# Recursion in RDF Data Shape Languages

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#### Abstract

An RDF data shape is a description of the expected contents of an RDF document (aka graph) or dataset. A major part of this description is the set of constraints that the document or dataset is required to satisfy. W3C recently (2014) chartered the RDF Data Shapes Working Group to define SHACL, a standard RDF data shape language. We refer to the ability to name and reference shape language elements as recursion. This article provides a precise definition of the meaning of recursion as used in Resource Shape 2.0. The definition of recursion presented in this article is largely independent of language-specific details. We speculate that it also applies to ShEx and to all three of the current proposals for SHACL. In particular, recursion is not permitted in the SHACL-SPARQL proposal, but we conjecture that recursion could be added by using the definition proposed here as a top-level control structure.

## 1 Introduction

An RDF data shape is a description of the expected contents of an RDF document (aka graph) or dataset. A major part of this description is the set of constraints that the document or dataset is required to satisfy. In this respect, data shapes do for RDF what XML Schema[6] does for XML. The term shape is used instead of schema to avoid confusion with RDF Schema[3] which, like OWL[9], describes inference rules, not constraints.

W3C recently (2014) chartered the RDF Data Shapes Working Group to define SHACL, a standard RDF data shape language[8]. Both of the member submissions to this working group, Resource Shape 2.0[11] and Shape Expressions (ShEx) [12] allow shapes to refer to each other. For example, in Resource Shape 2.0 the property oslc:valueShape lets one resource shape refer to another. ShEx has a similar feature. In these languages, a shape may refer directly or indirectly to itself.

We refer to the ability to name and reference shape language elements as recursion in analogy with that ubiquitous feature of programming languages which allows a function to call other functions, including itself. Of course, when writing a recursive function care must be taken to ensure that recursion terminates. Similarly, when defining a shape language care must be taken to

spell out the precise meaning of recursion. Neither of the member submissions included a precise definition of recursion.

This article provides a precise definition of the meaning of recursion as used in Resource Shape 2.0. Precision is achieved through the use of Z Notation [13], a formal specification language based on typed set theory. The  $\LaTeX$  source for this article has been type-checked using the fUZZ type-checker [14].

The definition of recursion presented in this article is largely independent of language-specific details. We speculate that it also applies to ShEx and to all three of the current proposals for SHACL. In particular, recursion is not permitted in the SHACL-SPARQL proposal [10], but we conjecture that recursion could be added by using the definition proposed here as a top-level control structure.

## 1.1 Organization of this Article

The remainder of this article is organized as follows.

- Section 2 introduces a running example in order to ground the following definitions.
- Section 3 defines a few basic RDF concepts.
- Section 4 defines neighbour functions and graphs which form the basis for the following definition of recursion.
- Section 5 defines constraints.
- Section 6 defines recursive shapes.
- Section 7 discusses how the proposed definition of recursion relates to the existing and proposed shape languages.
- Section 8 concludes the article.

# 2 Running Example: The PIM Application

We use a highly simplified running example to illustrate the concepts defined in the following sections. Each formal definition is instantiated with data drawn from the running example in order to help the reader understand the formalism and relate it to RDF. Although the inclusion of examples lengthens the presentation, we hope that it will make the formalism more tangible and accessible to readers who are unfamiliar with Z Notation.

Consider a Linked Data [2] application for Personal Information Management (PIM). The application manages documents that contain information about a *contact* person and their *associates*. The application maintains the following integrity constraints where the prefixes rdf:[5] and foaf:[4] have the usual meanings.

- Each document contains information about exactly one contact person and zero or more of their associates.
- Each contact has type foaf:Person and has exactly one name given by the property foaf:name.
- The contact's associates are given by the property foaf:knows which may have zero or more values.
- Each associate has type foaf:Person and has exactly one name given by foaf:name.
- Each associate is known by exactly one contact given by following the property foaf:knows in the backward direction, i.e. the associate is the object of the property and the contact is the subject.

Note that these constraints are circular since the definition of contact refers to the definition of associate, and conversely. We have an obligation to give this circularity a precise meaning.

These constraints are illustrated by a valid document for Alice (Listing 1) and and invalid document for Bob (Listing 2). All RDF source code examples are written in Turtle format [1].

