Formulating RDF Constraints Generically and Validating RDF Data Out-Of-The-Box

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Abstract. More and more domains adopt Linked Data principles and seek for ways to ensure data quality by validating RDF data according to predefined constraints, particularly as many communities are used to have this functionality in the XML world. XML Schema is the standard language to formulate constraints on and to validate XML documents. For RDF, however, there are several candidates for languages to express constraints on RDF data - but no standard one meeting the majority of RDF validation use cases. We identified requirements to formulate constraints and to validate RDF data and mapped each requirement to a constraint type. The majority of these constraint types can be expressed in description logics providing their logical underpinning.

The **contributions** of this paper are: (1) we provide a basic terminology and classification system for RDF constraints, (2) we developed a vocabulary to describe constraints of any constraint type generically and specified its underlying semantics, (3) we show how to transform constraints, expressed by any constraint language α , into generically expressed constraints and into constraints represented by any other constraint language β and discuss why these transformations are useful, and (4) we explain how to overcome the necessity to implement the validation of each constraint type for diverse constraint languages.

Keywords: RDF Validation, RDF Constraints, RDF Validation Requirements, Linked Data, Semantic Web

1 Introduction

In 2013, the W3C organized the RDF Validation Workshop³, where experts from industry, government, and academia discussed first use cases for RDF constraint⁴ formulation and RDF data validation. In 2014, two working groups on RDF validation have been established to develop a language to express constraints on

³ http://www.w3.org/2012/12/rdf-val/

⁴ For simplicity reasons, we use the terms constraint types/constraints instead of RDF constraint types/RDF constraints in the rest of the paper

RDF data: the W3C RDF Data Shapes working group⁵ and the DCMI RDF Application Profiles task group⁶. Bosch and Eckert [1] collected the findings of these working groups and initiated a database of RDF validation requirements which is available for contribution at http://purl.org/net/rdf-validation. The intention is to collaboratively collect case studies, use cases, requirements, and solutions regarding RDF validation in a comprehensive and structured way. Bosch et al. identified 74 requirements to formulate constraints; each of them corresponding to a constraint type which may be expressed by at least one existing constraint language [3].

Recently, RDF validation as a research field gained speed due to common needs of data practitioners. A typical example is the library domain that codeveloped and adopted Linked Data principles very early. For libraries, the common description of resources are key business and they have a long tradition in developing and using interoperable data formats. While they embrace the openness of Linked Data and the data modeling principles provided by RDF, the data is still mostly represented in XML and this is unlikely to change soon. Among the reasons for the success of XML is the possibility to formulate fine-grained constraints to be met by the data and to validate the data according to these constraints using powerful systems like DTDs, XML Schemas, RELAX NG, or Schematron. A typical example is the definition of a library record describing a book. There are clear rules which information has to be available to describe a book properly (required fields, like a title), but also how information like an ISBN number is properly represented. Libraries seek to make their own data reusable for general purposes, but also to enrich and interlink their own data. Checking if third-party data meets own requirements or validating existing data according to new needs for a Linked Data application are among common use cases for RDF validation.

2 Motivation

There is not the one language meeting the majority of requirements to formulate constraints and validate RDF data. As there are more than 10 candidate languages with different syntaxes and semantics which can be used to express constraints and to validate RDF data, the language selection heavily depends on the individual use case. The five most promising constraint languages on being the standard are Description Set Profiles (DSP), Resource Shapes (ReSh), Shape Expressions (ShEx), the SPARQL Inferencing Notation (SPIN), and the Web Ontology Language (OWL 2). The idea behind this paper is to achieve complete RDF validation requirements coverage by representing any constraint type (corresponding to a requirement to formulate constraints and to validate RDF data) in a generic way using a lightweight vocabulary consisting of only a few terms (see section 3).

