_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ any enumeration of $\mathcal{L}(G)$, there exists a grammar $G' \in \mathcal{G}$ such that $\mathcal{L}(G') = \mathcal{L}(G)$ and $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n > n_0 \phi(\{e_0, \ldots, e_n\}) = G'$.

Categorial grammars have close connections with logic. We therefore consider different ways of connecting computational linguistic data and LIS, such as implementing parameterized pregroups as a logic functor [7].

4 Application Domains

4.1 Geographical Information Systems

\textbf{Participants}: Pierre Allard, Olivier Ridoux, Sébastien Ferré, Erwan Quesseveur, François, Le Prince.

Geographical Information Systems (GIS) is an important, fast developing domain of Information technology, and it is almost absent from INRIA projects. It is especially important for local communities (e.g. region and city councils).
Geographical information systems \cite{LT92} handle information that are localized in space (geolocalized). GIS form an area which incorporates various technologies such as web, databases, or imaging. One characteristic of GIS is their organization as layers. This is inherited from the plastic sheets that where used until recently for drawing maps. A layer represents the road system, another the fluvial system, another the relief, etc. This is another instance of the tyranny of the dominant decomposition, and is not satisfactory: to which layer belong bridges, into which layer can we represent a multimodal network? Moreover, mining GIS is known to be difficult for the same reason; the layer structure makes inter layer relationships difficult to discover.

The first advantage of applying LIS to GIS is to allow cross-layer navigation. Another advantage is to permit a logical handling of scales. In current GIS systems, scales are treated as different layers, and it is difficult to keep the consistency between all layers that describe the same object. Another advantage that we have observed in a preliminary work is that LIS helps cleaning a data-base. This was not expected, and opens an interesting research area. Another characteristic of GIS is an intensive usage of topological relations (touches, overlaps, etc) and geographical relations (North, upstream, etc). Logic offers a rich language for expressing these relations and combining them.

4.2 Mining Software Repositories

**Participants:** Peggy Cellier, Mireille Ducassé, Olivier Ridoux.

There exist numerous repositories related to the development of software: for example source versions generated by control systems, archived communications between project personnel, defect tracking systems, component libraries and execution traces. They are used to help manage the progress of software projects. Software practitioners and researchers are beginning to recognize the potential benefit of mining this information to support the maintenance of software systems, improve software design/reuse, and empirically validate novel ideas and techniques.

Logical information systems seem particularly adapted to mine these repositories. Indeed, the repositories contain heterogeneous and incomplete information. Their size is too large to be directly handled by human beings and it is still manageable by the current implementations of LIS. The LIS team currently focuses on component retrieval and execution traces cross-checking.

5 Software

5.1 Camelis and Sewelis

**Participants:** Sébastien Ferré.

Camelis is a stand-alone application that allows to store, retrieve and update objects through a graphical interface. Its main purpose is to experiment with the LIS paradigm.

In particular, it has been very useful for refining the query-answer principle in special circumstances (e.g. when there are many answers, or when there are few answers). It is currently used as a personal storage device for handling photos, music, bibliographical references, etc, up to tens of thousands of objects. It implements as closely as possible the LIS paradigm. It is generic w.r.t. logics, and is compatible with our library of logic functors, LogFun (see Section 5.2). It is available on Linux and Windows, and comes with a user manual.

An important extension, Sewelis, has been developed to browse RDF(S) graphs, a Semantic Web standard. It uses a query language whose expressivity is similar to SPARQL, the reference query language of the Semantic Web. The LIS navigation has been proved consistent (i.e., does not lead to dead-ends), and complete (i.e., can reach all conjunctive queries), so that users can perform complex searches easily and safely [10].

Demos of those softwares are regularly given by Sébastien Ferré. In particular, a demo of Camelis has been given at the plenary meeting of Quaero on 19th October; and demos of Sewelis have been given both at the platform of AFIA (French Association for Artificial Intelligence) on 19th May [16], and at the international Semantic Web conference on 25th October [17].

5.2 LogFun

Participants: Sébastien Ferré.

The formal definition of a LIS is generic with respect to the logic used for object descriptions and for queries. The counterpart is that it is up to the user to design and implement a logic solver to plug in a LIS. This is too demanding on the average user, and we have developed a framework of logic functors that permits to build certified logic solvers (see Section 3.5).