The following document about Alice satisfies all the constraints of the application.

```
# http://example.org/contacts/alice
   @prefix foaf: <http://xmlns.com/foaf/0.1/> .
   @base <http://example.org/contacts/> .
   <alice#me> a foaf:Person ;
5
6
       foaf:name "Alice" ;
7
       foaf:knows
           <bob#me> ,
9
           <charlie#me> .
10
11
   12
       foaf:name "Bob" .
13
14
   <charlie#me> a foaf:Person ;
       foaf:name "Charlie" .
15
```

Listing 1: Contact document for Alice

The following document about Bob violates some of the constraints of the application. Alice has no type and Charlie has no name.

```
1 # http://example.org/contacts/bob
2 @prefix foaf: <http://xmlns.com/foaf/0.1/> .
3 @base <http://example.org/contacts/> .
4
5 <bob#me> a foaf:Person ;
```

# 3 Basic RDF Concepts

This section introduces some basic RDF concepts. For full definitions consult the RDF specification[5].

#### 3.1 Terms

Let *TERM* be the set of all RDF *terms*.

```
[TERM]
```

The set of all RDF terms is partitioned into IRIs, blank nodes, and literals.

```
IRI, BNode, Literal: \mathbb{P}\ TERM
\langle IRI, BNode, Literal \rangle partition TERM
```

For example, the documents for Alice and Bob contain the following distinct literals where Alice denotes "Alice", etc.

```
\frac{Alice, Bob, Charlie : Literal}{\mathsf{disjoint} \ \langle \{Alice\}, \{Bob\}, \{Charlie\} \rangle}
```

and the following distinct IRIs where *alice* denotes http://example.org/contacts/alice#me, etc.,  $rdf\_type$  denotes rdf:type, and  $foaf\_Person$  denotes foaf:Person, etc.

```
alice, bob, charlie: IRI \\ rdf\_type: IRI \\ foaf\_Person, foaf\_name, foaf\_knows: IRI \\ \hline \\ disjoint \ \langle \{alice\}, \{bob\}, \{charlie\}, \{rdf\_type\}, \\ \{foaf\_Person\}, \{foaf\_name\}, \{foaf\_knows\} \rangle
```

### 3.2 Triples

An RDF triple is a statement that consists of three terms referred to as subject, predicate, and object.

```
Triple == \{ s, p, o : TERM \mid s \notin Literal \land p \in IRI \}
```

- The subject must not be a literal.
- The predicate must be an IRI.

For example, the statement that Alice is a person is represented by the following triple.

```
\vdash (alice, rdf\_type, foaf\_Person) \in Triple
```

## 3.3 Graphs

It is common to visualize a triple as a directed arc from the subject to the object, labelled by the predicate. A set of triples may therefore may visualized as a directed graph (technically, a directed, labelled, multigraph). We are only concerned with finite graphs here.

An RDF graph is a finite set of triples.

```
Graph == \mathbb{F} Triple
```

For example, the following graph contains the triples in the document about Alice.

```
alice\_graph : Graph
alice\_graph = \{(alice, rdf\_type, foaf\_Person), \\ (alice, foaf\_name, Alice), \\ (alice, foaf\_knows, bob), \\ (alice, foaf\_knows, charlie), \\ (bob, rdf\_type, foaf\_Person), \\ (bob, foaf\_name, Bob), \\ (charlie, rdf\_type, foaf\_Person), \\ (charlie, foaf\_name, Charlie)\}
```

It is convenient to define the sets of subjects, predicates, and objects that appear in a graph.

```
subjects == (\lambda g : Graph \bullet \{ s, p, o : TERM \mid (s, p, o) \in g \bullet s \})
predicates == (\lambda g : Graph \bullet \{ s, p, o : TERM \mid (s, p, o) \in g \bullet p \})
objects == (\lambda g : Graph \bullet \{ s, p, o : TERM \mid (s, p, o) \in g \bullet o \})
```

For example, the graph for Alice contains the following predicates.

```
\vdash predicates(alice\_graph) = \{rdf\_type, foaf\_name, foaf\_knows\}
```

The *nodes* of a graph are its subjects and objects.

```
nodes == (\lambda g : Graph \bullet subjects(g) \cup objects(g))
```

For example, the graph for Alice contains the following nodes.

```
\vdash nodes(alice\_graph) = \{alice, bob, charlie, Alice, Bob, Charlie, foaf\_Person\}
```

A pointed graph consists of a graph and a base node in the graph.

```
PointedGraph graph: Graph baseNode: TERM baseNode \in nodes(graph)
```

• The base node is a node in the graph.

The base node of a pointed graph is also referred to as the *start node* or *focus node* of the graph, depending on the context.

