

MASTER'S THESIS

# CONFIGURABLE SCHEMA-AWARE RDF DATA INPUT FORMS

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# Abstract

Abstract in English

# Kurzfassung

Kurzfassung auf Deutsch

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Introduction.

You can reference the only entry in the .bib file like this: [2]

### 1.1 Initial goal and contributions

### 1.2 Thesis outline

# 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. 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#>.
```

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#>.
```

So a literal value in RDF looks as follows:

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

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.
```

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 eg: <http://example.org#>.
```

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:

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

The actual data about a person:

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



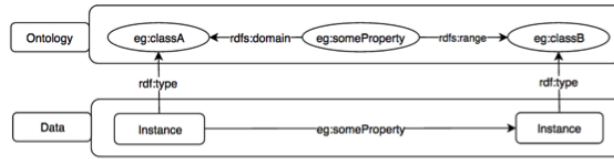


Figure 2.2: RDFS domain and range definition

the class `rdfs:Class`. The property `rdf:subPropertyOf` expresses the relationship between two properties. If property `P2` is sub property of `P1` and two instances are related by `P2` then they are related by `P1` as well. Its domain and range is the class `rdf:Property`. Now everything is given to define the ontology for the example of the previous section.

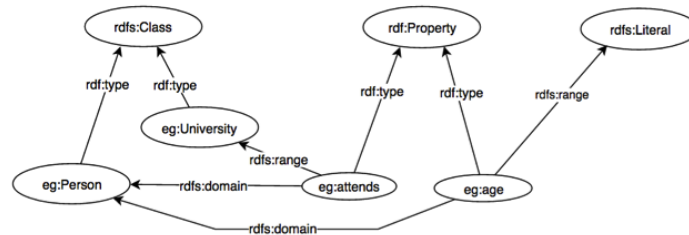


Figure 2.3: RDFS domain and range definition

### 2.1.3 OWL

OWL, abbreviation for Ontology Web Language is an extension of the RDFS vocabulary. OWL allows expressing additional constraints on the data, 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 2.1: 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 ;
  owl:qualifiedCardinality "5"^^xsd:nonnegativeInteger
] .
```

Listing 2.2: OWL restriction in N3 format

These two examples cover the thesis related features of OWL. The next image depicts the OWL vocabulary.

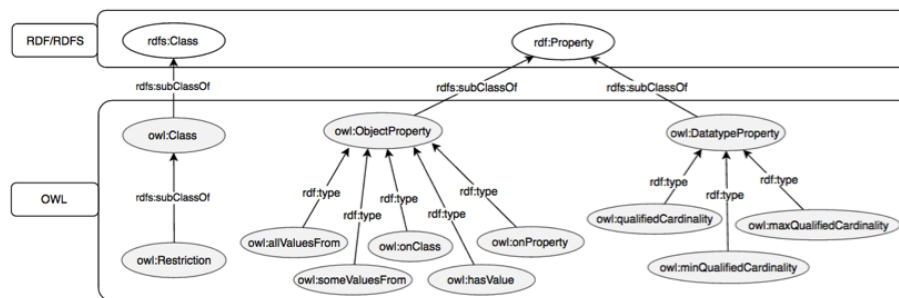


Figure 2.4: A subset of OWL vocabulary

There are two new class types are the owl:Class and the owl:Restriction. The rdf:Property has two subclasses, the owl:ObjectProperty and owl:DataProperty. owl:ObjectProperty represent the properties that links instances to instances, and the owl:DataProperty is those that link instances to literals. The

following two images shows the domain and range definitions of the OWL properties used to describe restrictions.

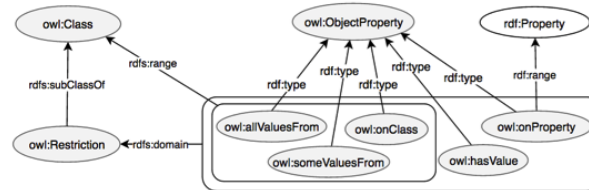


Figure 2.5: OWL object properties

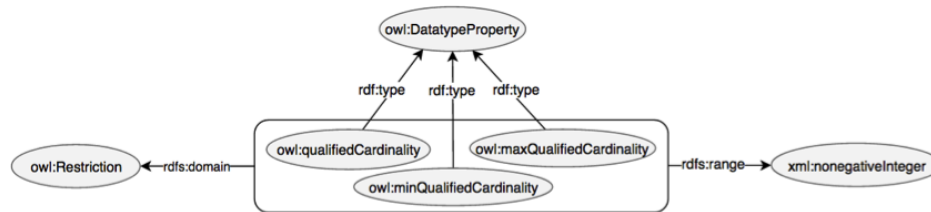