LogFun is a library of logic functors and a logic composer. A user defines a logic using the logic functors, and produces a certified software implementation of the logic (i.e., parser, printer, prover) by applying the logic composer to the definition. For instance, using a functor Interval for reasoning on intervals (e.g. $x \in [2, 5] \implies x \in [0, 10]$), and a functor Prop for propositional reasoning (e.g. $a \land b \implies a$), a user can define logic Prop(Interval). In this logic, a theorem like $x \in [2, 5] \lor x \in [7, 9] \implies x \in [0, 10]$ can be proven. Note that $[2, 5] \cup [7, 9]$ is not an interval, so that Prop(Interval) is an actual extension over Interval.

What the logic composer does when building logic Prop(Interval) is to compose the solver of Interval and the generic solver of Prop, and build a solver for Prop(Interval). It also type-checks Prop(Interval) to produce its certificate using the certificates of Interval and Prop. In this example, the certificate says that Prop(Interval) is complete: everything that could be deduced from the meaning of Prop(Interval) can be proved by its solver. In other circumstances, the certificate indicates that the logic defined by the user is incomplete, w.r.t. the semantics and solvers that come with the functors. In this case, the certificate also indicates what hypotheses are missing for completeness; this may help users to define a more complete variant of their logic.

Logic functors offer basic bricks and a building rule to safely design new logics. For instance, in a recent application of LIS to geographical information system, a basic reasoning capability on locations was needed. The designer of the application, not a LIS or LogFun author, could
build a relevant ad hoc logic safely and rapidly.

5.3 Abilis

Participants: Benjamin Sigonneau, Pierre Allard, Mireille Ducassé.

Abilis provides the LIS functionalities as a Web application. The advantage of a Web application is that users do not have to bother about set up, and we hope that this will foster the diffusion of logical information systems. We plan to publish a number of datasets, for example the collection of LIS publications, and to allow people to create their own datasets. Each dataset is defined by a logical context, and a set of users. Abilis is developed in the Ocsigen framework, based on a thin client – thick server architecture. Abilis is based on Camelis, which provides the LIS API, and where the graphical user interface is replaced by a XHTML Web interface.

Abilis improves Camelis on two aspects: multi-user access and visualization. Multi-user access is crucial in a Web application, and requires the management of users and access rights. Anonymous users can browse a context, while advanced users can also update, create and delete contexts. The development of multi-user access is led by Benjamin Sigonneau. Abilis has been used by Mireille Ducassé for experiments in collaborative decision making, and by the LIS team as a whole to help members determine which conferences they should target.

The work on visualization is part of the PhD of Pierre Allard. The main idea is to allow users to create complex views of the extension (the query answers), reusing ideas and concepts from OLAP. A key characteristic of LIS, the consistency between the query, the navigation tree, and extension views, is retained. Users can partition the extension by selecting dimensions, project it by selecting a measure, and aggregate the results (e.g., count, sum). The resulting OLAP cubes can be displayed as tables, charts, or on a map. Thanks to the map representation, most functionalities of GEOLIS are now available in Abilis.

The work on Abilis this year can be broadly summarized by the following points:

- adding features that were missing from Camelis;
- adding new unique features not found in Camelis, in particular features linked to note-taking;
- redesigning part of the interface internals to match some of web applications current best practices;
- improving the visualization part;
- improving geographic operations;
- improving performances.

5.4 Portalis

Participants: Yves Bekkers.
The aim of Portalis is to produce on the shelf software bricks to construct web services built on top of our logical information systems. The purpose of this sub-project is to facilitate scientific popularization and industrial transfer of tools produced by the LIS team. The logical information systems are built in OCaml, a very powerful functional language but which is not commonly well accepted in the industrial community. The first software brick which is terminated consists in a wrapping of Camelis via a SOAP Protocol built in C on top of OCaml. The advantage of SOAP Protocol on the web is that it is an XML protocol for web services totally language independent. A second brick is under testing, it consists of a Java SOAP client. Hence hiding totally the SOAP protocol. Using this second brick, designers have at their disposal a Java Camelis client for multiple distant Camelis application servers.