For example, alice is the natural base node of the graph for Alice.

```
alice\_pg: PointedGraph
alice\_pg.graph = alice\_graph
alice\_pg.baseNode = alice
```

- The graph is alice\_graph.
- The base node is alice.

# 4 Neighbour Functions

RDF applications often impose conditions on nodes, and related conditions on their *neighbours*, where a neighbour is some node that bears a specified relation to the given node. When the neighbour relation between nodes is specified by traversing triples, we say that the nodes are connected by a *path*. SPARQL 1.1[7] defines a *property path* syntax for specifying paths.

More generally, applications may use neighbour relations that cannot be specified by property paths. Many such relations might be specified by SPARQL queries that bind pairs of variables to nodes. For maximum generality, we do not place restrictions on how neighbour relations are specified.

A neighbour function is any mapping from graphs to pair of nodes.

• A neighbour function is a mapping that maps a graph g to a binary relation on the nodes of g.

We say that the pair of nodes (x, y) matches the neighbour function q in the graph g when  $(x, y) \in q(g)$ .

## 4.1 Path Expressions

Path expressions define a very commonly used type of neighbour function.

A predicate p defines a path expression forward(p) by traversing triples in the forward direction. Forward path expressions are referred to as PredicatePath expressions in SPARQL 1.1.

• The path expression forward(p) matches all pairs (s, o) such that (s, p, o) is a triple in g.

For example, the following are forward path expressions.

```
has_type == forward(rdf_type)
has_name == forward(foaf_name)
knows == forward(foaf_knows)
```

The path expression  $has\_type$  matches the following pairs of nodes in the graph for Alice.

```
\vdash has\_type(alice\_graph) = \\ \{(alice, foaf\_Person),\\ (bob, foaf\_Person),\\ (charlie, foaf\_Person)\}
```

Similarly, a predicate p defines a path expression backward(p) by traversing triples in the backward direction. Backward path expressions are referred to as InversePath expressions in SPARQL 1.1.

```
backward : IRI \rightarrow Neighbour
\forall p : IRI; g : Graph \bullet
backward(p)(g) =
\{ o, s : nodes(g) \mid (s, p, o) \in g \}
```

• The path expression backward(p) matches all pairs (o, s) such that (s, p, o) is a triple in g.

For example, the following is a backward path expression.

```
is\_known\_by == backward(foaf\_knows)
```

The path expression  $is\_known\_by$  matches the following pairs of nodes in the graph for Alice.

```
\vdash is\_known\_by(alice\_graph) = \{(bob, alice), \\ (charlie, alice)\}
```

#### 4.2 Values

Given a graph g and a node  $x \in nodes(g)$ , the set of all nodes that can be reached from x by matching the neighbour function q is values(g, x, q).

• The node y is in values(g, x, q) when (x, y) matches q in g.

For example, in the graph for Alice the node alice and path expression knows have the following values.

```
\vdash values(alice\_graph, alice, knows) = \{bob, charlie\}
```

### 5 Constraints

RDF applications often impose constraints on the data graphs they process. A given graph either *satisfies* or *violates* the constraint. Thus a constraint partitions the set of all graphs into two disjoint subsets, namely the set of all graphs that satisfy the constraint and the set of all graphs that violate the constraint. We therefore equate a constraint to the set of graphs that satisfy it.

A *constraint* is a, possibly infinite, set of graphs.

```
Constraint == \mathbb{P} Graph
```

For example, suppose we define a *small graph* to be a graph that has at most 10 triples. The set of all small graphs is a constraint.

```
small\_graphs : Constraint
small\_graphs = \{ g : Graph \mid \#g \le 10 \}
```

The Alice graph satisfies this constraint.

```
\vdash alice\_graph \in small\_graphs
```

## 5.1 Node Constraints

A parameterized constraint is a mapping from some parameter set X to constraints.

```
ParameterizedConstraint[X] == X \longrightarrow Constraint
```

A term constraint is a constraint that is parameterized by terms.

```
TermConstraint == ParameterizedConstraint[TERM]
```

For example, given a term  $x \in TERM$ , the constraint hasSubject(x) is the set of all graphs that have x as a subject.

