

MASTER'S THESIS

CONFIGURABLE SCHEMA-AWARE RDF DATA INPUT FORMS

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Abstract

Kurzfassung

Kurzfassung auf Deutsch

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 RDFBones Project

The master thesis is written in the frame of the project called *RDFBones*. The goal of the project is to develop a data standard, as well a web application for documenting research activity related to biological anthropology. The challenge is that in anthropology each institute has different set of skeletal remains and have different research interest and scopes. So to achieve that the developed application can be used by various cases it has to be extensible. For this reason RDF data model is applied, since it is more suitable for such purposes than relational data model.[4] Building web application is large effort, therefore the software is not developed from scratch, but an existing Semantic Web application framework, called VIVO is used. The advantage of VIVO is that it has a capability to adapt its interface to the ontology, which is highly desirable feature for our project.

1.2 Goal of the thesis

The problem of data creation through web application can be divided into two main parts. The first is the layout of the interface, that user interacts with, and the second is the dataset that has to be created by the process. The thesis work incorporates the design of a data model that is suitable for the declarative definition of the whole input problems, as well the development of software modules both for the client and server side that is capable to

operate such high-level definition. The goal is achieve a such web application framework that can be employed for various problems without coding, so that the system can be developed rapidly by scientist without programming knowledge.

1.3 Thesis outline

The second chapter contains the background information, that is necessary to understand the problem the thesis aims to solve. The first two subsection handles the RDF data model and the ontologies applied in the project, while the third section is about the basics of the web applications.

The third chapter presents the problem statement. The first section discusses the scheme of the data that has to be created to document anthropological research, while the second section show what does it mean in terms of the web application programming.

The fourth and the fifth chapter are describing the proposed solution for the problem. The fourth chapter outlines the higher-level modeling of the application, and fifth in turn describes the how the implemented framework can operate upon the declarative definition.

The last, sixth chapter covers the conclusion and the evaluation of the achieved system, and present the further potential in the idea. Figure 1.1 illustrates the structure of the thesis, where the blue denotes the chapter with conceptual content, and the yellow in turn the ones with practical content.

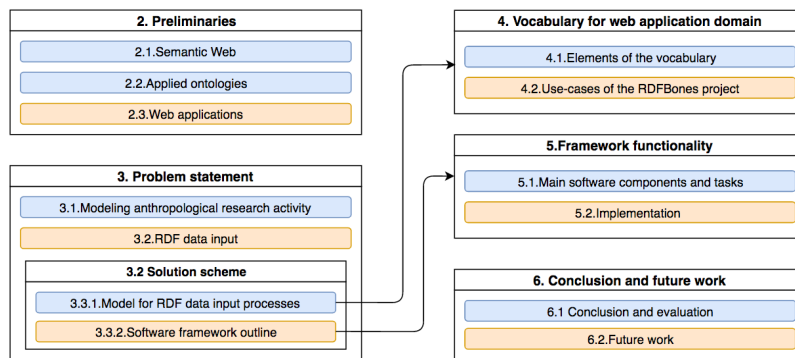


Figure 1.1: Structure of the chapters

Chapter 2

Preliminaries

2.1 Semantic Web

2.1.1 RDF

In RDF, abbreviation for Resource Description Framework, the information of the web is represented by means of triples. Each triple consists of a subject, predicate and object. The set of triples constitute to an RDF graph, where the subject and object of the triples are the nodes, the predicates are the edges of the graph. An RDF triple is called as well statement, which asserts that there is a relationship defined by the predicate, between subject and the object. The subjects and the objects are RDF resources. A resource can be either an IRI (Internationalized Resource Identifier) or a literal or a blank node (discussed later). A resource represents any physical or abstract entity, while literals hold data values like string, integer or datum [5].

Basically there are two types of triples, the one that links two entities to each other, and the other that links a literal to an entity. The former expresses a relationship between two entities, and the latter in turn assign an attribute to the entity. Common practice is to represent IRI with the notation prefix:suffix, where the prefix represents the namespace, and the expression means the concatenation of the namespace denoted by the prefix, with the suffix. This convention makes the RDF document more readable. The namespace of RDF is the `http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#`, whose prefix is in most cases "rdf". This is defined on the following

way:

```
@prefix rdf:    <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
```

Listing 2.1: Prefix notation in RDF

Literals are strings consisting of two elements. The first is the lexical form, which is the actual value, and the second is the data type IRI. RDF uses the data types from XML schema. The prefix (commonly xsd) is the following :

```
@prefix xsd:    <http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema#>
```

Listing 2.2: XML Schema prefix

So a literal value in RDF looks as follows:

```
"Some literal value"^^xsd:string
```

Listing 2.3: String value as RDF data

The RDF vocabulary provides some built-in IRIs. The two most important are, the `rdf:type` property, and the `rdf:Property` class. The meaning of the triples, where the predicate is the property `rdf:type` is that the subject IRI is the instance of the class denoted by the object. Therefore the following statement holds in the RDF vocabulary:

```
rdf:type      rdf:type      rdf:Property
```

Listing 2.4: `rdf:type` is a property

It is maybe confusing that an IRI appears in a triple as subject and predicate as well, but we will see by the RDFS vocabulary that it is inevitable to express rules of the language. To be able to represent information about a certain domain, it is necessary to extend the RDF vocabulary with properties and classes. The classes will be discussed in the next section, but here it is explained how custom properties can be defined. The namespace of the example is the following:

```
@prefix example: <http://example.org/#>
```

Listing 2.5: Example prefix

The example dataset intends to express information about people, which university they attend and how old are them. To achieve this two properties are needed:

```
eq:attends    rdf:type    rdf:Property .  
eq:age        rdf:type    rdf:Property .
```

Listing 2.6: Example properties

The actual data about a person:

```
eg:JanKlein   eq:attends   eq:UniversityOfFreiburg .  
eg:JanKlein   eq:age       "21"^^xsd:integer
```

Listing 2.7: Example prefix

2.1.2 RDF Schema

The previous section gave an insight into RDF world by showing how can information stored by means of triples. However the explanation did not mention that each RDF dataset has to have scheme, which is also called ontology. The ontology describes the set of properties and classes and how are they are related to each other. RDFS provides a mechanism to define such ontologies using RDF triples. The most important elements of the RDFS vocabulary can be seen on the following image.

The two most important classes in the RDFS vocabulary is the `rdfs:Class` and the `rdfs:Resource`. The `rdfs:Class` is class, because it is the instance of itself, and the same way the `rdfs:Resource` is a class. The `rdf:Property` and the `rdfs:Literal` are both classes as well. The `rdfs:domain`, `rdfs:range`, `rdfs:subPropertyOf` and `rdfs:subClassOf` are properties. Important to note that these properties are subjects and predicates in the same time in the RDFS vocabulary graph. Also they describe themselves like `rdf:type`. The properties `rdfs:domain` and `rdfs:range` describe for the property the type



Figure 2.3: RDFS domain and range definition

above the range and domain definitions. These constraints are called restrictions. Restrictions are conventionally expressed by blank nodes. Blank nodes do not have IRIs, but it is defined through the triples in which they participate as a subject. For example a restriction stating that the instances of the class `eg:FootballTeam` can build a triple through the `eg:hasPlayer` property only with the instances of `eg:FootballPlayer` class can be expressed the following way:

```
eg:FootballTeam rdfs:subClassOf [
  rdf:type      owl:Restriction ;
  owl:onProperty    eg:hasPlayer ;
  owl:allValuesFrom eg:FootballPlayer .
]
```

Listing 2.8: OWL restriction in N3 format

`owl:Restriction` is class and `owl:onProperty` and `owl:allValuesFrom` are properties. It can be seen that class, on which the restriction applies is the subclass of the restriction blank node. Furthermore OWL is capable of expressing qualified cardinality restriction. For example the statement that a basketball team has to have exactly five players, look as follows in OWL:

```
PREFIX rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
PREFIX eg: <http://example.org>

eg:BasketballTeam rdfs:subClassOf [
  rdf:type owl:Restriction ;
  owl:onProperty    eg:hasPlayer ;
  owl:onClass      eg:Player ;
```

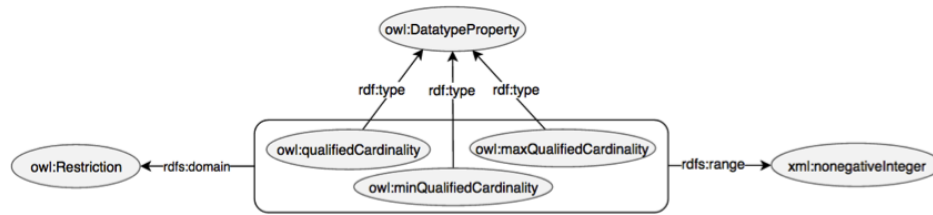



Figure 2.6: Properties for qualified cardinalities

```

SELECT ?player
WHERE {
    ?player    rdf:type    eg:FootballPlayer .
}

```

Listing 2.10: SPARQL Query I.

In the example the query consist of only one triple. The subject is a variable and the predicate and the object are constant. Therefore the triple store looks all the triples and checks the predicate is `rdf:type` and the object is `eg:FootballPlayer`. It is well possible to not just ask the IRI of the players but further information by adding additional triples to the query in order to ask the name for example of the player:

```

SELECT ?player ?name
WHERE {
    ?player    rdf:type    eg:FootballPlayer .
    ?player    eg:name     ?name .
}

```

Listing 2.11: SPARQL Query II.