5.5 Typed grammars

Participants: Denis Béchet [LINA-Nantes], Annie Foret [contact point].

A Pregroup ToolBox is under development on the gforge Inria as a collaborative work with LINA. It includes a generic pregroup parser (LINA) and grammar lexicon definitions and manipulation tools based on XML. An interface with Camelis has been developed (from Camelis to the Pregroup XML format, and the other way round). It has been used to define and experiment grammar prototypes for different natural languages.

6 New Results

6.1 Logical modeling of multidimensional analysis of multivalued relations
- Application to geographic data exploration

Participants: Pierre Allard.

The following is a summary of the PhD thesis of Pierre Allard [1], supervised by Sébastien Ferré and Olivier Ridoux.

Since the beginning of data processing, companies have realized the importance of information management solutions. Corporate data are a powerful asset to study the trends and make choices for the future. Business Intelligence appeared in the mid-90s (information synthesis to assist decision-making) with OLAP (On-Line Analytical Processing, a tool set for exploration, analysis and display of multidimensional data) and S-OLAP (Spatial OLAP, OLAP with spatial support). A OLAP user, unspecialized in computer science, does not need to know a language to handle multidimensional data, create graphics, etc. However, we consider that the OLAP data model is too rigid, because of its permanent multidimensional structure and because each content must have a single aggregate value. This observation is the starting point of this thesis. We propose a new paradigm of information system, able to analyze and explore multidimensional and multivalued data. To model this paradigm, we use the logical information systems (LIS) which is an information system that has common features with OLAP, especially on the data mining aspects. Our paradigm is defined by a flexible data model, an easy navigation and modular representation. We concluded this thesis by the application of this paradigm on several topics, including the exploration of geographic data.
6.2 Applying Logical Information Systems to Support Group Decision

Participants: Peggy Cellier, Mireille Ducassé, Sébastien Ferré.

Group work represents a large amount of time in professional life while many people feel that much of that time is wasted. This amount of time is even going to increase because problems are becoming more complex and are meant to be solved in a distributed way. Each involved person has a local and partial view of the problem, no one embraces the whole required knowledge. Building up shared knowledge in order to gather relevant distributed knowledge of a problem is therefore a crucial issue.

This thread of research consists in applying Logical Information Systems to Support Group Decision. In a previous work [DF10], Camelis, a single-user logical information system, has been shown useful to support serene and fair meetings. This year we have shown how Abilis (see Section 5.3) features can be applied to help build shared knowledge among a group of skilled users.

Kolfschoten, de Vreede and Briggs have classified collaboration tasks into 16 collaboration patterns [KdVB10]. We have given evidences that LIS can significantly support three of these patterns which are important aspects of decision making, namely Generate/Gathering, Clarify/Building Shared Understanding and Reduce/Filtering. Firstly, the navigation and filtering capabilities of LIS help detect inconsistencies and missing knowledge during meetings. The updating capabilities of LIS enable participants to add objects, features and links between them on the fly. As a result the group has a more complete and relevant set of information (Generate/Gathering pattern). Secondly, the compact views provided by LIS and the OLAP features help participants embrace the whole required knowledge. The group can therefore build a shared understanding of the relevant information which was previously distributed amongst the participants (Clarify/Building Shared Understanding pattern). Thirdly, the navigation and filtering capabilities of LIS are relevant to quickly converge on a reduced number of targets (Reduce/Filtering pattern) [8].

6.3 Multiple Fault Localization with Data Mining

Participants: Peggy Cellier, Mireille Ducassé, Sébastien Ferré, Olivier Ridoux.

We have proposed an interactive fault localization method based on two data mining techniques, formal concept analysis and association rules [5, 6]. A lattice formalizes the partial ordering and the dependencies between the sets of program elements (e.g., lines) that are most likely to lead to program execution failures. The paper provides an algorithm to traverse that lattice starting from the most suspect places. The main contribution is that the algorithm is able to deal with any number of faults within a single execution of a test suite. In addition, a stopping criterion independent of the number of faults is provided.