Similarly, hasPredicate(x), hasObject(x), and hasNode(x) are constraints with the analogous definitions.

```
\begin{aligned} hasPredicate &== (\lambda \, x : TERM \, \bullet \, \{ \, g : Graph \mid x \in predicates(g) \, \}) \\ hasObject &== (\lambda \, x : TERM \, \bullet \, \{ \, g : Graph \mid x \in objects(g) \, \}) \\ hasNode &== (\lambda \, x : TERM \, \bullet \, \{ \, g : Graph \mid x \in nodes(g) \, \}) \end{aligned}
```

Note that hasNode(x) is the union of hasSubject(x) and hasObject(x).

```
\vdash \forall \, x : TERM \bullet \\ hasNode(x) = hasSubject(x) \cup hasObject(x)
```

A node constraint is a term constraint in which the term is a node in each graph that satisfies the constraint.

```
\begin{tabular}{ll} Node Constraint: $\mathbb{P}$ Term Constraint \\ \hline \hline Node Constraint = \\ & \{ c: Term Constraint \mid \forall \, x: TERM \bullet \forall \, g: c(x) \bullet x \in nodes(g) \, \} \\ \hline \end{tabular}
```

For example, *hasNode* is a node constraint.

```
\vdash hasNode \in NodeConstraint
```

The PIM application enforces the following node constraints. Both contact and associate nodes must be people.

• A node is a person when it has a foaf:Person as its RDF type.

For example, the Alice graph satisfies this constraint at the *alice*, *bob*, and *charlie* nodes.

```
\vdash alice\_graph \in is\_a\_person(alice) \land alice\_graph \in is\_a\_person(bob) \land alice\_graph \in is\_a\_person(charlie)
```

Both contact and associate nodes must have exactly one name.

• A node has one name when it is the subject of exactly one foaf:name triple.

For example, the Alice graph satisfies this constraint at the alice, bob, and charlie nodes.

```
\vdash alice_graph \in has_one_name(alice) \land alice_graph \in has_one_name(bob) \land alice_graph \in has_one_name(charlie)
```

Associate nodes must be known by exactly one node.

• A node is known by one node when it is the object of exactly one foaf: knows triple.

For example, the Alice graph satisfies this constraint at the bob and charlie nodes.

```
\vdash alice\_graph \in is\_known\_by\_one(bob) \land \\ alice\_graph \in is\_known\_by\_one(charlie)
```

A contact node must satisfy the following constraint.

• A contact is a person and has one name.

The Alice graph satisfies this constraint at the alice, bob, and charlie nodes.

```
\vdash alice\_graph \in contact\_nc(alice) \land \\ alice\_graph \in contact\_nc(bob) \land \\ alice\_graph \in contact\_nc(charlie)
```

An associate node must satisfy the following constraint.

• An associate is a person, has one name, and is known by one node.

The Alice graph satisfies this constraint at the bob and charlie nodes.

```
\vdash alice\_graph \in associate\_nc(bob) \land alice\_graph \in associate\_nc(charlie)
```

## 6 Shapes

In general, a shape is any description of the expected contents of a graph. In this article we deal only with shapes that describe graphs using the following structure. A shape is a structure that defines how to associate a set of node constraints with each node of a data graph in two steps.

- 1. Label each node of the graph with a set of node constraint names using a set of neighbour functions.
- 2. Map each name to a node constraint.

These steps are described in detail below.

Note that this definition of shape is very prescriptive about the labelling process but is completely independent of the details of both the neighbour functions and the node constraints. We speculate that the labelling process can be used to handle the recursive aspects of a wide variety of shape languages that differ only in their expressiveness for defining neighbour functions and node constraints. For example, Resource Shape 2.0 uses forward and backward path expressions as neighbour functions and has a small, fixed set of simple node constraints. SHACL-SPARQL allows node constraints to be expressed by arbitrary SPARQL 1.1 queries, but does not allow explicit recursion.

## 6.1 Labelling Data Graph Nodes with Constraint Names

A shape contains a set of named constraints. A constraint may refer to other constraints by name. This means that a constraint may refer directly or indirectly to itself, in which case the constraint is recursive.

Shapes themselves may be represented as RDF graphs, so it is tempting to use IRIs to name node constraints. However, we introduce a new given set of

names to emphasize that this set is logically independent of how we represent shapes.

```
[NAME]
```

For example, there are two distinct kinds of node in the PIM application, namely contact and associate.

```
contact, associate : NAME
contact \neq associate
```

• contact and associate are distinct names.

Since graphs appear in several roles, there is scope for confusion. To clarify its role, the graph to which constraints are being applied will be referred to as the *data graph*.