The result table in this case will contain two columns, one with the IRI of the person and one with their name. Important that it is as well possible to query blank nodes by introducing a variable for it. So if we want to list all the instances that are coming into question as player to a football team we can formulate the following query:

```

SELECT ?person ?name
WHERE {

```

```
eg:FootballTeam rdfs:subClassOf ?restriction .
?restriction    rdf:type          owl:Restriction .
?restriction    owl:onProperty  eg:hasPlayer .
?restriction    owl:allValuesFrom ?playerType .
?player         rdf:type          ?playerType .
?player         eg:name           ?name .
}
```

Listing 2.12: SPARQL Query III.

2.2 Applied Ontologies

Ontologies are used to describe types, relationships and properties of objects of a certain domain. It is a common practice to use already defined ontologies rather than developing an own. The first reason is, that the development of an ontology is a complex and a tedious process, and requires a lot of resource. Secondly, it is reasonable to use standardized vocabularies, in order to make data from same domain but different sources inter-operable.

2.2.1 Foundational Model of Anatomy - *FMA*

The foundational Model of Anatomy ontology is an open source ontology written in OWL. FMA is a fundamental knowledge source for all biomedical domains, and it provides a declarative definition of concepts and relationships of the human body for knowledge based applications. It contains more than 70 000 classes, and 168 different relationships, and organize its entities into a deep subclass tree [6]. All types of anatomical entities are represented in FMA, like molecules, cells, tissues, muscles and of course bones. In our project we use only the subset of the FMA. The taken elements are the subclasses of the following two classes and the three properties:

- Classes

Subdivision of skeletal system - fma:85544

Bone Organ – fma:5018

- Properties

fma:systemic_part_of

fma:constitutional_part_of

fma:regional_part_of

The class *Bone Organ* is the superclass of all bones in the human skeleton. Each bone belongs to a skeletal subdivision and a skeletal subdivision can be a part of another skeletal subdivision. This relationship in both cases is expressed by the property *fma:systemic_part_of*. To define which bone organ belongs to which skeletal subdivision FMA uses OWL restrictions (see Figure 2.7). The properties *fma:constitutional_part_of* and *fma:regional_part_of* are discussed later.



Figure 2.7: Ontology structure for skeleton

Finally the advantage of using the FMA ontology is that, if in the future further elements of the human body have to be addressed by the research processes, i.e. muscles, then these classes can be easily integrated to the currently applied subset.

2.2.2 Ontology for Biomedical Investigations - *OBI*

The aim of OBI ontology, is to provide the formal representation of the biomedical investigation in order to standardize the processes among different research communities. It is a result of a collaborative effort of several working groups, and it continuously evolving as new research methods are being developed. Its main function to describe the rules how biological and medical investigations have to be performed. OBI reuses terms from BFO *Basic Formal Ontology* IAO *Information Artifact Ontology* and OBO *Open Biological and Biomedical Ontologies* [1]. To define processes OBI uses the following three general classes:

- *Information Content Entity* - obo:IAO_0000030
- *Material Entity* - obo:BFO_0000040
- *Process* - obo:BFO_0000015

Information Content Entity represent results of a specific measurement, while Material Entity stands for the objects, on which the measurements have been performed. The Process could mean any kind of step within an investigation, from the planning, through execution till the conclusion.

- *Planning* - obo:OBI_0000339
- *Study Design Execution* - obo:OBI_0000471
- *Drawing a conclusion* - obo:OBI_0000338

In our project the following three properties are used:

- *has part* - obo:BFO_00000051
- *has specified input* - obo:OBI_00000293
- *has specified output* - obo:OBI_00000299

2.3 Web applications

This chapter contains practical information about how web applications work. In section 2.3.1 the basic mechanism of data driven applications are discussed, like navigation between page, data display and creation. Section ?? then focuses on the applications that are using semantic technologies, and addresses what kind of architectural changes that means.

2.3.1 Client-sever architecture

A web application is program that runs on a machine, which is accessible through the web. The machine is called server, because its main purpose is to server request that are coming from the web browser. Web browsers are as well programs, but they run on personal computers, tablets, etc, and they are capable of sending request through web to the servers. The response to these requests are HTML document, which can be displayed by the browser.

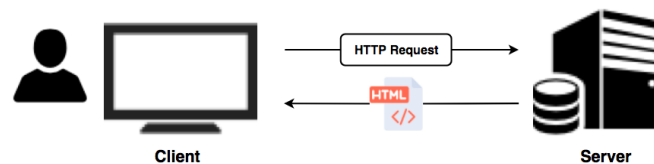


Figure 2.8: Client server communication

An HTML document contains definition of the elements of the pages, such as tables, buttons, etc. It contains as well so called CSS documents

(Cascading Style Sheet), which is responsible for the definition of the style of the elements. Moreover to make the web pages more interactive, JavaScript (JS) can be embedded to HTML as well.

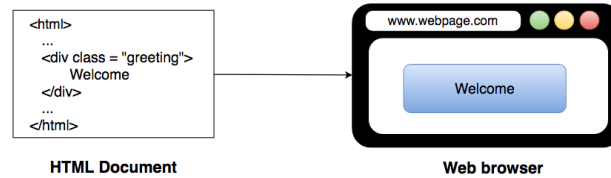


Figure 2.9: HTML document is interpreted by the browser

Initially web pages were static, which means that their only function was to show certain set of information. These applications usually web applications do not consist of one single page, but of several different pages. Like a web page for news, have normally a main page, and different sub pages for the particular topics. In order to navigate between the pages of the application, the HTML document contains links that trigger further HTTP requests. Links in HTML can be defined by means of the `<a/>` tag. The most important parameter of this tag is `href`, whose value contains the URL of the HTTP request. Let assume that an application's main page is accessible through the URL `http://newsPortal.com`. Common practice that sub-pages of the application can be called through various url-mappings, which means the main URL is extended with a keyword that denotes the page to be requested.

```
<a href="http://newsPortal.com/politics"> Politics </a>
<a href="http://newsPortal.com/sport"> Sport </a>
```

Listing 2.13: Example link definitions

If the user clicks on of these link (with the label 'Politics' and 'Sport') then these request will be sent to the news portal page. Each such request has to be served, differently to each mapping some routine has to be assigned. For example by Java web applications, the classes of the server that process the request are called servlets. On the next image it is shown, how the XML file defines, which class is responsible for the the mapping '/politics'.

```

<servlet-mapping>
  <url-pattern>/politics </url-pattern>
  <servlet-class>servlets.PoliticsController </servlet-class>
</servlet-mapping>

```

Listing 2.14: Java servlet mapping definition

Then the responsibility of the class *servlets.PoliticsController* is to respond the corresponding HTML page for the client. Figure 2.10 show the main structure of the applications, where the rectangles on the client side represent the different pages of the application.

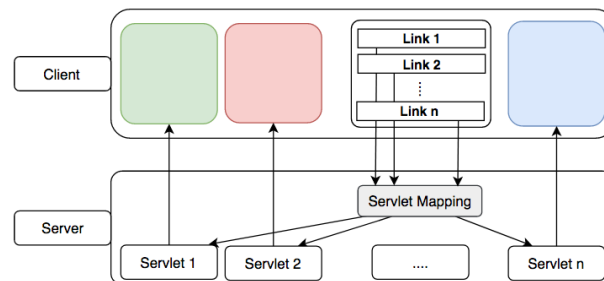


Figure 2.10: Navigation through the web application

2.3.2 Data driven web applications

This section aims to present the fundamentals of the web technologies that allows to build application for browsing and creating data. Modern web applications do not store the information in HTML documents. So the page loading process is not just the sending the HTML document, but a retrieval of a particular dataset, and the substitution into a web page. First of all the task of responding requires a query that retrieves that data from the database. By applications using relational data model, the tables and attributes are always modeled by classes of the used object oriented programming (OOP) language. So the data retrieval is the instantiation of the classes in scope.

Let assume that articles of a news portal is stored in a table with the attributes, id, type, title, summary and text. Then there has to be a class defined in the server code with the same attributes. To instantiate instances

of the class, it is necessary to perform an SQL query.