6.4 Partial Orders and Logical Concept Analysis to Explore Patterns Extracted by Data Mining

**Participants:** Peggy Cellier, Mireille Ducassé, Sébastien Ferré, Thierry Charnois [University of Caen].

Data mining techniques are used in order to discover emerging knowledge (patterns) in databases. The problem of such techniques is that there are, in general, too many resulting patterns for a user to explore them all by hand. Some methods try to reduce the number of patterns without a priori pruning. The number of patterns remains, nevertheless, high. Other approaches, based on a total ranking, propose to show to the user the top-k patterns with respect to a measure. Those methods do not take into account the user’s knowledge and the dependencies that exist between patterns. We have proposed a new way for the user to explore extracted patterns [7]. The method is based on navigation in a partial order over the set of all patterns in the Logical Concept Analysis framework. It accommodates several kinds of patterns and the dependencies between patterns are taken into account thanks to partial orders. It allows the user to use his/her background knowledge to navigate through the partial order, without a priori pruning. We illustrate how our method can be applied on two different tasks (software engineering and natural language processing) and two different kinds of patterns (association rules and sequential patterns).

6.5 Computation of Sentence Network for Textual Analysis and Discourse Analysis

**Participants:** Peggy Cellier, Dominique Legallois [University of Caen], Thierry Charnois [University of Caen].

We have presented an automatic process [13] based on text reduction introduced by Hoey. Text reduction is a linguistic approach to extract sentences that seem to be the most relevant from an informational point of view. The application of that kind of approaches on large texts is difficult to do by hand. We propose an automatic process to treat large texts. The first step of the process is the computation and visualization of the whole sentence network. The second step is the navigation thanks to a LIS tool (Camelis) through the sentence network. We have conducted some experiments on different kinds of texts (narrative, expositive) to show the benefits of the approach.

6.6 Type-logical Grammar formalisms

**Participants:** Annie Foret.

Pregroup grammars are a context-free grammar formalism which may be used to describe the syntax of natural languages. However, this formalism is not able to easily define types corresponding to optional or iterated arguments like an optional complement of a verb or a sequence of its adverbial modifiers. A former paper has introduced two constructions that make up for this deficiency where Gentzen-style rules are introduced to take care of two new operations. The extended pregroup calculus enjoys several properties shared with traditional
dependency grammars, yet does not significantly expand the polynomial complexity of the syntactic analysis on the pregroup grammar. The basic formalism and this extension has been further studied, and explored in the pregroup toolbox under development with a team in Nantes [1]. The use of Camelis in this context is also presented in this work.

Our interest is also in learning categorial grammars, so as to add automatically a new type (property) to words, from sequences of examples (possibly structured or annotated). We study in [3, 4] the learnability of Categorial Dependency Grammars (CDG), a family of categorial grammars expressing all kinds of projective, discontinuous and repeatable dependencies. For these grammars, it is known that they are not learnable from dependency structures. We propose two different ways of modelling the repeatable dependencies through iterated types and the two corresponding families of CDG which cannot distinguish between the dependencies repeatable at least K times and those repeatable any number of times. For both we show that they are incrementally learnable in the limit from dependency structures.

The notion of k-valued categorial grammars where a word is associated to at most k types is often used in the field of lexicalized grammars as a fruitful constraint for obtaining several properties like the existence of learning algorithms. This principle is relevant only when the classes of k-valued grammars correspond to a real hierarchy of languages. Such a property had been shown earlier for classical categorial grammars. We have established in [2] the relevance of this notion when categorial grammars are enriched with iterated types.

6.7 SQUALL: a High-Level Language for Querying and Updating the Semantic Web

Participants: Sébastien Ferré.

Languages play a central role in the Semantic Web. An important aspect regarding their design is syntax as it plays a crucial role in the wide acceptance of the Semantic Web approach. Like for programming languages, an evolution can be observed from low-level to high-level designs. High-level languages not only allow more people to contribute by abstracting from the details, but also makes experienced people more productive, and makes the produced documents easier to share and maintain. We have designed SQUALL [15], a high-level language for querying and updating semantic data. It has a strong adequacy with RDF, an expressiveness very similar to SPARQL 1.1, and a controlled natural language syntax that completely abstracts from low-level notions such as bindings and relational algebra.

6.8 Reconciling Expressive Querying and Faceted Search for the Semantic Web

Participants: Sébastien Ferré, Alice Hermann.