The part of a shape that defines how data graph nodes are labelled is a *neighbour graph*. A neighbour graph is a directed, labelled, multigraph whose nodes are names and whose arcs are labelled by neighbour functions.

```
NeighbourGraph names: \mathbb{F}\ NAME arcs: \mathbb{F}\ (NAME \times Neighbour \times NAME) arcs \subseteq names \times Neighbour \times names
```

• The nodes are names and the arcs are labelled by neighbour functions.

For example, in the PIM application, contacts are related to associates by the knows path expression, and associates are related to contacts by the  $is\_known\_by$  path expression.

```
pim\_ng: NeighbourGraph
pim\_ng.names = \{contact, associate\}
pim\_ng.arcs = \{(contact, knows, associate), (associate, is\_known\_by, contact)\}
```

A pointed neighbour graph consists of a neighbour graph and a base name in the graph.

• The base name belongs to the graph.

The base name of a pointed neighbour graph is also referred to as the *start* name or *focus* name, depending on the context.

For example, *contact* is the natural base name in the PIM application.

```
pim_png : PointedNeighbourGraph

pim_png.names = pim_ng.names

pim_png.arcs = pim_ng.arcs

pim_png.baseName = contact
```

A named node is pair of the form (x, a) where x is a data graph node and a is a node constraint name.

```
NamedNode == TERM \times NAME
```

For example, (alice, contact) is named node.

```
\vdash (alice, contact) \in NamedNode
```

A data graph g and a neighbour graph ng define a requires binary relation requires(g, ng) on the set of named nodes. The meaning of this relation is that if (x, a) <u>requires</u> (y, b) then whenever x must satisfy the constraints named by a then y must satisfy the constraints named by b.

• The named node (x, a) requires (y, b) when the neighbour graph includes an arc (a, q, b) and the node y can be reached from x by matching the neighbour function q in g.

For example, the requires relation for the Alice graph in the PIM application is as follows.

```
\vdash requires(alice\_graph, pim\_ng) = \\ \{(alice, contact) \mapsto (bob, associate), \\ (alice, contact) \mapsto (charlie, associate), \\ (bob, associate) \mapsto (alice, contact), \\ (charlie, associate) \mapsto (alice, contact)\}
```

A  $labelled\ graph$  is a data graph whose nodes are each labelled by a, possibly empty, set of names.

```
 \begin{array}{c} LabelledGraph \\ graph : Graph \\ names : \mathbb{F} \ NAME \\ label : TERM \ +\!\!\!+\!\!\!+ \mathbb{F} \ NAME \\ \\ label \in nodes(graph) \ -\!\!\!\!-\!\!\!\!- \mathbb{P} \ names \end{array}
```

• Each node in the graph is labelled by a set of names.

For example, the following is a labelled graph based on the Alice graph.

```
alice\_lg: LabelledGraph
alice\_lg.graph = alice\_graph
alice\_lg.names = \{contact, associate\}
alice\_lg.label = \{alice \mapsto \{contact\}, \\ bob \mapsto \{associate\}, \\ charlie \mapsto \{associate\}, \\ Alice \mapsto \varnothing, \\ Bob \mapsto \varnothing, \\ Charlie \mapsto \varnothing, \\ foaf\_Person \mapsto \varnothing\}
```

A pointed graph and a pointed neighbour graph determine a unique labelled graph. Intuitively, the labelling process starts by labelling the base node with the base name. Next, the neighbour graph is checked for arcs that begin at baseName, e.g. (baseName, q, b). For each such arc compute the set values(g, q, baseNode) and for each node y in this set, label y with b. Now repeat these steps taking y as the new base node and b as the new base name, but only do this once for each named node (y, b). Since there are a finite number of nodes and a finite number of names, this process always terminates.

```
LabelGraph \\ PointedGraph \\ PointedNeighbourGraph \\ LabelledGraph \\ \hline \\ \textbf{let } ng == \theta NeighbourGraph \bullet \\ \textbf{let } R == (requires(graph, ng))^* \bullet \\ label = (\lambda \ y : nodes(graph) \bullet \\ \{ \ b : names \mid (baseNode, baseName) \ \underline{R} \ (y,b) \ \}) \\ \hline
```

• The label of a node y is the set of names b such that the named node (y, b) is related to the base named node (baseNode, baseName) by R the reflexive-transitive closure of the requires relation requires(graph, shape).

- Note that this labelling process makes use of R, the reflexive-transitive closure of the requires relation. The use of R avoids difficulties associated with explicitly recursive definitions. We have, in effect, eliminated explicit recursion by computing a transitive closure of a finite binary relation.
- Note that the components of Labelled Graph are uniquely determined by the components of Pointed Graph and Pointed Neighbour Graph.