⁵ http://www.w3.org/2014/rds/charter

⁶ http://wiki.dublincore.org/index.php/RDF-Application-Profiles

Cardinality restrictions, e.g., can be expressed either generically (generic constraints) by description logics (DL) or specifically (specific constraints) by domain-specific constraint languages such as $OWL\ 2$, DSP, ShEx, ReSh, and SPIN. The knowledge representation formalism DL, with its well-studied theoretical properties, provides the foundational basis to express constraints in a generic way. For that reason, we map constraint types to DL statements. With minimum qualified cardinality restrictions (R-75, R-81)⁷, researchers from the library domain may restrict that publications must have at least one author which must be a person. This constraint can be represented generically (generic constraint) using DL (Publication $\sqsubseteq \geqslant 1$ author.Person), but also specifically (specific constraint) by multiple constraint languages:

```
# OWL 2:
    Publication
2
        a owl:Restriction :
3
        owl:minQualifiedCardinality 1 ;
4
        owl:onProperty author ;
5
        owl:onClass Person
6
    # ShEx:
8
9
    Publication { author @Person{1. } }
10
    # ReSh:
11
    Publication a rs:ResourceShape ; rs:property [
12
13
        rs:name "author" ; rs:propertyDefinition author ;
14
        rs:valueShape Person;
15
        rs:occurs rs:One-or-many; ] .
16
17
    # DSP:
        a dsp:DescriptionTemplate ;
18
19
        dsp:resourceClass Publication
20
        dsp:statementTemplate [ a dsp:NonLiteralStatementTemplate ;
            dsp:minOccur 1 ; dsp:maxOccur "infinity" ;
21
22
            dsp:property author;
            dsp:nonLiteralConstraint [ a dsp:NonLiteralConstraint ;
23
24
                dsp:valueClass Person ] ] ]
```

As each publication must have at least one author which must be a person and as the book The-Lord-Of-The-Rings is a publication (rdf:type(The-Lord-Of-The-Rings, Publication)), The-Lord-Of-The-Rings must have at least one author relationship to a person. Constraint violations are raised either if The-Lord-Of-The-Rings does not have any author relationship, or if The-Lord-Of-The-Rings has an author which is not a person (author(The-Lord-Of-The-Rings, Tolkien), rdf:type(Tolkien, Hobbit)), or if The-Lord-Of-The-Rings has an author for which no class is assigned (author(The-Lord-Of-The-Rings, Tolkien)). The data is valid, however, if The-Lord-Of-The-Rings is connected to a person via the property author (author(The-Lord-Of-The-Rings, Tolkien), rdf:type(Tolkien, Person)).

As there is no standard way to formulate constraints, semantically equivalent cardinality restrictions may be represented by multiple constraint languages with different syntax and semantics. This causes confusion and weakens the common

⁷ Requirements/constraint types are uniquely identified by alphanumeric technical identifiers like R-75-MINIMUM-QUALIFIED-CARDINALITY-ON-PROPERTIES

understanding between several parties about the semantics of particular constraints and therefore how to ensure high data quality. Thus, when choosing constraint language α to express a constraint of an arbitrary constraint type, it should be possible to transform this constraint into a semantically equivalent constraint formulated by any other constraint language β (see section 4). This is important in order to enhance the interoperability of constraint languages and to resolve ambiguities in the communication of RDF data producers and consumers, as constraint transformations avoid the necessity to understand several constraint languages.

We provide a validation environment (available at http://purl.org/net/rdfval-demo) which enables to validate RDF data according to constraints expressed by diverse constraint languages. The next step, however, is to extend the **RDF Validator** by validating constraints of any constraint type represented by any constraint language and to validate semantically equivalent *specific constraints*, expressed by different constraint languages, in exactly the same way, i.e., validation is independent from the used constraint language (see section 5). We are able to offer an already implemented validation mechanism for any *specific constraint* out-of-the-box, (1) if we implement the validation of the corresponding *generic constraint type* once and (2) if we transform semantically equivalent *specific constraints* into generically expressed constraints.

This paper aims to address two main **audiences**: (1) RDF data providers and consumers seeking how to ensure high quality (meta)data and thus for ways to enhance the interoperability and common understanding of constraints expressible by multiple constraint languages and (2) RDF practitioners thinking of how to provide aligned implementations for the validation of both existing an newly developed constraint languages. The main **contributions** of this paper are: (1) we provide a basic terminology and classification system for RDF constraints (section 3), (2) we developed a vocabulary to describe constraints of any RDF constraint type generically and specified its underlying semantics (section 3), (3) we show how to transform constraints, expressed by any constraint language α , into generically expressed constraints and into constraints represented by any other constraint language β and discuss why these transformations are useful (section), and (4) we explain how to overcome the necessity to implement the validation of each constraint type for multiple constraint languages (section 5).