Figure 2.6: Properties for qualified cardinalities

### 2.1.4 SPARQL

SPARQL is a query language for querying data in RDF graphs. A SPARQL query is a definition of a graph pattern through variables and constants. The following example query returns all IRIs that represent a football player:

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

Listing 2.3: 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 2.4: 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 2.5: 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 [4]. 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 belong 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* *fma:constitutional\_part\_of* are discussed later.

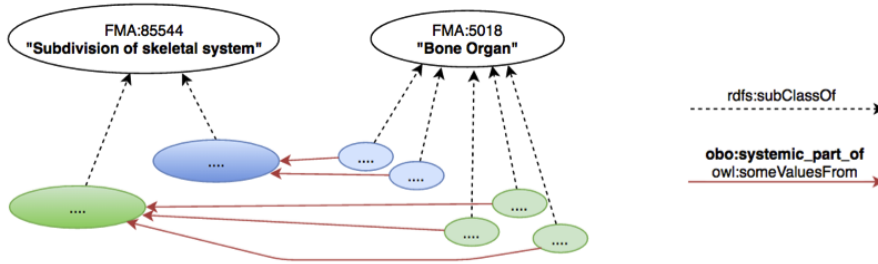


Figure 2.7: Ontology structure for skeleton

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*[3]. 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 2.3.3 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.

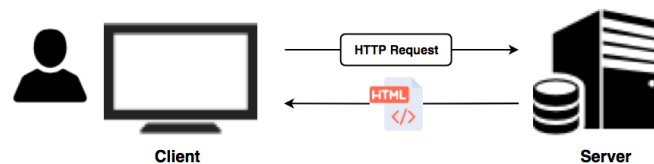


Figure 2.8: Client server communication

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) de can be embedded to HTML as well.

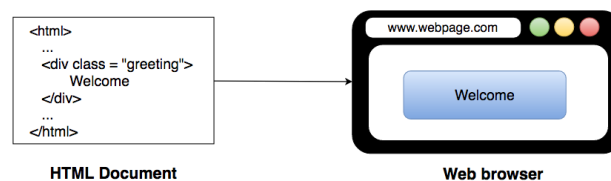


Figure 2.9: HTML document is interpreted by the browser

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 2.6: 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 2.7: 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.

### 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 ap-

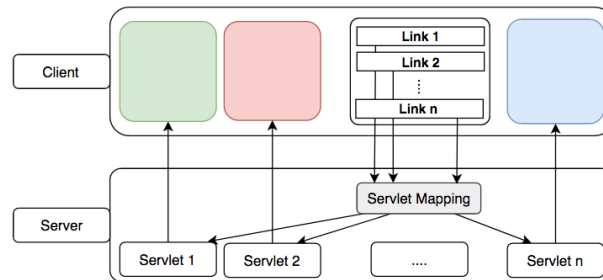


Figure 2.10: Navigation through the web application

plications 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.

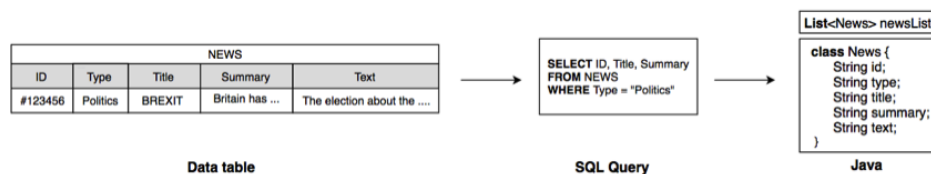


Figure 2.11: Data flow

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 2.8: 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 `newsList`. 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:

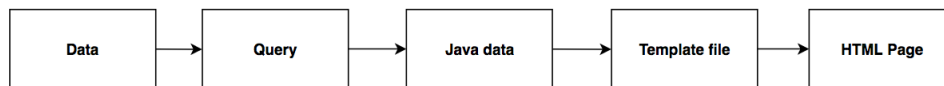


Figure 2.12: Flow of information from DB to client

The template shows only the summary of the article, but offers the following 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.

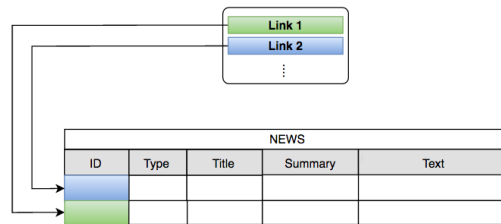


Figure 2.14: Links to data items

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.

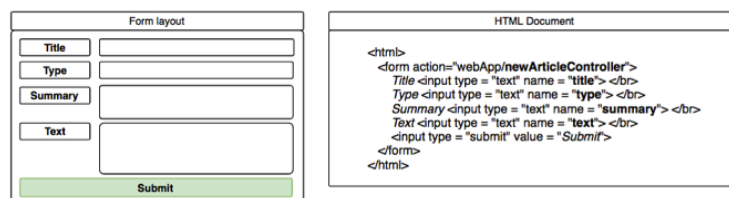


Figure 2.15: Form layout and HTML document

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

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

Figure 2.16: Request with parameters

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.

### 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

```
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

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.