For example, the pointed graph  $alice\_pg$  and the pointed neighbour graph  $pim\_png$  uniquely determine the labelled graph  $alice\_lg$ .

```
 \begin{array}{l} \forall \, LabelGraph \mid \\ \theta PointedGraph = \, alice\_pg \, \land \\ \theta PointedNeighbourGraph = \, pim\_png \, \bullet \\ \theta LabelledGraph = \, alice\_lg \end{array}
```

## 6.2 Mapping Constraint Names to Node Constraints

The association of node constraints to graph nodes is given by a mapping.

```
Node Constraints \_
names : \mathbb{F} \ NAME
constraint : NAME \rightarrow Node Constraint
dom \ constraint = names
```

• Each name maps to a node constraint.

For example, the PIM application associates the following node constraints with names.

```
pim\_ncs : NodeConstraints
pim\_ncs.names = \{contact, associate\}
pim\_ncs.constraint = \{contact \mapsto contact\_nc, \\ associate \mapsto associate\_nc\}
```

- The PIM application has two kinds of nodes, named *contact* and *associate*.
- contact nodes must satisfy the contact\_nc node constraint.
- associate nodes must satisfy the associate\_nc node constraint.

A constrained graph is an assignment of a, possibly empty, set of node constraints to each node of the graph.

```
\begin{array}{c} ConstrainedGraph \\ graph: Graph \\ constraints: TERM \rightarrow \mathbb{F} \ NodeConstraint \\ \\ dom \ constraints = nodes(graph) \end{array}
```

• Each node of the data graph has a set of node constraints.

For example, the PIM application enforces the following constraints on the Alice graph.

```
alice\_cg: ConstrainedGraph
alice\_cg.graph = alice\_graph
alice\_cg.constraints = \{alice \mapsto \{contact\_nc\}, \\bob \mapsto \{associate\_nc\}, \\charlie \mapsto \{associate\_nc\}, \\Alice \mapsto \varnothing, \\Bob \mapsto \varnothing, \\Charlie \mapsto \varnothing, \\foaf\_Person \mapsto \varnothing\}
```

- alice must satisfy the contact node constraint.
- bob and charlie must satisfy the associate node constraint.
- There are no node constraints on the remaining nodes.

A constrained graph is valid if it satisfies all the constraints at each node.

```
ValidGraph
ConstrainedGraph
\forall x : nodes(graph) \bullet
\forall c : constraints(x) \bullet
graph \in c(x)
```

• A valid data graph satisfies each node constraint at each node.

For example, the constrained graph  $alice\_cg$  is valid.

```
\vdash alice\_cg \in ValidGraph
```

A mapping from nodes to names (LabelledGraph) and a mapping from names to node constraints (NodeConstraints) uniquely determines a mapping from nodes to node constraints (ConstraintedGraph).

```
ConstrainGraph

LabelledGraph

NodeConstraints

ConstrainedGraph

\forall x : nodes(graph) \bullet
constraints(x) =
\{ a : label(x) \bullet constraint(a) \}
```

- The set of node constraints at each node x of a labelled data graph is equal to the to the set node constraints named by the labels a at x.
- Note that the components of *ConstrainedGraph* are uniquely determined by the components of *LabelledGraph* and *NodeConstraints*.

For example, the Alice labelled graph  $alice\_lg$  and the PIM node constraints  $pim\_ncs$  uniquely determine the Alice constrained graph  $alice\_cg$ .

```
 \begin{split} \vdash \forall \ ConstrainGraph \mid \\ \theta LabelledGraph = alice\_lg \land \\ \theta NodeConstraints = pim\_ncs \bullet \\ \theta ConstrainedGraph = alice\_cg \end{split}
```

## 6.3 Shapes as Constraints

A shape consists of a neighbour graph and node constraints.

```
\_Shape = \_
NeighbourGraph
NodeConstraints
```

For example, the neighbour graph  $pim\_ng$  and the node constraints  $pim\_nc$  define a shape for the PIM application.

```
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}\hline pim\_shape: Shape\\ \hline \hline pim\_shape.names = \{contact, associate\}\\ \hline pim\_shape.arcs = pim\_ng.arcs\\ \hline pim\_shape.constraint = pim\_ncs.constraint\\ \hline \end{array}
```

A pointed shape consists of a pointed neighbour graph and node constraints.

```
__PointedShape ______
PointedNeighbourGraph
NodeConstraints
```