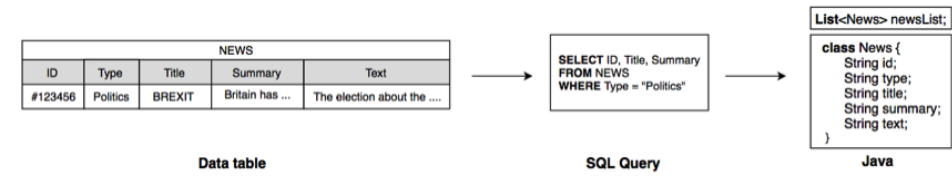


Figure 2.11: Data flow

The query results not only one instance of the News class, but a list (`List<News> newList`). To generate from this a HTML page that shows the articles, normally so called template engines are used. Templateing enables to define the HTML documents parametric, and passing them data, and they generate the result page automatically.

```
<#list newList as news>
  <h3> ${news.title} </h3>
  <p> ${news.summary} </p>
  <a href = "http://newsPortal.com/wholeNews?id=${news.id}">
    Read more
  </a>
</#list>
```

Listing 2.15: Template file example

The template file is a description of how the data has to be converted into HTML document. It can be seen that it is possible for instance to declare a list on the input variable `newList`. Then the template engine iterates through the News objects and by accessing its fields (title, summary, id) and generates the HTML for each element. So the complete flow of data from the database to the client looks as follows:



Figure 2.12: Flow of information from DB to client

The template shows only the summary of the article, but offers the fol-

lowing link:

```
http://newsPortal.com/wholeNews?id=${news.id}
```

The new feature is that after the url mapping there is a parameter *id*, and its value will be the database id of the web application. The idea is that this link redirects to the page where the whole article can be seen. So there has to be a servlet class defined to the mapping /wholeNews, which to perform the following query where the id is the input.

```
SELECT Text  
FROM NEWS  
WHERE ID = ${id}
```

Figure 2.13: SQL query with parameter

Thus it is achieved that different links are programmed to get access not only to different other pages, but to specific data items.

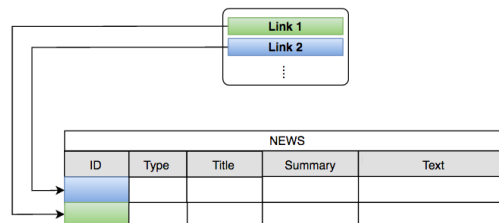


Figure 2.14: Links to data items

Web applications do not only just display existing data, but they allow the users to enter their new data. In HTML the element used for data input is called form. Form is a container, and it consists of particular form elements according to the data to be added.

Submitting the form to the server send an HTTP request with multiple parameters, where they are divided through the & character.

By the data entry creation the task of the controller is to get the values from the request an instantiate the class representing the data to be created. Then initialized class instance is passed to the database where the entered data will be persistently stored.

Form layout

Title

Type

Summary

Text

Submit

HTML Document

```
<html>
<form action="webApp/newArticleController">
  Title <input type = "text" name = "title"> <br>
  Type <input type = "text" name = "type"> <br>
  Summary <input type = "text" name = "summary"> <br>
  Text <input type = "text" name = "text"> <br>
  <input type = "submit" value = "Submit">
</form>
</html>
```

Figure 2.15: Form layout and HTML document

"http://newsPortal.com/newArticleController?title=France won the EC&type=Sport&summary="

Figure 2.16: Request with parameters

2.3.3 Applications with RDF Data

This section aims to give an insight to web application that are based on RDF data. It will be covered what kind of requirements do the software have on the server side to create RDF data, and what is the difference between the RDF model based applications and the relational ones. The most important feature of RDF that the data scheme, namely the ontology is stored in RDF triples too, thus can be queried.

Therefore it is possible to generate web pages that can adapt to the ontology. The following query demonstrates that how it is possible to get all the instances, which are connected to a particular instance (#459828).

```
SELECT ?property ?relatedInstance
WHERE {
  ?instance      rdf:type      ?class .
  ?property      rdfs:domain   ?class .
  ?instance      ?property     ?relatedInstance .
  FILTER ( ?instance = #459828 ) .
}
```

Listing 2.16: Dynamic SPARQL query

The first two lines of the query defines the properties whose domain class is the type of the input instance, while the third asks for all triples with the possible properties. If the result of the query is then grouped based on properties, then the dataset can be displayed by a template using two lists.

18

```
String title = request.getParameter("title");
....
News news = new News(title, type, summary, text);
DatabaseConnector.insert(news);
```

Figure 2.17: Example Java routine for data storage

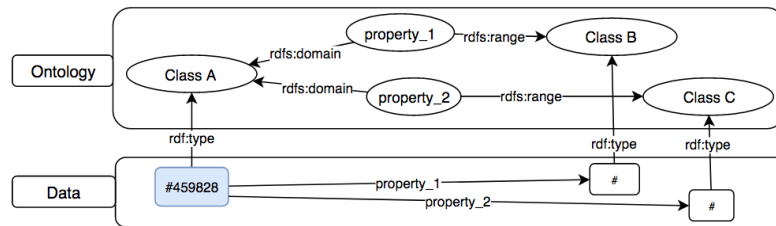


Figure 2.18: Ontology and data in RDF

The outer list creates fields for the properties, and the inner show all the instances with that property.

```
<#list properties as property>
  <#list property.dataSet as instance>
    <#list >
  </#list>
```

Listing 2.17: Ontology adaptive template file

The VIVO framework applied in the RDFBones project generates the pages for instances this way.

Overview
Research
Related Documents
Identity
File
Additional Document Info
Other
View All

authors

Acsadi, Gyorgy

Person

Nemeskeri, Janos

Person

description

Acsádi, György, and Janos Nemeskéri. "History of human life span and mortality." Budapest: Acad. Kaido (1970).

Figure 2.19: VIVO Profile page

Above the display of the existing data, RDF based applications are different as well in the data input mechanism. First of all, due to the fact

that ontologies can contain thousand of class it is not an option to represent them all as classes of the server application language as well. It is time consuming and the system would loose its flexibility in the cases when new ontology subsets are supposed to be loaded. Therefore there are neither for each type of the database an entry form with a unique controller servlet, but more generic approaches are used. To define what dataset has to be created, semantic web based applications simply define them as a set of triples, with variables like in SPARQL, just the data flows the other way around.

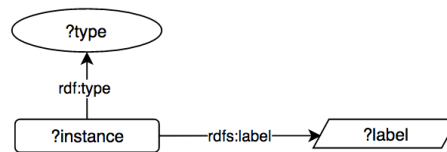


Figure 2.20: Triples representing a new instance

Figure 2.20 simple set of triples that have to be created by new data entry generation. The value of the variable `?instance` will be IRI that have not been used. This is an essential part of every triple store implementation that they provide unused uris for the server application for the new set of triples. The values of the *type* and label, are coming from the input form. The label is just like in the previous example, it is a string typed by the user it is stored as an attribute of the new entity. But the type of the instance is class IRI. The point is that the options of the selector field, from which the type value is coming, is filled with the results of a SPARQL query on the ontology. So for example if the entry form provide the possibility to create any type of processes from the OBI ontology then the before the form loading the following query has to be executed.

```

SELECT ?class ?label
WHERE {
  ?class      rdf:subClassOf    obo:OBI_0000339 .
  ?class      rdf:label        ?label .
}
  
```

Listing 2.18: SPARQL query for the input form

will be a new unused IRI of the triple store, while the `?type` variable

come from the client from a selector field. The following image depicts this simple scheme of the data input process.

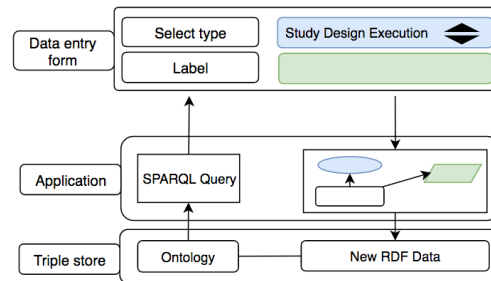


Figure 2.21: Data input scheme by RDF

Chapter 3

Problem Statement

In section (ontologies) in particular in the 2.2.3 *RDFBones* ontology scheme of the dataset that represents anthropological research activity has been discussed, while the section 2.3.2 introduced the basics of RDF data input.

3.1 Multi level data input

The examples from the previous chapter showed simple examples of data input problem, where the values of the form elements were substituted into a predefined set of RDF triples. In the presented cases the simplicity lies in that number of RDF instances, that were created is constant, and only their types and attributes are set by the user. But if an input form have to make possible the creation of more complex dataset, then it requires a code on the client side too and bit more elaborate data definition on the server.

Figure 3.1 shows a general example that illustrate the essence of problem. The upper box with the ellipses contains the ontology, and the lower boxes contains the actual RDF triples. The two main classes are the *Element* and the *Component*, whose relationship is expressed by the *partOf* property. The smaller ellipses are the subclasses of the two main classes respectively. The red arrows represent OWL restrictions on the property *partOf*. At this point it does not matter, if the restriction is *owl:someValuesFrom*, *owl:allValuesFrom* or a qualified cardinality. The point that through OWL restrictions it is possible to express the rules of a domain, in this case which component is part of which element.

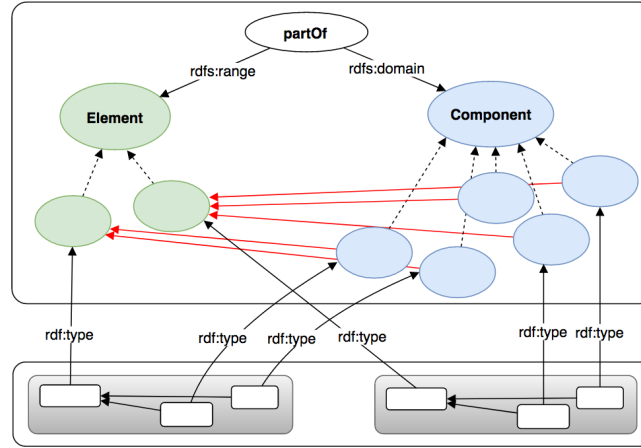


Figure 3.1: Multi level data

The lower box shows two RDF dataset, that conforms to the rules of the ontology. Important to note that right dataset do not contain all the possible component instances. This aims to illustrates that by such more complex dataset the user not only set literal values and types but have to decide about if a component of something is there. Which is for example by the digitalization of skeletal remains it is important because, it is often the case some of the bone organs are missing.