Faceted search and querying are two well-known paradigms to search the Semantic Web. Querying languages, such as SPARQL, offer expressive means for searching RDF datasets, but they are difficult to use. Query assistants help users to write well-formed queries, but they do not prevent empty results. Faceted search supports exploratory search, i.e., guided navigation that returns rich feedbacks to users, and prevents them to fall in dead-ends (empty results).
However, faceted search systems do not offer the same expressiveness as query languages. We have introduced Query-based Faceted Search (QFS) \cite{10,14,9}, the combination of an expressive query language and faceted search, to reconcile the two paradigms. Our LISQL query language generalizes existing semantic faceted search systems, and covers most features of SPARQL. Our prototype Sewelis (aka. Camelis 2) \cite{17,16} implements QFS, and a study of its usability has demonstrated that QFS retains the ease-of-use of faceted search, and enables users to build complex queries with little training.

6.9 Guided creation and update of objects in RDF(S) bases

**Participants:** Alice Hermann, Mireille Ducassé, Sébastien Ferré.

Updating existing knowledge bases is crucial to take into account the information that are regularly discovered. However, this is quite tedious and in practice Semantic Web data are rarely updated by users. We have developed an approach, UTILIS \cite{11,12}, to help users create and update objects in RDF(S) bases. While creating a new object, $o$, UTILIS searches for similar objects, found by applying relaxation rules to the description of $o$, taken as a query. The resulting objects and their properties serve as suggestions to expand the description of $o$.

6.10 Assessment of achievements

The results achieved by the LIS team must be compared with the key issues presented in the objective part. Not all key issues have deserved attention yet. However, a few of them have been sufficiently well explored to start and draw conclusions.

We have now gained sufficient experience to claim that even if every application uses a specific logic, it is not necessary to design every specific logic from scratch. Not only do we have proposed a toolbox of logic components for building logic tools (parser, prover, printer, etc), but we also have designed a theory of logic composition that allows to prove meta-properties about the prover thus obtained. This methodology has been successfully applied to build Description Logic style provers, topological property provers, time comparators, text comparators, etc. Moreover, we have designed a non-commutative logic comment that allows to build variants of Lambek logics.

We have also progressed on the metaphor issue. We have observed that all applications we have designed require a three-components interface. One component exposes a query, another one exposes a navigation tree, and the last one exposes a set of application oriented entities represented using an application oriented interface. The second component provides at the same time a summary of the answers to the query, and a set of navigation links that lead to related queries. The third component can be a map display for GIS applications, a thumbnail array for a picture application, or an agenda for a personal organizer application. In all applications the three interface components must be tightly connected so that acting on one component affects the two other components. The three components must always be kept coherent.

Finally, we have demonstrated that LIS principles can be successfully applied to the GIS domain, and to the software fault localization domain. In both cases, LIS principles have permitted new functionalities, and have opened new perspectives on possible developments.
most interesting result is that the same high-level LIS features give rise to different capabilities in different domains. This shows that more than a set of information management principles, LIS is also an application integration principle. This is due to the use of logic for describing data and to the lack of rigid data schematas.

7 Contracts and Grants with Industry

7.1 ECOMER

Participants: Peggy Cellier, Mireille Ducassé, Sébastien Ferré, Benjamin Sigonneau.

The ECOMER project is a national project founded by the French “Ministère de l’Alimentation, de l’Agriculture et de la Pêche” and partially supported by the “Fonds Européen de la Pêche”. The objectives are firstly to provide fishers with hardware and software tools that allow them to better control their oil consumption, and secondly to design a module for the training of fishers to the economical steering of ships. The motivation for this project comes from the fact that oil takes a heavier and heavier place in the budget of the fish industry.

The partners are: Chanter Naval Pierre Gléhen et Fils (coordinator), Marinelec Technologies, iXElek, Avel Vor Technologie, Coopérative Maritime Étaploise, Marelec, From Nord, INSA of Rennes, Comité Régional des Pêches Maritimes et des Elevages Marins de Bretagne, Comité Régional des Pêches Maritimes et des Elevages Marins de Languedoc-Roussillon, Lycée professionnel maritime du Guilvinec, Lycée professionnel maritime de Boulogne/Le Portel, Lycée de la mer Paul Bousquet - Sète et Centre Européen de Formation Continue. The end of the project has been prorogated to January 2012. LIS budget share is 53 k€uros.