For example, the pointed neighbour graph  $pim\_png$ , which has base name contact, and the node constraints  $pim\_ncs$  define a pointed shape for the PIM application.

```
pim\_ps: PointedShape
pim\_ps.names = \{contact, associate\}
pim\_ps.baseName = contact
pim\_ps.arcs = pim\_ng.arcs
pim\_ps.constraint = pim\_ncs.constraint
```

A pointed data graph satisfies a pointed shape if the constrained graph produced by the composition of the labelling and constraining processes is valid.

```
___SatisfiesShape ______
PointedShape
PointedGraph
LabelGraph
ConstrainGraph
ValidGraph
```

- The constrained graph that results from the labelling and constraining processes must be valid.
- Note that the components of LabelGraph and ConstrainGraph are uniquely determined by the components of PointedShape and PointedGraph. The validity condition (ValidGraph) therefore determines a relation between PointedShape and PointedGraph. The pointed graph is said to satisfy the pointed shape.

For example, the pointed Alice graph satisfies the pointed PIM shape.

```
 \begin{array}{c} \vdash \exists_1 \: SatisfiesShape \: \bullet \\ \theta \: PointedShape \: = \: pim\_ps \: \land \\ \theta \: PointedGraph \: = \: alice\_pg \end{array}
```

A pointed shape determines a node constraint.

```
shape Constraint : Pointed Shape \longrightarrow Node Constraint
\forall ps : Pointed Shape; x : TERM \bullet
shape Constraint(ps)(x) =
\{ Satisfies Shape \mid ps = \theta Pointed Shape \land x = base Node \bullet graph \}
```

• Given a pointed shape ps, shapeConstraint(ps) is a node constraint. Given a node x, shapeConstraint(ps)(x) is the set of all graphs graph such that the pointed graph formed by using x as the base node satisfies ps.

For example, the pointed PIM shape defines a node constraint.

```
pim\_nc : NodeConstraint
pim\_nc = shapeConstraint(pim\_ps)
```

The *alice* node of the Alice graph satisfies this node constraint.

```
\vdash alice\_graph \in pim\_nc(alice)
```

# 7 Relation to Shape Languages

This section discusses how the preceding formalism relates to Resource Shape 2.0, ShEx, and SHACL.

#### 7.1 Relation to Resource Shape 2.0

Resource Shape 2.0 provides a small vocabulary for defining simple, commonly occurring node constraints such as property occurrence, range, and allowed values. These are uncontentious and will not be discussed further.

As mentioned above, Resource Shape 2.0 also allows recursive shapes via the property oslc:valueShape. The preceding formalism was motivated by Resource Shape 2.0 and, not surprisingly, provides a precise description of the meaning of recursive shapes in that language. The following listings illustrate the use of oslc:valueShape for the running example.

Listing 3 contains the resource shape for contacts.

```
# http://example.org/shapes/contact
1
   @prefix foaf: <http://xmlns.com/foaf/0.1/>
   @prefix oslc: <http://open-services.net/ns/core#> .
   @prefix xsd: <http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema#>.
5
   @base <http://example.org/shapes/> .
6
7
   <contact> a oslc:ResourceShape ;
8
       oslc:describes foaf:Person;
9
       oslc:property
10
           <contact#name> ,
11
           <contact#knows> .
12
   <contact#name> a oslc:Property ;
13
       oslc:name "name" ;
14
15
       oslc:occurs oslc:Exactly-one;
16
       oslc:propertyDefinition foaf:name ;
17
       oslc:valueType xsd:string .
18
19
   <contact#knows> a oslc:Property ;
20
       oslc:name "knows" ;
21
       oslc:occurs oslc:Zero-or-many;
22
       oslc:propertyDefinition foaf:knows ;
23
       oslc:range foaf:Person ;
24
       oslc:valueShape <associate> .
```

Listing 3: Resource shape for contacts

Listing 4 contains the resource shape for associates.

```
# http://example.org/shapes/associate
   @prefix foaf: <http://xmlns.com/foaf/0.1/> .
   @prefix oslc: <http://open-services.net/ns/core#> .
   @prefix xsd: <http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema#>.
   @base <http://example.org/shapes/> .
5
7
   <associate> a oslc:ResourceShape ;
8
       oslc:describes foaf:Person ;
9
       oslc:property
10
           <associate#name> ,
```

```
11
            <associate#isKnownBy> .
12
13
   <associate#name> a oslc:Property ;
14
        oslc:name "name" ;
15
        oslc:occurs oslc:Exactly-one;
16
        oslc:propertyDefinition foaf:name ;
17
        oslc:valueType xsd:string .
18
19
   <associate#isKnownBy> a oslc:Property ;
20
        oslc:name "isKnownBy" ;
21
        oslc:occurs oslc:Exactly-one;
22
        oslc:propertyDefinition foaf:knows ;
23
        oslc:isInverseProperty true ;
24
        oslc:range foaf:Person;
25
        oslc:valueShape <contact>
```