Figure 3.2 show the layout of a form that allows the addition of the component dynamically. The additional element is a button, that let the user add the add the selected component. This form functionality poses a new requirement to the form data, which has to be multi level. Under multi level data, is such form object is meant, that does not only contain such key value pairs, where the values are literals, but can be arrays of further objects.

Further task of the form that refresh the options of the selector field for the components because is is dependent on the selected element.

```
{ uri : "componentA",
  elements : [
    { uri : "componentA1" },
    { uri : "componentA2" }
  ]
}
```

The diagram illustrates a multi-level form structure within a rounded rectangular container. On the left, there are two labels: 'Element' and 'Component'. To the right of 'Element' is a text input field containing 'Element A' followed by a black diamond icon. To the right of 'Component' is a text input field containing 'Component A3' followed by a black diamond icon, and a blue 'Add' button. Below the 'Component A3' field is a list of two components, 'Component A1' and 'Component A2', each in its own rounded rectangular box.

Figure 3.2: Multi level form

Listing 3.1: Multi level form data in JSON

3.2 Solution scheme

Chapter 4

Vocabulary for web application domain

4.1 Elements of the vocabulary

4.1.1 Data definitions

To understand the necessity of certain elements of the vocabulary, further details of web the applications have to be explained. In VIVO, the display of the existing and the creation of the new data happens in individual pages. The display is done by so-called profile pages, that show the information about one particular instance. As it was in section 2.3.3, the information is grouped by predicates, and each predicate field contains a link that can call the data input pages. The link contains three parameters, *subjectUri*, *predicateUri* and the *rangeUri*. The *subjectUri* hold the value of the instance on whose profile the link is, the *predicateUri* is for the predicate, with which the new dataset is connected to the subject, and the *rangeUri* is an optional paramater.

Figure 4.4 shows the workflow of a data entry process. On the right profile page of a skeletal inventory can be seen, which lists the added skeletal elements. The profile page is configured that the *rangeUri* parameter holds in the links the URI of the classes of skull and vertebral column respectively. These parameters have to be considered by the form loading because they influences the options of the first selector which let the user add the skele-

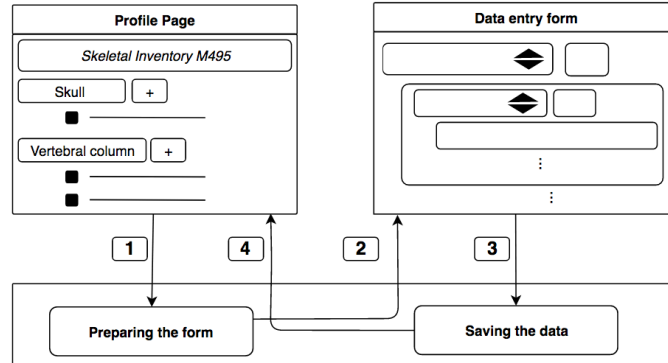


Figure 4.1: Complete workflow of data input process

tal sub sub division. So therefore it necessary to introduce a flag into the vocabulary that sign if a variable is coming with the HTTP request for the form loading, or with the JSON object after the submission.

Figure 4.3 shows all the nodes types and their attributes. Above the *mainInput* boolean flag, there is the variable name, which is required, and the constant value in case. There are three types of variable, the class, resource and literal. The literal variable itself denotes a string value and it has several subclasses for the other primitive types.

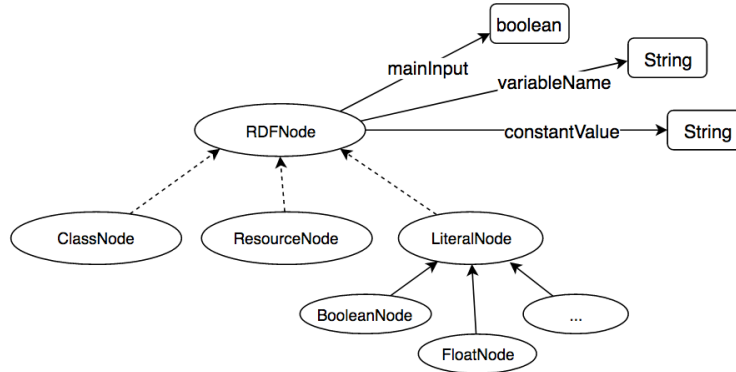


Figure 4.2: Variable types and their attributes

The other, more important is the modeling of the triples in the dataset. The vocabulary for triples has the purpose to express different constraint on the data scheme as well. Above the class *Triple* and *MultiTriple*, which were addressed in the end of the last chapter, there are two types of re-

striction triples. One for the classes and one for the instances. As we have seen in the description of the OWL ontologies, there are different types of restrictions can be defined. For this reason it should be possible to allow the definition of which restriction is used by the ontology, upon the entry form should operate. This can be expressed by the three boolean, types of the *classRestrictionTriple*. Moreover the greedy boolean flag means that the SPARQL query that queries the ontology has to return not only the result class but their superclasses too. Finally the instance restriction triples as the name indicates, expresses constraints between instances on the form. The examples in the next section will make the usage of the vocabulary more clear.

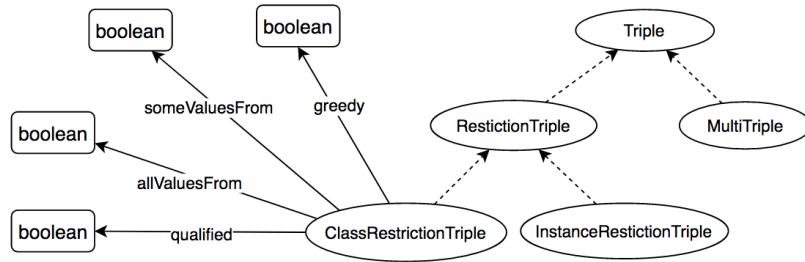


Figure 4.3: Triple types

4.1.2 Form definition

The class *Form* acts like a container for the form elements. There are two main types of form elements, the literal field and the selector. The literal field do not have further subclasses because its type, is defined through the type of the variable it represents. It would be a sort of over definition. This is the simplest case where the form adopts to the data model.

The selector can refer both instances and classes. If it represent an instance, so it let the selection of an existing instance, then it is possible to define an *InstanceViewer*. This feature allows to define a table with several columns. The utility is that the application can show more information about an instance than only the label in the selector field. Each column has a title and a number, and they refer to as well *RDFNodes*, whose values they show in the entries.

The class *SubformAdder* is the subclass of the selector, and has a relationship to the form with the predicate sub form. With this connection it is possible to define the sub form as new form instance. Moreover it has boolean flag, that allow to define a button add all should appear on, which adds all the possible subforms. This feature is useful be the skeletal subdivisions that contains much bones.

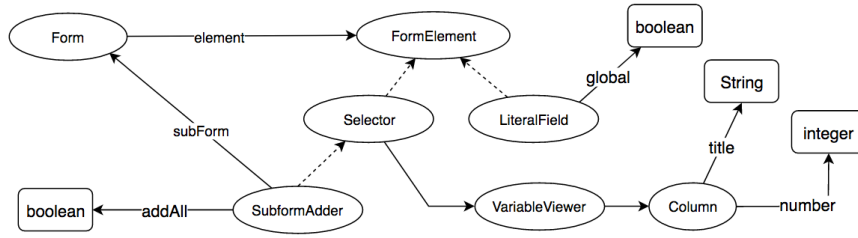


Figure 4.4: Form definition

4.2 Use-cases of the *RDFBones* project

The aim of this section is to show how it is possible to solve different problems with designed vocabulary. It covers the two main tasks of the project, the skeletal inventories and the study design execution. These two examples are sufficient to show the utility of the particular elements in the vocabulary and exemplify how their assembly can lead to a compact definition of complex web application problems.

4.2.1 Skeletal Inventories

Skeletal inventories were already addressed in section ???. Their goal is to define what kind of skeletal elements are present. In this part the creation of the primary skeletal inventories are discussed in more detail. This use-case addresses some additional challenges of the software, that were not mentioned yet. The explanation starts with the illustration of the implemented interface, to show what problem the high level logic has to define. As it was mentioned in figure 4.4, the entry forms can have inputs, which in this case the input is the class URI of the skeletal subdivision that has to be added with it sub subdivisions and bone organs. Therefore the first element of the

entry form is the selector of the sub subdivision.

Skull

Skeletal Regions **Viscerocranium**

Viscerocranium

BoneOrgans **Left temporal bone**

Left temporal bone **complete**

Neurocranium

BoneOrgans **Right parietal bone**

Right parietal bone **partly present**

Figure 4.5: Input form for skeletal inventories

Next to the selector the buttons *Add* and *Add all* can be seen, that let the user add the sub forms. Figure 4.5 shows the layout, when two sub sudvision were added, to each of them, a bone organ. The bone organ selector works exactly the same as the sub sudvision selector, but the selector for the completeness state is simple selector, without a sub form.