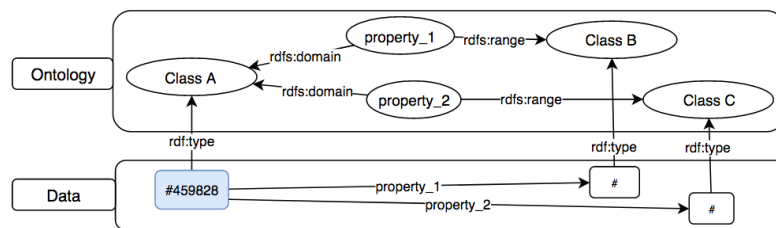


Figure 2.18: Ontology and data in RDF

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 2.9: 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. The outer list ceates 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 2.10: Ontology adaptive template file

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

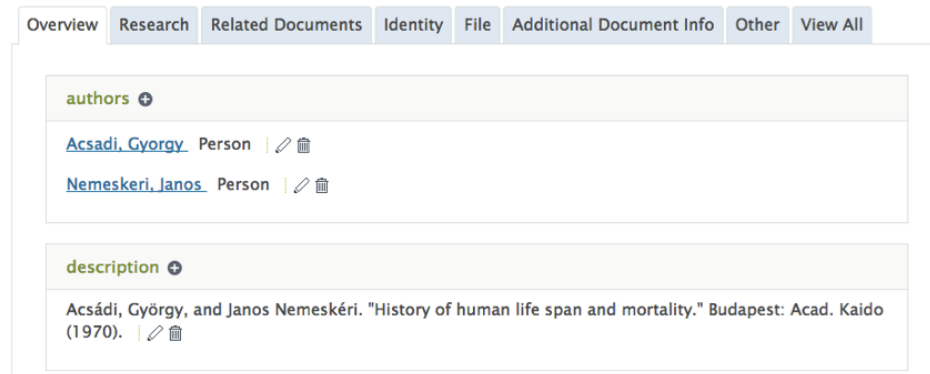


Figure 2.19: VIVO Profile page

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.

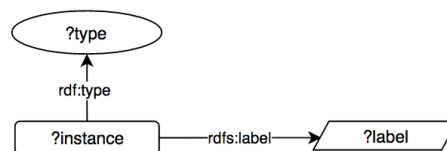


Figure 2.20: Triples representing a new instance

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 2.11: 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.

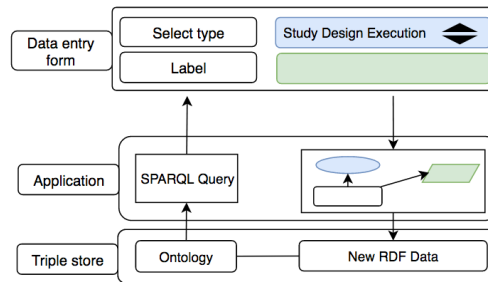


Figure 2.21: Data input scheme by RDF

# Chapter 3

## Problem Statement

This chapter is divided into two sections. As the application is highly dependent on the underlying data model, the first section dedicated to explanation of the data scheme describing the investigations in scope. The second chapter in turn addresses the problems of the web application, that allows the creation of RDF data outlined in the first section. It covers the issues of both the client and server side implementation and their communication.

### 3.1 Modeling anthropological research activity

This section consist of three subsections. The first two (3.1.1 and 3.1.3) describes how the RDFBones ontology (developed during the project) integrates the *FMA* and *OBI* ontologies for describing research processes related to anthropology. While the third section (??) discusses how can the core ontology be extended to define custom bone segments and processes.

#### 3.1.1 Data on skeletal remains

We have seen in the section 2.2.1 the base structure of the human skeleton. The most important point is that not only individual bones will be represented in the data we create, but the skeletal regions as well, like skull or vertebral column. The institute where these investigations are conducted posses mainly skeletal remains of skulls. The skull has the peculiarity that it consists of not directly of bones, but from two sub skeletal division, and these to subdivisions contain the bone organs. Figure 3.5 shows the ontology

subset for the skull and the data instances (each denoted with #). The red arrows denotes restrictions on the properties *fma:systemic\_part\_of*.