Listing 4: Resource shape for associates

This example illustrates recursive shapes since the contact shape refers to the associate shape and the associate shape refers to the contact shape. This apparent circularity would cause difficulty if contact and associate were each described as a constraint. However, using the preceding formalism, the composite shape consisting of both the contact and associate resource shapes is given a well-defined meaning.

In Resource Shape 2.0, neighbour functions are limited to forward and backward path expressions. In fact, backward path expressions were missing from the original OSLC Resource Shape language and are a proposed extension in Resource Shape 2.0. The proposed syntax for backward path expressions uses the optional property oslc:isInverseProperty but this design could be improved to provide better compatibility with downlevel clients, i.e. a downlevel client might silently ignore this new property and produce incorrect results.

The following SPARQL query extracts the neighbour graph arcs from a set of resource shapes. Each binding of (?a ?direction ?p ?b) corresponds to an arc (a, q, b) where q = forward(p) or q = backward(p).

```
prefix oslc: <http://open-services.net/ns/core#>
1
2
3
   select distinct ?a ?direction ?p ?b
4
   where {
5
        ?a a oslc:ResourceShape ;
6
            oslc:property ?prop .
7
        ?prop a oslc:Property ;
8
            oslc:propertyDefinition ?p ;
9
            oslc:valueShape ?b .
10
        optional {?prop oslc:isInverseProperty ?inverse}
11
        bind (if(bound(?inverse) && ?inverse,
            'backward', 'forward') as ?direction)
12
13
   }
```

Listing 5: Query for neighbour graph arcs

The result of running this query on the PIM resource shapes is given in Table 1.

a	direction	р	Ъ
<contact></contact>	"forward"	foaf:knows	<associate></associate>
<associate></associate>	"backward"	foaf:knows	<contact></contact>

Table 1: Result of query on PIM shape

The query correctly extracts the neighbour graph  $pim_ng$  of the PIM shape.

#### 7.2 Relation to ShEx

One major difference between Resource Shape 2.0 and ShEx is that ShEx allows the definition of much richer node constraints using regular expressions, disjunction, and other operations. ShEx also allows recursion via reference to named shapes, e.g. <code>@<UserShape></code>, which is referred to as the <code>ValueReference</code> feature.

Most features of Resource Shape 2.0 can be expressed in ShEx. The intersection of Resource Shape 2.0 and ShEx certainly includes the recursive aspects of Resource Shape 2.0 as expressed by oslc:valueShape. Therefore the preceding formalism applies to ShEx provided that ValueReference is used in a way that maps directly to Resource Shape 2.0.

However, ShEx allows a more permissive use ValueReference. For example, a ValueReference may appear inside GroupRule with cardinalities. It is not clear that this usage can be expressed using suitably defined neighbour functions.

### 7.3 Relation to SHACL

The W3C Data Shapes Working Groups is currently developing the SHACL specification. At the time of writing, there are three competing proposals. One proposal, influenced by SPIN, appears to treat recursion similarly to Resource Shape 2.0. A second proposal is a further development of ShEx. The third proposal, SHACL-SPARQL, takes a different approach by avoiding recursion entirely.

The ability to name and refer to shapes allows for more intuitive descriptions of the constraints on graphs. The absence of recursion in SHACL-SPARQL therefore detracts from its usefulness. However, since the formalism presented here gives a clear and unobjectionable meaning to a limited form of recursion, this capability could be added to SHACL-SPARQL.

### 8 Conclusion

The formalism presented here gives a precise meaning to recursive shapes as defined in Resource Shape 2.0.

This formalism is applicable to a subset of ShEx in which recursion is suitably limited. More analysis is required in order to determine if the unlimited form of recursion allowed in ShEx and its SHACL follow-on can be described using suitable neighbour functions, or if some new concept is required.

Finally, the limited form of recursion presented here could be added to the SHACL-SPARQL proposal to enhance its expressiveness.

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## Change History

- v1 May 19, 2015. Initial version.
- v2 June 17, 2015. Editorial improvements. Added Pollentini example.

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