Figure 4.5 shows the triple scheme representing the skeletal inventories, where the nodes are representing variables. All the rectangle are representing instances. All of them will be newly created instead of the subjectUri, which comes as a main input, and the arrows with double line depicts the multi triples. Important to note that between the variable *boneOrgan* and *boneSegment* there is only a single triple (*fma:regional_part_of*) because in this use-case is simplified version and only entire bone segments will be added.

Above the instances to be created the classes have to be represented in the model too, because they can be the subjects of the class restriction triples. Figure Figure 4.7 is depicts the complete data model of the problem.

For the better readability the predicates are not denoted, but their value can be found in figure Figure 4.6. Each instance (rectangles) is connected to the class variable (ellipses). The red dotted arrows indicates restriction statements. The large three rectangles, that encompass set of triples are the graph, which are connecting to each other by means of multi triples. This is

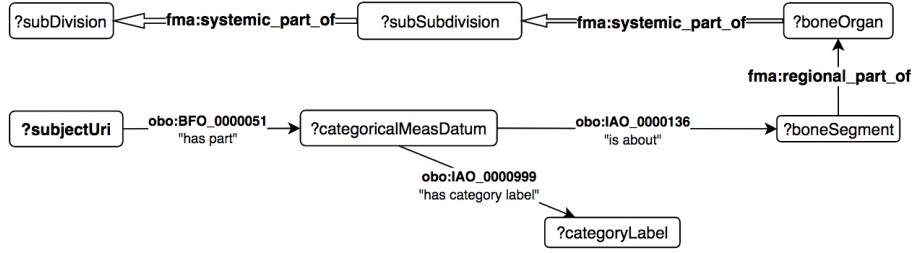


Figure 4.6: Skeletal inventory data triples

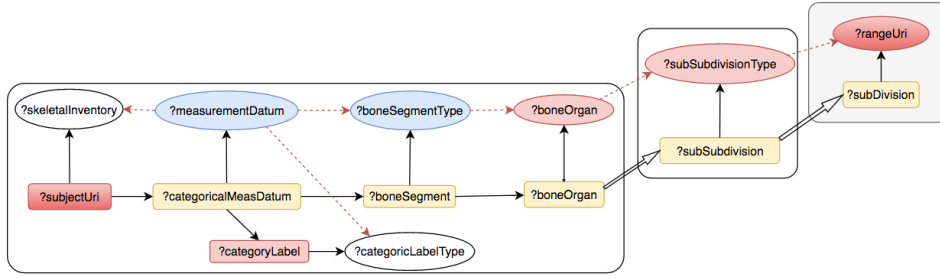


Figure 4.7: Complete data definition

the structure which is followed by the form as well.

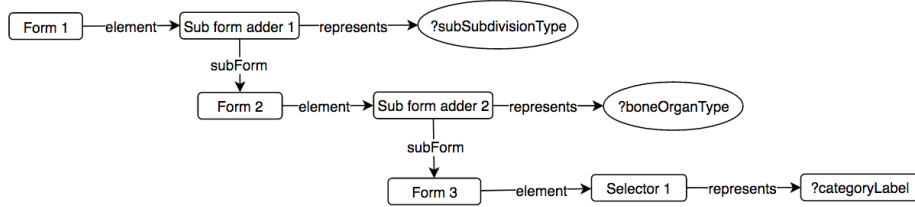


Figure 4.8: Form layout definition

Above the auxiliary rectangles for the graph, the nodes are colored to indicate their role in the process. The information that the colors hold is not defined in the vocabulary but it can be inferred from the whole data and form model. The first rule is that the main input nodes (*subjectUri* and *rangeUri*) are denoted with red, while the variables appear on the interface are light red. Based on that information it is already possible to determine to which instances it is required to assign an unused URI. Those instances are denoted with yellow. Furthermore, there are two classes in the data model that do not

appear on the interface, but their values can be evaluated through SPARQL queries. These are denoted with blue. And the classes with without color, do not appear on the final dataset, but they indicates constraint on the existing instances. Finally Figure 4.8 display the configuration data describing the form structure.

4.2.2 Study Design Execution

The entry form for study design execution has as well the hierarchical layout like the one for skeletal inventories, but there are additionally two elements on the main form. The first is the selector from skeletal inventories. It plays a role by the selection of the bone organs as input for the assays. To each assay a set bone segment types is defined in the extensions, that can be can be assigned to them as input. These bone on this form are not created newly but existing ones are selected, that were already added in the frame of the skeletal inventory data input. However there can be a large amount bone segments stored in the system, and thus the search is facilitated by showing only the ones that belong to the preselected skeletal inventory. The second is a global label field, whose value will be the label of all newly created instances.

Study Design Execution

Skeletal Inventory: Dry Bone Skeletal Inventory

Label: M-342

Assays: Assay.Glabella [Add] [Add all]

Assay.Glabella

Bone Segment: [Select]

Measurement Type: SexScore.Glabella [Add]

SexScore.Glabella

Indifferent [Close]

[Submit] [Cancel]

Figure 4.9: Input form for study design execution

Moreover the bone segment selector is not just a HTML selector input field, but a floating window implemented by JavaScript that allows the convenient browsing (Figure 4.10). It has two advantage with respect to

the conventional selector. Firstly it allows to display additional information about the instances above their labels, like their types or longer descriptions. Secondly it does not loads the form layout with additional subform for the selected instances, which by large amount assays and measurement datums is an important aspect.

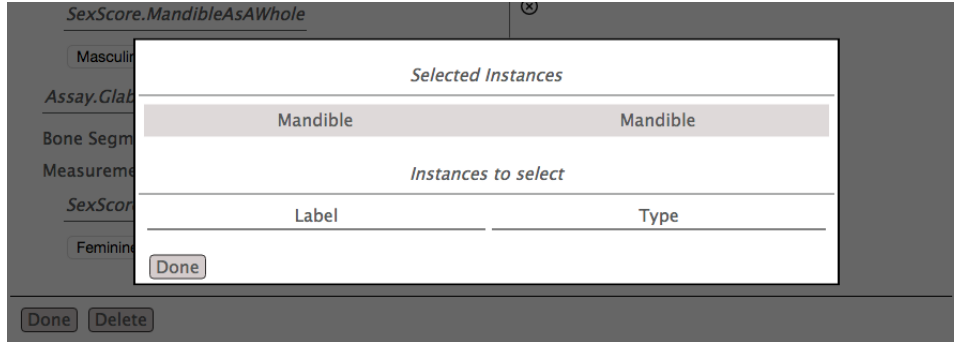


Figure 4.10: Instance selector for existing bone segment

On Figure 4.10 can be seen that there are two sections, one for the selected instances, and one for the instances to select.

The complete data structure of the form can be seen on the following image.

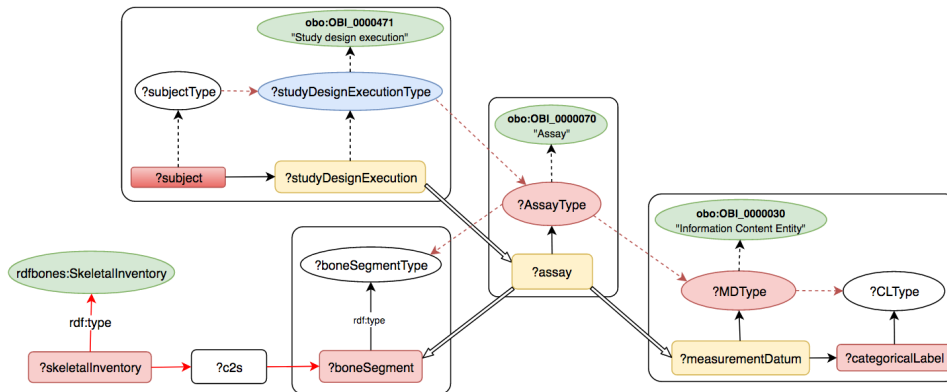


Figure 4.11: Complete data model

- Validation - cyclic graph - multiple dependencies
- subgraph subform dependencies

- Descriptor for data and processing

Chapter 5

Framework functionality

The aim of this chapter is to present the main mechanisms of the implemented software framework, which is capable of operating on high-level configuration data. Section 5.1 contains a more abstract description of the functionality, while section 5.2 goes into the implementation details both of the server and client side programming, including how the framework can be integrated into the applied web application. In both sections the explanation refers to the examples discussed in the previous chapter.

5.1 Main software modules and tasks

In Figure ?? we have seen the main work flow and components of the framework. Figure 5.1 is in turn a more detailed depiction of the software modules and processes of the application.

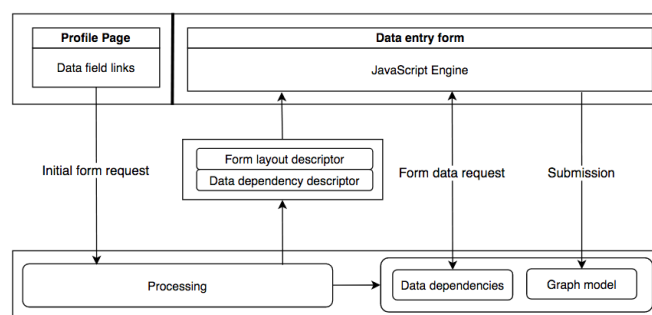


Figure 5.1: More detailed scheme

This section is divided into three subsections. First is the part (section 5.1.1) discusses the processing of the configuration data and generation of the functionality descriptor objects for the client and the server. The second part (section 5.1.2) is about the client functionality including the asynchronous communication with the server. Finally the third (section 5.1.3) part covers the process after the submission, namely how the RDF data is generated based on the data coming from the client, as well as how the existing data is retrieved from the triples store.