3 A Vocabulary to Describe RDF Constraints Generically

In order to develop a vocabulary to describe constraints of any constraint type in a generic way, prerequisites are to specify the vocabulary's underlying semantics, to define the basic terminology for the formulation of constraints, and to classify them. The underlying semantics for RDF validation are UNA and CWA. RDF validation requires that different names represent different objects (unique name assumption (UNA)), whereas, $OWL\ 2$ is based on the non-unique name assumption (nUNA). A data property is functional (R-65) if for each individual

x, there can be at most one distinct literal y such that x is connected by the data property to y. When assuming UNA, the functional property title (funct (title)) causes a clash in case the book Huckleberry-Finn has more than one ti-tle (title(Huckleberry-Finn, The-Adventures-of-Huckleberry-Finn), title(Huckleberry-Finn, Die-Abenteuer-des-Huckleberry-Finn)). Assuming nUNA, however, reasoning concludes that the titles The-Adventures-of-Huckleberry-Finn and Die-Abenteuer-des-Huckleberry-Finn are the same ({The-Adventures-of-Huckleberry-Finn} = {Die-Abenteuer-des-Huckleberry-Finn}).

Reasoning in $OWL\ 2$ is based on the open-world assumption (OWA), i.e., a statement cannot be inferred to be false if it cannot be proved to be true which fits its primary design purpose to represent knowledge on the World Wide Web. As each book must have a title (Book $\sqsubseteq \exists$ title. \top) and Hamlet is a book (Book(Hamlet)), Hamlet must have at least one title. In an OWA setting, this axiom does not cause a constraint violation (even if there is no explicitly defined title), since there must be a title for this book which we may not know. On the other hand, RDF validation scenarios require the closed-world assumption (CWA), i.e., a statement is inferred to be false if it cannot be proved to be true. Hence, classical constraint languages are based on the CWA where constraints need to be satisfied only by named individuals which yields in return to a constraint violation. This ambiguity in semantics is one of the main reasons why $OWL\ 2$ has not been adopted as a standard constraint language for RDF validation in the past. Thus, in case we want to use $OWL\ 2$ as a constraint language, we adopt the same semantics than for RDF validation in general.

A constraint language is a language which is used to formulate constraints. The W3C Data Shapes working group defines RDF constraint as a component of a schema what needs to be satisfied⁸. We identified four dimensions to classify constraint types:

- Universality: specific constraints vs. generic constraints
- Complexity: simple constraints vs. complex constraints
- Context: property constraints vs. class constraints
- DL Expressivity: constraints expressible in DL vs. constraints not expressible in DL

As there are already five promising constraint languages, our purpose is not to invent a new constraint language. We rather developed a very simple lightweight vocabulary (only three classes, three object properties, and three data properties) which is universal enough to describe constraints of any constraint type expressible by any constraint language (see the conceptual model in figure 1). We call this vocabulary the RDF Constraints Vocabulary $(RDF-CV)^9$.

Constraints can be expressed either generically ($generic\ constraints$) by the RDF-CV or specifically ($specific\ constraints$) by domain-specific constraint languages. As the RDF-CV describes constraints generically, the vocabulary does not distinguish constraints according to the dimension universality. The majority of the constraint types can be expressed in DL. In contrast,

Thomas: feedback from Erman: the major problem is semantics. OWL basically work in different semantics than others.

And their semantics are formal. Closed world vs. Open World is also a part of this. / Thomas: I think your issue is tackled now?

Thomas: Erman thinks formal generic semantics should be defined / Thomas: what do you mean by this? / I inserted these 2 paragraphs about RDF validation semantics. Are your concerns resolved now?

⁸ https://www.w3.org/2014/data-shapes/wiki/Glossary

⁹ Available at: https://github.com/boschthomas/RDF-Constraints-Vocabulary

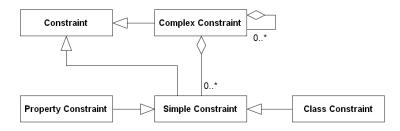


Fig. 1. RDF Constraints Vocabulary (RDF-CV) - conceptual model

there are constraint types which cannot be expressed in DL, but are also representable by the RDF-CV (see section 6). Complex constraints encompass $simple\ constraints$ (atomic constraints) and/or further $complex\ constraints$, i.e. DL statements representing $complex\ constraints$ are created out of DL statements standing for atomic and composed constraints (if expressible in DL). Simple constraints may be applied to either properties (property constraints) or classes (class constraints). The RDF-CV does not contain any terms standing for $simple\ and\ complex\ constraints$, since $context\ classes$ of $simple\ constraints$ are just reused within $complex\ constraints$ (simple $constraints\ associated\ with\ context\ classes\ must\ hold for individuals of these <math>context\ classes$). As a consequence, the distinction of $property\ and\ class\ constraints$ is sufficient to describe $constraints\ of\ all\ possible\ constraint\ types$.