The LIS team provides powerful user interaction mechanisms to browse streams of data about oil consumption. The objective is that fishermen get a detailed feedback about their consumption so that they can learn how to reduce it.

The LIS team already used Abilis to browse a set of data collected on a 14-day fishing trip from more than 80 sensors. Although the tool proved powerful enough to handle the huge size of the dataset, the nature of the data itself (e.g. some essential sensors regarding fuel consumption analysis are missing) prevented from extracting results useful to fishermen. We are now adopting a new approach involving the computation of association rules; this experiment is still going on.

8 Other Grants and Activities

8.1 International Collaborations

• The LIS team received the visit of Luigi Spagnolo from November 2010 to March 2011. Luigi is a PhD student from Politecnico di Milano. During his visit, Luigi worked with Sébastien Ferré and Yves Bekkers on the design of a user interface for Query-based Faceted Search (see Section 6.8). On 18th March, we received the visit of his PhD supervisor, Paolo Paolini.
Sébastien Ferré is a member of the management committee of the COST action MUMIA (IC1002 - Multilingual and multifaceted interactive information access). MUMIA aims to coordinate collaboration between the following disciplines: machine translation, information retrieval, and faceted search. The objectives of the action is to foster research and development for next generation search technologies. The domain of patent search has been selected as a common use case, as it provides highly sophisticated and information intensive search tasks that have significant economic ramifications. The 2nd Management Committee (MC) and the 1st Working Group (WG) meeting took place in Vienna on 8-9 June. The 3rd MC and 2nd WG took place in Amsterdam on 22-23 September.

8.2 National Collaborations

- The LIS team has a contract with Région Bretagne in collaboration with the laboratory RESO of the University of Rennes 2, for the funding of O. Bedel’s PhD (until September 2008), and P. Allard’s PhD (since October 2008).

- Annie Forest is an external collaborator of LINA (research lab. Nantes), in TALN team (Natural Language Processing), and member of “Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie” (AUF), LTT network on “Lexicologie, terminologie et traduction”.

9 Dissemination

9.1 Scientific Responsibilities

- Olivier Ridoux has chaired several Rennes 1 PhD defense committees: Freddy Munoz on Adaptive systems, Damien Hardy on Static analysis for multi-core execution, Benoît Boyer on Certification of automata rewriting, and Mickaël Clavreuil on Model composition. He also served as the chairman of a Rennes 1 recruitment committee for a position on innovation management.

- Mireille Ducasse has served in the program committee of CLA 2001 (Concept Lattices and their Applications). She has chaired two PhD committees: Mickael Delahaye, University of Rennes 1, October 2011; Nadjib Lazaar, University of Rennes 1, December 2011. She has been an elected member of the “Conseil National des Universités (CNU) 27e section”, a national assessment committee for teaching and research staff, from November 2007 to November 2011. That amounted for more than 5 weeks of full time work per year. She is a member of SPECIF.

- Annie Forest has been a program committee member of the Formal Grammar 2011 International Conference. She has been reviewer for the Journal of Computer and System Sciences (special issue following LATA 2010). She belongs to the program committee of next Logical Aspects of Computational Linguistics (LACL) International Conference.

- Sébastien Ferré and Peggy Cellier were the organizers of the “Journées des treillis”, an annual meeting of the French-speaking community on lattices and Formal Concept Anal-
ysis. In 2011, this event took place in Rennes at IRISA, on 8-9 December, and gathered 25 participants from 10 laboratories.

- Sébastien Ferré is a member of the Editorial Board of the International Conference on Formal Concept Analysis (ICFCA). He also served as an external reviewer for the journals *Information Sciences* (INS), and *Télé détection* (TELA). He is a member of the committee of the DKM scientific department (Data and Knowledge Management) at IRISA. Sébastien is also a supervisor of the PhDs of Pierre Allard and Alice Hermann.

- Peggy Cellier has served as an external reviewer for two international conferences: the international conference on Concept Lattices and their Applications (CLA); and an international workshop: the workshop on Testing and Debugging (TeBug). She was involved in the committee of the French workshop « Traces » at the conference: “Ingénierie des connaissances” (IC). She supervised the master internship of Adrian Bona about the integration of constraints in a data mining algorithm. She was involved in the organization of the “Journée Scientifique des Jeuness Chercheurs MMS (Mesure, Modélisation et Simulation)”. She also organized a seminar about data mining and natural language processing, which gathered researchers from Caen, Blois, Tours and Rennes.