5.1.1 Validation

The processor algorithm has four main tasks to solve. The validation of the configuration data, generation of the form descriptor JSON object, and the Java object for data dependencies and for the graph model.

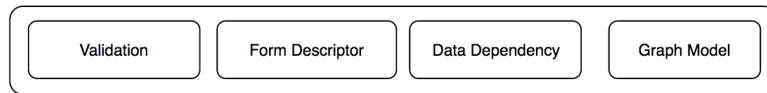


Figure 5.2: Processor tasks

The input of the algorithm is the set of triples describing the data model with its constraints, and form model, which refers to the nodes in the triple set. The first task to do is the validation because the descriptors are not supposed to be generated based on incorrect configuration data. The validator process has three scope of the checking, the nodes, the graph and the form.

Figure 5.3 depicts an example data model and illustrates the cases of valid and invalid nodes (Figure ?? contains the meaning of the shapes and colors). The explanation starts with the discussion of the form input nodes. Node 2 is valid because it is possible to generate a SPARQL query that retrieves the possible values of it. The query contains one triple which ask the subclasses of the constant class. Furthermore node 4 is valid as well, because there is path to it from a valid class node, therefore for there is again a SPARQL query for its values. However the variable 3 is not valid, because it does not contribute to any triple in path with valid input node or constant. Here it is important to note that the path cannot come from the

instance to the class, just the other way around. So the path $2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 4$ counts in the processor routine, but $2 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 3$ does not.

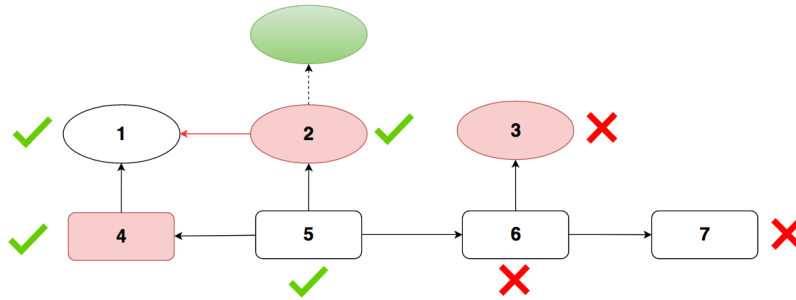


Figure 5.3: Valid and invalid nodes

The next task regarding the nodes is to check if each has a value by the RDF triple creation. The instances coming from the interface are automatically valid, because their URI is an input value. But the ones that have to be generated newly and get as value a new unused URI from the triple store, must contribute to triple as subject, where the predicate is *rdf:type* and the object is a valid class. For this reason the node 5 is valid, since its type class is valid, but node 6 is not. Moreover node 7 is not valid as well, since it does not have any type class defined in the data model. Finally regarding the literals the validation is the simplest, either they appear on the form or have constant value, otherwise they are invalid.

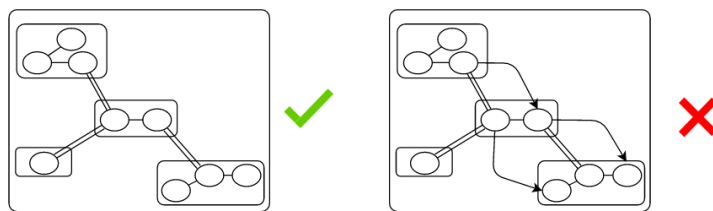


Figure 5.4: Valid and invalid graph

Above the nodes important itself the whole graph built by the triples have to be investigated. In the previous chapter the triple type *MultiTriple* were introduced. The rule regarding this type of triple that it divides the graph into subgraphs, and the subgraphs can connect to each other only be these triples. Figure 5.4 illustrates the valid and invalid graph arrangements.

The reason is that only to this type of scheme can the JSON object of the created by the data input process be mapped.

5.1.2 Dependencies and form functionality

The set of triples describing the data model builds a graph where the various input nodes are connected to each other. Further task of the processor algorithm to determine the subgraphs that define the SPARQL queries for the node appear on the form. The elements on the form has a specified order, and the rule that have to be considered during the processing, is that a variable can be dependent only of the main input variables or such variables that are before it on the form. The reason is that the dependency is practically SPARQL query with one output and with one or more inputs, and input node have to available by the execution of the query.

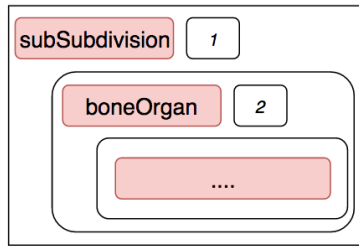


Figure 5.5: Form element order

Figure 5.5 shows the simplified form layout of the skeletal inventories and emphasizes the order of the elements with the number. The idea is that values of the selector for the node *subSubdivision* can be only dependent on the main input nodes because it is the first node. The *boneOrgan* in turn can be dependent on the *subSubDivision* too because its value has to be set before the options of the subform is loaded, thus it can be substituted into a SPARQL query.

Figure 5.6 depicts the scheme of the data constraints of the skeletal inventory, based on which the dependency retriever algorithm can be exemplified. As it was mentioned the task is to get one or more path from the variable of to an other node whose value is available for it. As the form's first element refers to the node *subDivision* its dependency has to be evaluted first. Since the node *subSubDivision* contributes to two restriction triples in the data

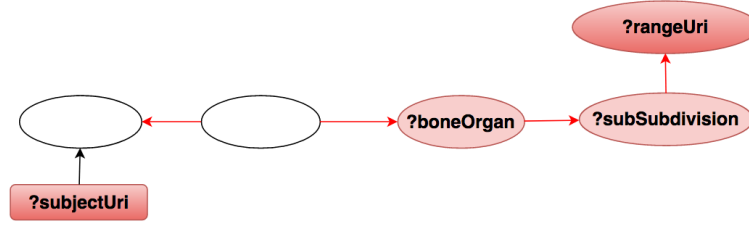


Figure 5.6: Skeletal inventory data constraints

scheme it is necessary to check the both paths. Since this node cannot be dependent on any other form node, it is dependent on the two main input nodes (*subjectUri* and *rangeUri*). While the by dependency for the node *boneOrgan* the *rangeUri* does not count, since the algorithm terminates already by the *subSubdivision* variable. Figure 5.7 shows the results subgraphs of the algorithm, where the output is depicted with green and the inputs with red and light red respectively.

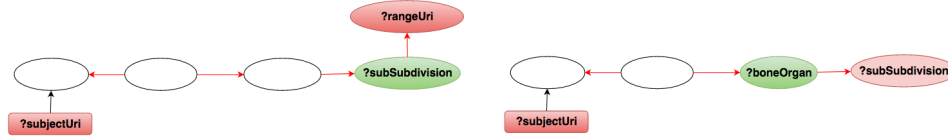


Figure 5.7: Form dependency subgraphs

This result of the processor concerns both the descriptor of the client, and the server. On the server the dependencies are stored a classes that have the necessary fields, for the inputs and output and for the triples. Then these initialized dependency descriptor class objects are stored in a data map, where the key is the variable name of the output node. This map is a field of the form configuration class, thus if the client asks for the appropriate form variable through AJAX these SPARQL query assemble by the triples for can be executed with the incoming values.

For the client the dependency description is just the an assignment of an array, which contains the input node of the dependency, to the form node. In the case of the *subSubdivision* it is an empty array, because it is not dependent on any form element, but for example the *boneOrgan* in the use-case for the study design execution the is dependent from the *assayType* and the skeletal inventory. The task of the form by loading new sub form is

to check this array and get the variables required values from the form. This mechanism will be discussed in more detail in section ??.

Above the dependency the descriptor the JavaScript framework obtains the descriptor data file for the form elements upon which it can generate the form. The mechanism of the form description retrieval a quite simple because it is practically the conversion of a Java object into a JSON object. The fields of the Java object appear in the JSON objects as key. In

```
public JSONObject getDescriptor() {  
    JSONObject object = new JSONObject();  
    object.put("title", this.title)  
    ...  
    return object;  
}
```

Listing 5.1: Java to JSON

Where the *this.title* has contains the value for the title of the form object in the descriptor Java object. The same way if the Java class has list field, like the form has list of form elements, then `getDescriptor()` routines of each element is called and inserted into a JSON array. Moreover if the form element is sub form adder then it has a field *subForm*. This comes as well of course into the descriptor, and this is the way how the multi level JSON is created.

```
object.put("subForm", this.subForm.getDescriptor());
```

Listing 5.2: Subform descriptor

Figure 5.8 illustrates the generated JSON object for a form with the data dependencies too. The task of the JavaScript routine to interpret this configuration data and generate the form and subform upon user action.