3.1 Simple Constraints (Expressible in DL)

Sub-classes of *simple constraints* are *property constraints* and *class constraints* (see the *RDF-CV* implementation model in figure 2). For both *property* and *class constraints* a *context class*, a list of *classes*, the *constraining element*, and the *constraining value* can be stated. Lists of *left* and *right properties* can only be specified for *property constraints*.

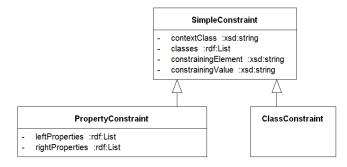


Fig. 2. RDF Constraints Vocabulary (RDF-CV) - implementation model

A simple constraint holds for all individuals of a **context class**. Consider, e.g., the following minimum qualified cardinality restriction on the object prop-

erty *author*, which restricts *publications* to have at least one *author* which is a *person*:

$Publication \sqsubseteq \geqslant 1 author. Person$

The cardinality restriction is a constraint on the property author and is therefore classified as a property constraint which holds for all individuals of the class Publication (see table 1 for the mapping to RDF-CV):

c. type	context class	left p. list	right p. list	classes	c. element	c. value	
property	Publication	author	-	Person	≥	1	
Table 1. Property Constraint - Cardinality Restriction							

The *constraining element* indicates the actual type of constraint like DL concept and role constructors, (in)equality, and further keywords for constraint types which cannot be expressed in DL (e.g. regular expressions and constraining facets). In some cases, a constraint is only complete when in addition to the *constraining element* a *constraining value* is stated. The cardinality restriction $\geqslant 1$ author. Person, e.g., constructs an anonymous class of all individuals having at least one *author* relationship to *persons*. The *constraining element* of this property constraint is the DL at-least restriction \geqslant and the *constraining value* is 1. Simple constraints may refer to a list of *classes*. The qualified cardinality restriction above, e.g., refers to the class Person, i.e. restricts the objects of the property author to be of the class Person.

For property constraints, left and right property lists are specified. The assignment of properties to these lists happens relative to the constraining element - which may be an operator (e.g., \sqsubseteq in case of object property paths). Object Property Paths (R-55; also called complex role inclusion axioms in DL) express that, if an individual x is connected by a sequence of object properties with an individual y, then x is also related to y by a particular object property. As Stephen-Hawking is the author of the book A-Brief-History-Of-Time (authorOf(Stephen-Hawking, A-Brief-History-Of-Time)) whose genre is Popular-Science (genre(A-Brief-History-Of-Time, Popular-Science)), the following object property path infers that Stephen-Hawking is an author of the genre Popular-Science (authorOfGenre(Stephen-Hawking, Popular-Science)):

$authorOf \circ genre \sqsubseteq authorOfGenre$

Thus, when mapped to the RDF-CV (see table 2), the properties authorOf and genre are on the left side of the $constraining\ element\ \sqsubseteq$, and the property authorOfGenre is on the right side:

c. type	context class	left p. list	right p. list	classes	c. element	c. value	
property	Τ	authorOf, genre	authorOfGenre	T	=	-	
Table 2. Property Constraint - Object Property Paths							

3.2 Simple Constraints (Not Expressible in DL)

There are simple constraints which cannot be expressed in DL such as literal pattern matching, literal value comparison, literal ranges, default values, and language tag cardinality [3].

Literal pattern matching (R-44) restricts literals to match given patterns. The following universal restriction, e.g., ensures that books can only have valid ISBN identifiers, i.e., strings that match a given regular expression:

```
Book \sqsubseteq \forall identifier.ISBN
```

Even though, the restriction of the datatype ISBN cannot be expressed in DL, $OWL\ 2\ DL$ can be used to express the literal pattern matching constraint:

```
ISBN a RDFS:Datatype ; owl:equivalentClass [ a RDFS:Datatype ;
owl:omDatatype xsd:string ;
owl:withRestrictions ([ xsd:pattern "^\d{9}[\d|X]$" ])] .
```