- For the two last years (2009-2010 and 2010-2011), Yves Bekkers has coached two Practical developments for student registered in MSc (Master of computer science). Last year the students had to produce a server and a client for classic web navigators offering shared access on the web to a LIS system developed by our team. This year, the students have to produce a user-friendly interface for 10" touch pad. Yves Bekkers has also produced a quick reference guide for Camelis (see Section 5.1).

- Alice Hermann served as an external reviewer for the international conference on Concept Lattices and their Applications (CLA).

### 9.2 Involvement in the Scientific Community

- Peggy Cellier has taken part in the GDR I3 seminar ("Journée sur la fouille de données"), which groups together the French data mining community.

- Sébastien Ferré has been invited by Karell Bertet to give a seminar in May in L3I, at the University of La Rochelle. This was followed by the visit of Clément Guérin, a PhD student at L3I, in August at IRISA. He spent a week learning to use Sewelis, and applying it to comics data. Sébastien Ferré has been invited by ENS Bretagne to give a talk on Logical Information Systems to ENS students in January. He has also been invited to give a demo of Camelis (see Section 5.1) at the plenary meeting of Quaero in October.

- Annie Foret has been elected as a member of the scientific committee of ISTIC-Rennes1. She is a member of the committee "Développement Durable (Sustainable development)" Annie Foret is member of ATALA (Association pour le Traitement automatique des Langues), and of SPECIF (Société des Personnels Enseignants et Chercheurs en Informatique de France).
• Alice Hermann took part in the “Journée Scientifique des Jeunes Chercheurs MMS (Mesure, Modélisation et Simulation)”, an annual regional poster contest for PHD students.

• Olivier Ridoux is in the editorial board of Interstices.

9.3 Teaching

• Olivier Ridoux was the head of ESIR (Ecole supérieure d'ingénieurs de Rennes) until September. He teaches data-bases, algorithmics, the theory of formal languages and compilation in the engineering school. He is also in charge of the innovation training in the school. He also teaches logic and constraint programming at the Master level, and an introduction to the principles of IT systems at the Bachelor level.

• Mireille Ducassé is the director of international relations of the INSA of Rennes since december 2010. As such, she is a member of the direction of the Insa of Rennes.

  She has been a member of a recruitment committee (“comité de sélection”) in computer science at the university Henry Poincaré of Nancy.

  At Insa, she taught formal methods for software engineering (with the “B formal method”) and constraint programming at Master 1 level of Insa. She led an exercise of participatory design based on the work of Wendy Mackay from the “In Situ” project of Inria Futos.

• Sébastien Ferré teaches symbolic data mining and compilation at the master level. He also teaches formal methods for programming and software engineering at the license level. He is vice-director of the MIAGE at ISTIC.

• Annie Foret teaches university courses including formal logic, functional programming, and databases. She is in charge of Master1 Internship (for a section in computer science at ISTIC).

• Peggy Cellier teaches database and risk analysis at licence level; object-oriented modelling and programming, symbolic data mining and formal methods for software engineering at Master level. She was involved in the organization of “Journée portes ouvertes de l’INSA de Rennes”, an event to let the public visit INSA Rennes.

• Yves Bekkers teaches programming languages: functional programming, logic programming (Prolog, lambdaProlog), artificial intelligence, relational databases, XML, new technologies for programming distributed applications on the Web. After being a specialist of logic programming, his current principal interest is teaching distributed application design using tools based on model technologies (Object programming, XML, SGBDR) which allows building applications from one need to the other using numerous bridges allowing passing automatically from one model to another.

• Pierre Allard teaches initiation to functional programming in Scheme at INSA and ISTIC, at License 1 level.
• Alice Hermann teaches programming in Java at Licence 1 level of INSA and database at Licence 2 level of INSA.

10 Bibliography

Major publications by the team in recent years


Doctoral dissertations and “Habilitation” theses


Publications in Conferences and Workshops


Internal Reports


Miscellaneous