5.1.3 Graph model generation

The previous section outlined how the set of Java objects are converted into the form decriptor JSON object, and into Java objects describing the variable dependencies for the AJAX requests. Further task of the framework

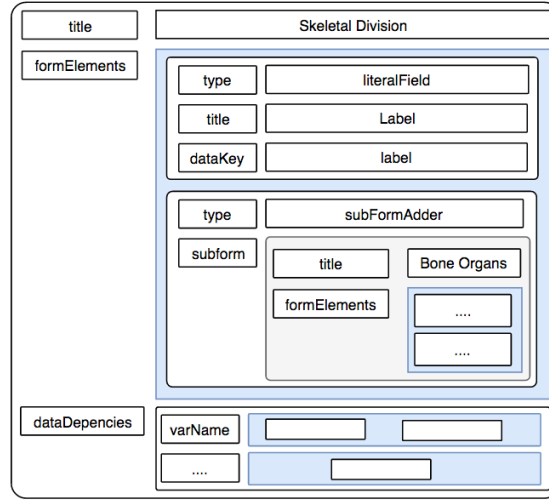


Figure 5.8: Form descriptor JSON

is to receive the submitted multi level JSON object coming from the client and generate the appropriate set of RDF triples. So in order to prepare the server for the reception of the form data, the same object structure have to be generated, which is coming from the form. We have seen in the previous chapters, that the form data object has the same scheme as the form has, and form follows the scheme defined by the multi triples in the triple set. Therefore the task of the last part of the processor algorithm is to decompose the set of triples by multi triples into graphs. The graph structure is represented in the server by a Java class called *Graph*.

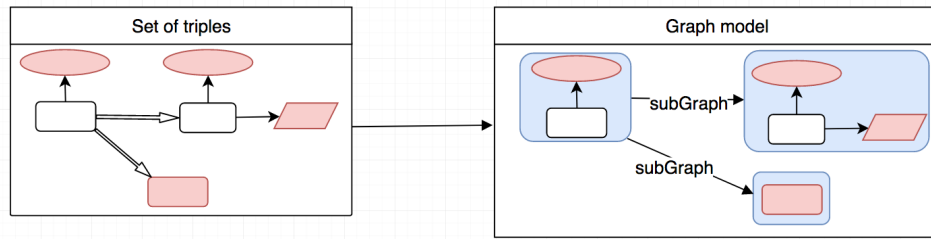


Figure 5.9: Conversion from triples into graph model

The decomposition starts by the initial RDF node, which defines the main graph. The class *Graph* has a `Map<String, Graph>` field where the subgraphs are stored. The keys of the map are equivalent to the keys of

the keys of the arrays in the incoming JSON object. The other keys of the JSON are the variables of the corresponding graph. The following code snippet shows the basics of the RDF data generation from multi level JSON object.

```
saveData(JSONObject formData){
    this.save(formData);
    for(String keys : this.subGraphs.keys()){
        JSONArray array = formData.get(key);
        Graph subGraph = this.subGraphs.get(key);
        subGraph.saveArray(array)
    }
}
```

Listing 5.3: Subform descriptor

The save routine creates the RDF triples of the graph based on the data fields of the JSON object. The a loop iterates through the subgraphs of the graph and gets the arrays with the same key from the JSON and passes it to the corresponding subgraphs, that perform the same algorithm as many times, as many elements of the input array have. This is the way how the multi dimensional JSON is processed by the same structure of graph model on the server.

FiguregraphProcess illustrates the process of the JSON-RDF conversion by means of graph model. The advantage of this graph model that it can be applied the same way for the data retrieval, where the graph performs the SPARQL queries based on its triples, and generates the arrays of objects from the result table.

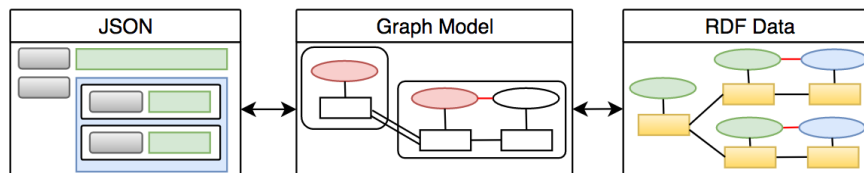


Figure 5.10: Graph decomposition

5.2 Implementation

The description of the implementation starts with the client side because it is more independent from the other parts, and it sufficient to understand properly the functionality of the server. While in the last subsection it is discussed how can the developed framework integrated into the VIVO web application.

5.2.1 Client side

This subsection presents the basics of the JavaScript implementation that realizes the dynamic form generation and event handling based on JSON form configuration data. The first part covers the creation of a form itself, and how the data is set to form data object, while the second part is about how the form enables multi dimensional data input by means of sub form adders.

Form loading

In contrast to Java, JavaScript codes are not necessarily built up in an object-oriented manner. On pages where the elements are statically defined in HTML, it is sufficient to assign event handler routines to them. However in our case none of the elements of the page is coded into HTML, but everything is dynamic and thus added by JavaScript. In the implementation JavaScript classes are applied, whose input is the descriptor object, based on which they generate the corresponding data input fields, and handles the data entered through them by the user. In this section the functionality of the two main classes, the *Form* and *Formelement* is discussed.

Figure 5.11 illustrate the structure of the two main classes. The most fundamental difference between these JavaScript classes to Java classes, that they do not contain only fields and routines (or methods) but UI elements as well. The UI elements can represent and HTML tag, and can be added or removed any time by the routines. Each class of the implemented JavaScript library has a defined set of UI elements.

The form generation processes starts with the initialization of a *Form* object, where the constructor (like in Java) gets the descriptor JSON object coming from the server. As it was described in the previous chapter

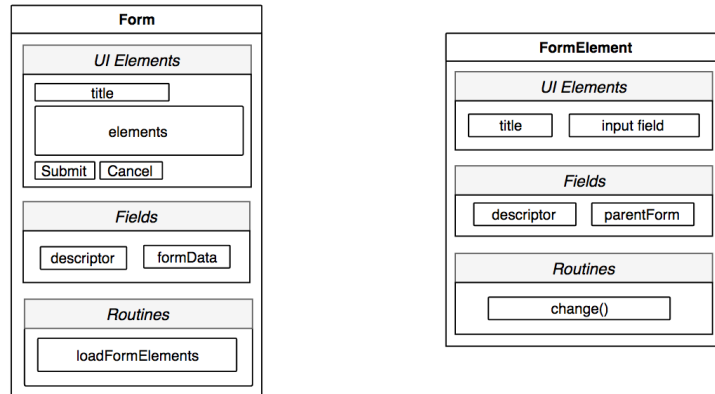


Figure 5.11: Form and form element classes

the descriptor contains a list of the form element descriptor objects. The *loadFormElements()* routine iterates through on this array, and initiates the form element objects.

```

var formData = new Object()
for(var i = 0, i < formElements.length; i++){
  switch(formElements[i].type){
    case "stringField":
      var element = new StringField(formElements[i], formData)
      break;
    case "selector" : ...
  }
  this.elements.append(element.container)
}

```

Listing 5.4: Form generation based on configuration data

Each form element type is represented as subclass of the *formElement* class. They all have a container UI field, that contains their title and input field HTML element. This container field is added to the *elements* field of the *Form* object.

Listing 5.5 show a small cut from the code of the *StringField*, which is the subclass of the *FormElement* class. The field *inputField* is the HTML `<input/>` tag, and if its value changes then the *editHandler* routine is called. The *editHandler* is the function that realizes the dynamic form data creation, by setting the value of the input field into the form data object with the key

defined in its the descriptor. The key is stored in the *dataKey* field of the descriptor, which is the variable name of the RDFNode the input element represents.

```
class StringField extends FormElement{
  constructor(descriptor , formData){
    super(descriptor , formData)
    this.inputField = $("<input/>").type("text").change(this.
      editHandler)
    ...
  }
  editHandler(){
    this.formData[this.descriptor.dataKey]=this.inputField.val()
  }
}
```

Listing 5.5: Form element

This is the basic mechanism of how object-oriented JavaScript can be employed to generate forms, and put the entered values in to JSON object based on configuration data.

Sub forms

The previous section explained how the form algorithm creates the JSON object of the form data. This section extends the explanation of how it is possible to add the multi level data by sub form adders. To this two new JavaScript class functionality is outline, the *SubFormAdder* and the *SubForm*. The former is the subclass of the *FormElement* and the latter of the *Form* class.

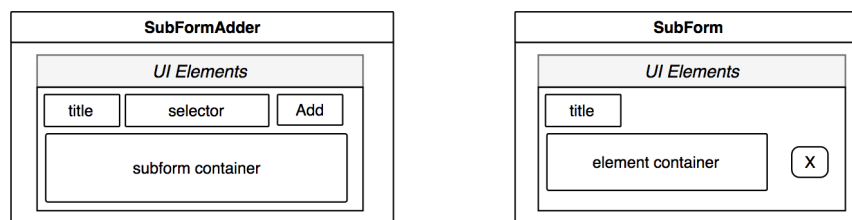


Figure 5.12: SubForm and sub form adder

Figure ?? depicts the UI elements of the two classes. The routines and fields are inherited from the parent classes. The class *SubFormAdder* has a button, which lets the user add new sub forms, which are appended into the sub form container. The class *SubForm* has additionally to the parent class a delete button for the cases if the user wants to delete the added dataset.