The first OWL 2 axiom explicitly declares ISBN to be a datatype. The second OWL 2 axiom defines ISBN as an abbreviation for a datatype restriction on xsd:string. The datatype ISBN can be used just like any other datatype like in the universal restriction above. The literal pattern matching constraint validates ISBN literals according to the regular expression causing constraint violations for triples which do not not match. In table 3, the simple constraint (literal pattern matching) and the complex constraint (universal restriction) are mapped to the RDF-CV:

c. type	context class	left p. list	right p. list	classes	c. element	c. value	
property	Book	identifier	-	ISBN	A	-	
class	ISBN	-	-	xsd:string	regex	'^\d{9}[\d X]\$'	
Table 3. Simple Constraint (Not Expressible in DL)							

The *literal pattern matching* constraint type introduces the new *constraining element regex*, for which a validation mechanism has to be implemented. Validation has to be implemented once for each *generic constraint type* which is not expressible in DL.

3.3 Complex Constraints

Complex constraints are composed out of simple constraints and/or complex constraints. Exclusive or is a logical operation that outputs true whenever both inputs differ (one is true, the other is false). The complex constraint context-specific exclusive or of property groups (R-13) restricts individuals of given classes to have properties of only one of multiple mutually exclusive property groups. Publications, e.g., are either identified by an ISBN and a title (for books) or by an ISSN and a title (for periodical publications), but it should not be possible to assign both identifiers to a given publication, which can be expressed in ShEx as follows:

```
Publication {
    ( isbn string , title string ) |
    ( issn string , title string ) }
```

As the The-Great-Gatsby is a publication (rdf:type(The-Great-Gatsby, Publication)) having an ISBN number (isbn(The-Great-Gatsby, '978-0241965672')) and a title (title(The-Great-Gatsby, 'The Great Gatsby')) and not an additional ISSN identifier, the The-Great-Gatsby is a valid publication. The complex constraint is mapped to the RDF-CV (see table 4) and expressed in DL as follows:

```
\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{Publication} \sqsubseteq (\neg E \sqcap F) \sqcup (E \sqcap \neg F) \\ \qquad \qquad E \equiv A \sqcap B \\ \qquad \qquad F \equiv C \sqcap D \\ A \sqsubseteq \geqslant 1 \text{ isbn.string } \sqcap \leqslant 1 \text{ isbn.string } \\ B \sqsubseteq \geqslant 1 \text{ title.string } \sqcap \leqslant 1 \text{ itsle.string } \\ C \sqsubseteq \geqslant 1 \text{ issn.string } \sqcap \leqslant 1 \text{ issn.string } \\ D \sqsubseteq \geqslant 1 \text{ title.string } \sqcap \leqslant 1 \text{ title.string } \end{array}
```

c. type	context class	left p. list	right p. list	classes	c. element	c. value			
class	Publication	-	-	$\neg E \sqcap F, E \sqcap \neg F$		-			
class	¬Е ⊓ F	-	-	¬E, F	П	-			
class	E⊓⊸F	-	-	E, ¬F	П	-			
class	¬E	-	-	E	_	-			
class	E	-	-	A, B	П	-			
class	¬F	-	-	F	_	-			
class	F	-	-	C, D	П	-			
class	A	-	-	A1, A2	П	-			
property	A1	isbn	-	string	≽	1			
property	A2	isbn	-	string	≤	1			
class	В	-	-	B1, B2	П	-			
property	B1	title	-	string	≽	1			
property	B2	title	-	string	≤	1			
class	C	-	-	C1, C2	П	-			
property	C1	issn	-	string	≽	1			
property	C2	issn	-	string	≤	1			
class	D	-	-	D1, D2	П	-			
property	D1	title	-	string	≽	1			
property	D2	title	-	string	≤	1			
	Table 4. Complex Constraints								

Complex constraints are composed of many other complex (e.g. minimum and maximum qualified cardinality restrictions) and simple constraints (e.g. constraints on sets). As exact (un)qualified cardinality restrictions (=n) and exclusive or (XOR) are frequently used complex constraints, we propose using them as simple constraints - in terms of syntactic sugar. As a consequence, the context-specific exclusive or of property groups constraint above is represented as a generic constraint more intuitively and concisely (see table 5).

c. type	context class	left p. list	right p. list	classes	c. element	c. value
class	Publication	-	-	E, F	XOR	
class	E	-	-	A, B	П	
class	F	-	-	C, D	П	
property	A	isbn	-	string	=	1
property	В	title	-	string	=	1
property	C	issn	-	string	=	1
property	D	title	-	string	=	1

Table 5. Simplified Complex Constraints

3.4 Complex Constraints as Simple Constraints

Almost 15 percent of all constraint types are *complex constraints* which can be simplified and therefore formulated as *simple constraints* when using them in terms of syntactic sugar (see section 6).

There are three forms of OWL RBox axioms: role inclusions, equivalence and disjointness. OWL provides a variety of other axiom types: role transitivity, symmetry, asymmetry, reflexivity and irreflexivity. These axiom types are sometimes considered as basic axiom types in DL - using some suggestive notation such as Trans(ancestorOf) to express that the role ancestorOf is transitive. Such axioms, however, are just syntactic sugar - all role characteristics can be expressed using the basic features of DL. The irreflexive object properties constraint type (R-60) restricts that no individual is connected by a given object property to itself [4]. With the following irreflexive object property constraint, e.g., one can state that individuals cannot be authors of themselves:

$$\top \sqsubseteq \neg \exists author Of. Self$$

When mapped to the RDF-CV (see table 6), the complex constraint aggregates three simple constraints (one property and two class constraints):

c. type	context class	left p. list	right p. list	classes	c. element	c. value
property	∃ authorOf.Self	marriedTo	-	Self	3	-
class	¬∃ authorOf.Self	-	-	∃ authorOf.Self	_	-
class	T	-	-	$ \top$, $\neg \exists$ authorOf.Self	⊑	-

Table 6. Irreflexive Object Properties as Complex Constraints

When using the *OWL RBox axiom role irreflexivity* in terms of syntactic sugar, the *complex constraint* can be expressed more concisely in form of a *simple property constraint* with exactly the same semantics (see table 7):

c. type	context class	left p. list	right p. list	classes	c. element	c. value
property	Τ	authorOf	-	-	irreflexive	-
Table 7. Irreflexive Object Properties as Simple Constraints						

The primary key properties constraint type (R-226) is often useful to declare a given (datatype) property as the "primary key" of a class, so that a system can enforce uniqueness. Books, e.g., are uniquely identified by their ISBN number, i.e., the property isbn is inverse functional (funct isbn), which can be represented by the RDF-CV in form of a $complex\ constraint$ (see table 8):

c. type	context class	left p. list	right p. list	classes	c. element	c. value
property	Т	isbn [—]	isbn [—]	-	inverse	-
property	Book	isbn [—]	-	-	functional	-

Table 8. Primary Key Properties as Complex Constraints

Keys, however, are even more general, i.e., a generalization of inverse functional properties [6]. A key can be a datatype, an object property, or a chain of properties. For these generalization purposes, as there are different sorts of keys, and as keys can lead to undecidability, DL is extended with key boxes and a special construct keyfor [5]. When using the keyfor DL construct (isbn keyfor Book), the complex constraint can be expressed by only one simple property constraint (see table 9 for the mapping to the RDF-CV).

c. type	context class	left p. list	right p. list	classes	c. element	c. value
property	Book	isbn	-	-	keyfor	-
Table 9. Primary Key Properties as Simple Constraints						

4 How to Improve the Understandability of Constraints

RDF data providers have to ensure that their data conforms to constraints which are explicitly defined within contracts between data providers and consumers. As there is no standard way to express constraints, they may be represented by a variety of constraint languages 10 - each of them different in syntax and semantics. To overcome the necessity to understand diverse constraint languages, we propose to transform any specific constraint (sc_{α}) (expressed by any constraint language α) into any other specific constraint (sc_{β}) (expressed by any other constraint language β) - in case they have the same semantics. We use the RDF-CV to intermediately represent constraints in a generic way for these transformations. By defining mappings $(m(sc_{\alpha}), m(sc_{\beta}))$ between equivalent specific constraints and the corresponding generic constraint (gc) we are able to convert them automatically:

$$gc = m(sc_{\alpha}) = m(sc_{\beta})$$

We do not need to define mappings between each pair of semantically equivalent specific constraints. Let's assume we are able to express a particular constraint type by 5/6/7/8/9/10 constraint languages. Without the intermediate generic constraint, we would have to define for each constraint type 1 mapping for each pair of specific constraints (expressed by different constraint languages) - that are $\binom{n}{2}$ mappings (10/15/21/28/36/45 mappings). With an intermediate generic constraint, however, we only need to define for each constraint type n mappings (1 mapping for each specific constraint) from n specific constraints to the corresponding generic constraint (5/6/7/8/9/10 mappings).