Listing 5.10 shows the relevant part of the code in the class *SubFormAdder*. The essence of the class is that the constructor initiates an array (with "") in the form data object, to which the sub form data object will be added dynamically upon the click events. So if the user clicks the add button, then new object is initialized (*subFormDataObject*), which will be the data object of the sub form. Important to note that this object will contain value of the selected option of the sub form adder with the key defined in the *dataKey* field of the descriptor. After the initialization of the object, it is pushed to the array, and the new *SubFormAdder* instance is created, whose container is appended to the sub form container of the sub form adder.

```
class SubformAdder {  
  
    constructor(descriptor , formData){  
        this.addButton = $("<div/>").text("Add").click(this.add)  
        this.subFormDescriptor = this.descriptor.subForm  
        this.formData[this.descriptor.predicate] = []  
    }  
  
    add(){  
        var subformDataObject = new Object()  
        subformDataObject[this.descriptor.dataKey] = this.selector.  
            val()  
        this.formData[this.descriptor.predicate].push(  
            subformDataObject)  
        this.subFormContainer.append(  
            new SubForm(this , this.subFormDescriptor ,  
                subformDataObject).container)  
    }  
}
```

Listing 5.6: Sub form adder routine

The class *SubForm* works almost the same way as its parent, but with

the difference that it checks if there is such selector among its elements, whose data has to be loaded dynamically through AJAX, because its value is dependent on one or more previously set elements of the form.

5.2.2 Server side

This section covers the functionality of the server. On the client side the implemented JavaScript classes were just included into the form template file, but the framework integration to the server is a more complicated issue, therefore the first subsection is dedicated to it. Furthermore the implementation of the form data calls with the variable dependency calls are discussed here, as well as the routines how the graph model can save, edit and retrieve the or subsets of the form data.

VIVO integration

As it was mention in the previous chapter the process of the form loading start with the profile pages of VIVO. In VIVO the entry form loading is initiated by the property fields. Normally the programming in VIVO happens through so called generator classes. The task of the generator classes is to define the dataset that have to be created in the form, and reference the Freemarker template file for entry form.

```
<someProperty> vivo:customEntryFormAnnot  
                "rdfbones.DrawingAConclusionGenerator.java"
```

Listing 5.7: Custom entry form definition in VIVO

The approach implemented in the frame does not replace this structure, but makes it simpler. In our cases we use as well generator classes, but the definition of the data happens through the intialization of an instance of the class *FormConfiguration* instance (listing ??).

Figure 5.13 shows the process of loading an entry form in VIVO. The first step is to find the generator class based on the value of the *predicateUri* parameter of the initial request. If the class has been found the processor algorithm is executed, and the necessary JSON and Java object are generated. Afterwards the server saves the form configuration object its cache with a key, which is called in VIVO *editKey*. The box in the middle of the image shows, that the response web page includes the JS library (simplified notation *framework.js*), and the value of the *edit*. This is the value will be sent in each AJAX request to the server, and based on this the can the server

find the form configuration instance that returns the JSON object for the client.

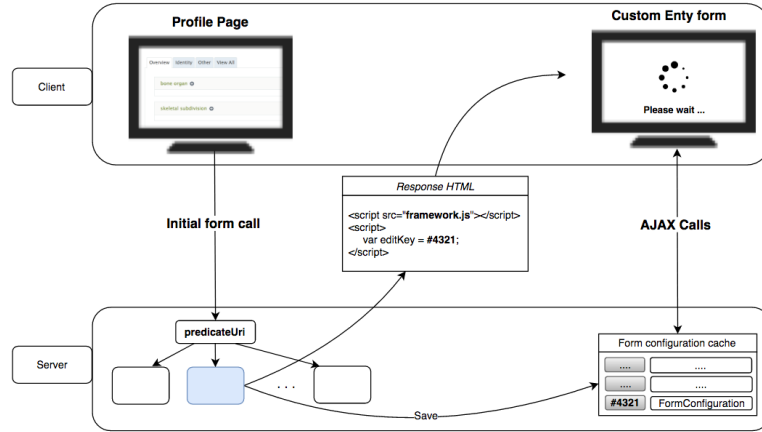


Figure 5.13: Form loading process

Figure 5.14 show the UML class diagram *FormConfiguration* class. The fields of the classes were already discussed in the previous chapter, but here it is important to note that each AJAX request is server by the method *serveRequest()*, where both the input and the output is JSON object.

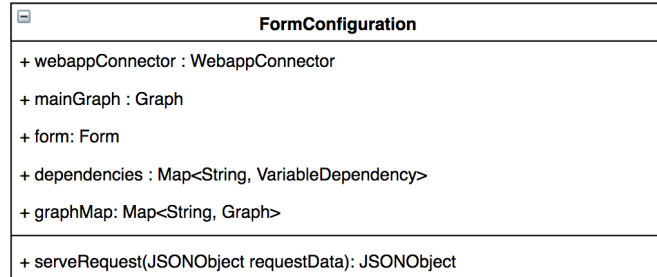


Figure 5.14: UML class diagram for FormConfiguration

Listing 5.11 shows the main scheme of *serveRequest()* routine. Each request coming from the client has the key *task*, which defines what data JSON object has to be served for the client.

```
SONObject serveRequest (JSONObject requestData) {
    switch (requestData.get("task")) {
        case "formSubmission": ... break;
```

```

    case "formDescriptor": ... break;
    case "editData":      ... break;
    case "deleteAll":     ... break;
  }
}

```

Listing 5.8: AJAX request server routine

Finally a really important part of the integration is the access to the used triple store. For this purpose an interface, called *WebappConnector* is defined. It defines the functions that allows the querying and manipulation of the triples.

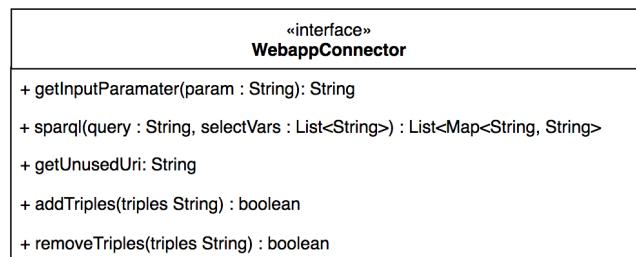


Figure 5.15: UML class diagram for WebappConnector

Form data loading

Important part of the framework functionality is the loading of the dependent data to the forms. This is defined through the keyword *formData* in the task parameter. Moreover it has parameter, the *variableToGet*. Based on this variable, the form configuration finds the variable dependency instance and passes the incoming JSON object to its method *getData()*.

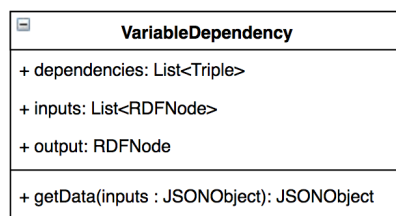


Figure 5.16: UML class diagram for VariableDependency

```

JSONObject serveRequest(JSONObject requestData){
    switch (requestData.get("task")) {
        ...
        case "formData":
            return this.dependencies.get(requestData.get("varToGet")).
                getData(requestData)
        ...
    }
}

```

Listing 5.9: Loading form data from FormConfiguration

We have seen that the dependency is set of triples, which build a graph. This graph can be built by class restriction triples, which constitutes to the generated SPARQL query not with one triple but with three triples.

```

SELECT ?outputVar ?label
WHERE {
    ?inputVar      rdfs:subClassOf      ?restriction .
    ?restriction   owl:onProperty      fma:systemic_part_of .
    ?restriction   owl:someValuesFrom  ?outputVar .
    ?outputVar     rdfs:label           ?label .
    FILTER (?inputVar = fma:5058)
}

```

Listing 5.10: SPARQL query generated by class restriction triple

Saving, editing and retrieval of RDF Data

```

JSONObject serveRequest(JSONObject requestData){
    switch (requestData.get("task")) {
        ...
        case "saveData":
            return this.mainGraph.saveData(requestData.get("formData"))
        case "retrievedData":
            return this.mainGraph.getData(requestData.get("startUri"))
        case "editData":
            return this.graphMap.get(requestData.get("varToEdit"))
                .editData(requestData)
        ...
    }
}

```

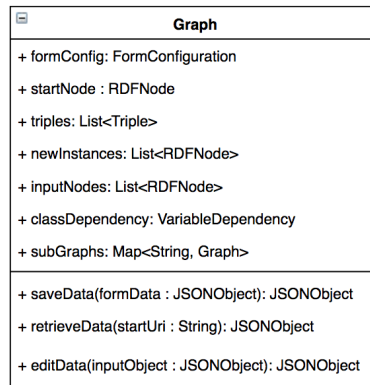


Figure 5.17: UML class diagram for Graph

Listing 5.11: Loading form data from FormConfiguration

Appendix A

Glossary

Just comment `\input{AppendixA-Glossary.tex}` in `Masterthesis.tex` if you don't need it!

Symbols

\$ US. dollars.

A

A Meaning of A.

B

C

D

E

F

G

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X

Appendix B

Appendix

B.1 Something you need in the appendix

Just comment `\input{AppendixB.tex}` in `Masterthesis.tex` if you don't need it!

Erklaerung

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