¹⁰ Candidates for constraint languages are, i.a., SPIN, OWL 2, DSP, ShEx, ReSh, Bibframe, DQTP, Pellet ICV, RDFUnit, SPARQL, and Stardog ICV

Publication $\equiv \exists$ publisher.Publisher

The existential quantification (R-86) above restricts publications to have at least one publisher and can be expressed by at least 10 different constraint languages¹¹:

```
# OWL 2:
    [ a owl:Restriction ;
2
3
      owl:onProperty publisher ;
      owl:someValuesFrom Publisher;
      rdfs:subClassOf Publication ] .
    ASK { ?x a Publication . FILTER NOT EXISTS { ?x publisher [ a Publisher ] } . }
9
    # ShEx:
10
    Publication {
11
        publisher @Publisher{1,} }
12
13
14
    descriptionTemplate a dsp:DescriptionTemplate ;
15
16
        dsp:resourceClass Publication
        dsp:statementTemplate [ a dsp:NonLiteralStatementTemplate ;
17
18
            dsp:minOccur 1 ; dsp:maxOccur "infinity" ;
19
            dsp:property publisher ;
20
            dsp:nonLiteralConstraint [ a dsp:NonLiteralConstraint ;
21
                dsp:valueClass Publisher ] ] .
22
23
    # ReSh:
24
    Publication a rs:ResourceShape ; rs:property [
25
        rs:propertyDefinition :publisher ;
26
        rs:valueShape :Publisher
27
        se:min 1; se:maxundefined true; ].
28
    # SPIN:
29
30
    CONSTRUCT {
        _:cv a spin:ConstraintViolation; spin:violationRoot?subject;
31
             rdfs:label ?violationMessage ; spin:violationPath ?property
    { ?subject a ?classSubject . FILTER NOT EXISTS { ?subject ?property [ a ?classObject ] } . }
```

The DL statement Publication $\equiv \exists$ publisher. Publisher is mapped to a (simple) generic constraint conforming to the RDF-CV (see table 10). Then, one mapping $(m(sc_{OWL2}), m(sc_{ReSh}), m(sc_{ShEx}), ...)$ is defined for each specific constraint $(sc_{OWL2}, sc_{ReSh}, sc_{ShEx}, ...)$ to the corresponding generic constraint (gc).

5 How to Provide Constraint Validation Out-Of-The-Box

SPARQL is generally seen as the method of choice to validate RDF data according to certain constraints, although, it is not ideal for their formulation. In

¹¹ OWL 2, SPARQL, ShEx, Bibframe, DSP, ReSh, SPIN, DQTP, Pellet IVC, and Stardog ICV

contrast, OWL 2, DSP, ReSh, and ShEx constraints are comparatively easy to understand. We use SPIN as basis to define a validation environment in which the validation of any constraint language 12 can be implemented by representing them in SPARQL (the implementation can be tested at http://purl.org/net/rdfval-demo). The SPIN engine checks for each resource if it satisfies all constraints, which are associated with the classes assigned to the resource, and generates a result RDF graph containing information about all constraint violations [2]. This way, we are able to offer RDF data validation according to all specific constraints (expressed by any constraint language) by defining mappings from each specific constraint to SPIN. We already specified mappings to SPIN for all $OWL\ 2$ and DSP^{13} constructs and for some ReSh and ShEx constructs. As constraint languages differ in syntax and semantics it is rather difficult to ensure that semantically equivalent specific constraints always lead to identical validation results.

We do not have to map each specific constraint to SPIN and we get identical validation results for semantically equivalent specific constraints (expressed by different constraint languages), (1) if we map semantically equivalent specific constraints to the corresponding generic constraint and (2) if we map the generic constraint to SPIN. As a consequence, we only have to define one SPIN mapping for each constraint type corresponding to an RDF validation requirement. 19 of the overall 74 identified constraint types can be expressed by at least four constraint languages [3]. This means that there must be 76 (four for each constraint type) implementations to validate RDF data according to 76 specific constraints - instead of only 19 implementations (one for each generic constraint) leading to identical validation results.

Within the *RDF Validator*¹⁴, we define one SPIN construct template for each generic constraint and therefore constraint type. A SPIN construct template contains a SPARQL CONSTRUCT query which generates constraint violation triples (spin:ConstraintViolation) indicating the subject (spin:violationRoot) and the properties (spin:violationPath) causing constraint violations, and the reason why constraint violations have been raised (rdfs:label). A SPIN construct template creates constraint violation triples if all triple patterns within the SPARQL WHERE clause match.

Publication $\equiv \forall$ author. Person

According to the universal quantification (R-91) above, authors of publications must be persons. The SPARQL CONSTRUCT query for the constraint type universal quantification is shown below:

 $^{^{12}}$ The only limitation is that constraint languages must be represented in RDF

 $^{^{13}}$ SPIN mappings: https://github.com/boschthomas/rdf-validation/tree/master/SPIN

 $^{^{14}}$ For details about the validation environment see $\left[2\right]$

```
WHERE {

[ a gclo:PropertyConstraint;
    gclo:contextClass?cc;
    gclo:leftProperties (?lp1);
    gclo:classes (?c1);
    gclo:constrainingElement "universal quantification"].

?subject a ?cc.
    ?subject ?lp1 ?o.

FILTER NOT EXISTS { ?o a ?c1 }. }
```

We provide a mapping from the RDF-CV to $SPIN^{15}$ in order to automatically validate RDF data complying with each type of generic constraint (simple, complex, property, and class constraints).

6 Evaluation

We evaluated to which extend the five most promising constraint languages on being the standard fulfill each of the overall 74 requirements to formulate RDF constraints; each of them corresponding to a constraint type. We recently published a technical report 16 (serving as appendix of this paper) in which we explain each constraint type in detail and give examples for each (represented by different constraint languages). The technical report also contains mappings to DL to logically underpin each constraint type and to determine which DL constructs are needed to express each constraint type [3]. If a constraint type can be expressed in DL, we added the mapping to DL and to the generic constraint conforming to the RDF-CV. In contrast, if a constraint type cannot be expressed in DL, we only added the mapping to the generic constraint. This way, we prove that each constraint type can be mapped to a generic constraint and therefore be represented generically by means of the RDF-CV. Table 11 displays the classification of constraint types according to the dimensions context, complexity, and DL expressivity:

Classes of Constraint Types	#	%
Property Constraints	48	64.86
Class Constraints	17	22.96
Property and Class Constraints	9	12.16
Simple Constraints	46	62.16
Simple Constraints (Syntactic Sugar)	10	13.51
Complex Constraints	18	24.32
DL Expressible	51	68.92
DL Not Expressible	23	31.08
Total	74	100

Table 11. Evaluation

Constraint types can be classified as *property constraints* and *class constraints* (*context*). Two thirds of the total amount of constraint types are *property*

 $^{^{15}}$ RDF-CV to SPIN: https://github.com/boschthomas/RDF-CV-2-SPIN

 $^{^{16}}$ Available at: $\label{eq:http://arxiv.org/abs/1501.03933} \text{ Available at: } \text{http://arxiv.org/abs/1501.03933}$

constraints (e.g., R-86: existential quantification and R-91: universal quantification), one fifth are class constraints (e.g., R-30/37: allowed values for objects/literals), and approx. 10% are composed of both property and class constraints (e.g., R-13: context-specific exclusive or of property groups). According to the dimesion complexity, constraint types can be either atomic (simple constraints) or complex (complex constraints), i.e., created out of simple and/or complex constraints. Almost two thirds of the constraint types are simple constraints (e.g., R-55: object property paths), a quarter are complex constraints (e.g., R-45: ranges of literal values), and nearly 15 percent are complex constraints which can be formulated as simple constraints when using them in terms of syntactic sugar (e.g., R-81/75/82/76/80/74: (un)qualified cardinality restrictions). Constraint types can either be expressible in DL or not (DL expressivity). The majority - nearly 70% - of the overall constraint types are expressible in DL. Literal pattern matching (R-44) is an example of a constraint type which cannot be represented in DL, but can also be represented generically by means of the RDF-CV. Altogether, most of the constraint types are simple constraints on properties which are expressible in DL. Thus, the majority of constraint types are directly and relatively easy formulated in form of simple constraints which can be mapped to equivalent DL constructs.

7 Related Work

8 Conclusion and Future Work

It is part of future work (1) to extend the *RDF Validator* by creating *generic constraints* automatically according to inputs of domain experts who may not be familiar with the formulation of constraints, (2) to offer bidirectional transformations between all *specific constraints* (expressed by all existing constraint languages) and the corresponding *generic constraints*, and (3) to provide translations between semantically equivalent *specific constraints* (expressed by any constraint language) by using *generic constraints* as an intermediate transformation step.

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