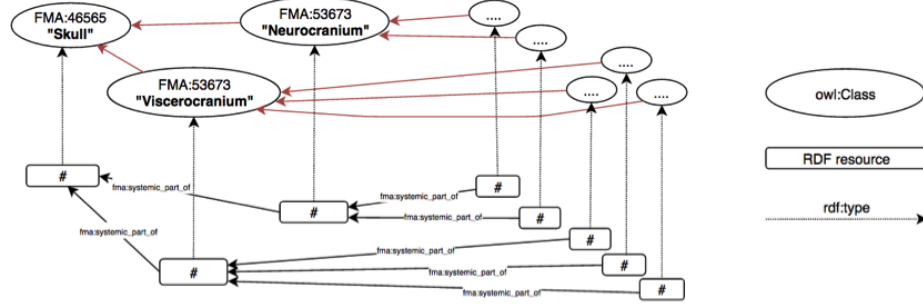


Figure 3.1: Ontology and triples of the skull

So we know how skull and its subdivision and bone organs are represented by RDF but, there are processes where specific bone segments have to be addressed as well. To be able to express this, RDFBones have the class *rdfbones:SegmentOfSkeletalElement*. This instance of this class is connected to the instances of the class *Bone Organ* with the property *fma:regional\_part\_of*.

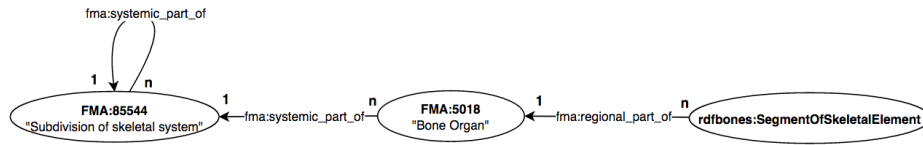


Figure 3.2: Bone segment in RDFBones

Furthermore these instances referring to skeletal remain do not stay in the database individually. If a researcher takes a specific skull from the collection of the institute it makes a so-called skeletal inventory, which records what bones are present in the skull. The information about the presence is stored in further instance called *Completeness 2 states*.

Here the really important point is not only values are added like the simple form of the previous examples, but some elements can be added or just or just leaved. This leads to more dynamic interfaces.

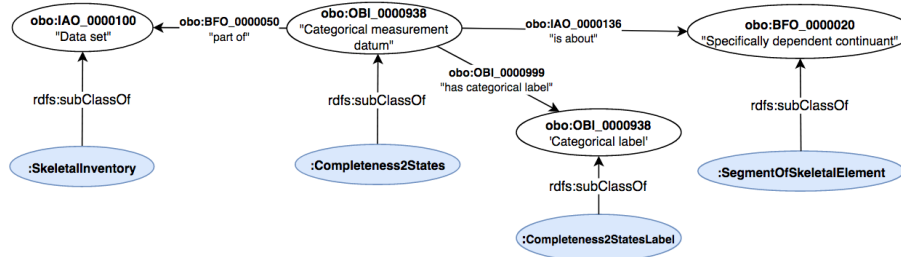


Figure 3.3: RDFBones as extension of OBI

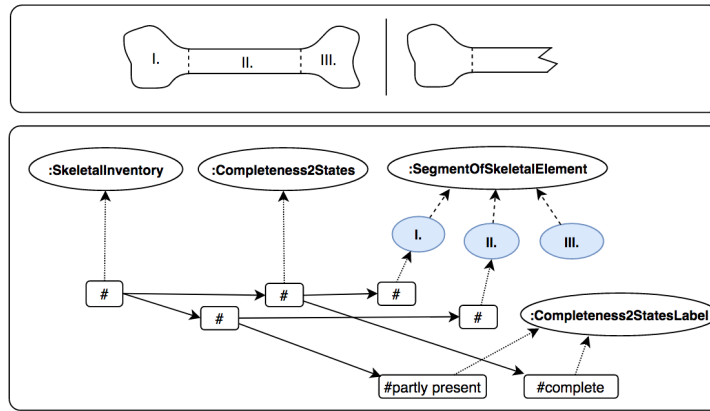


Figure 3.4: Custom bone segment example

#### 3.1.2 Study Design Execution

In most investigations the researcher take a set of bones belong to one individual and examine different tokens. Tokens refer to specific features of parts or regions of bones. These token have particular expressions.

The previous images show the token called glabella, and its expressions. The task of the web application is let the researcher select one of the already added Nasal Bones (because on that bone is the glabella token), and set the expression of it. The following data structure models the process.

Where the variable ?categoricalLabel represents the expression of the token. The values this variable can take are defined in the ontology extension. The variable ?boneSegment is the bone on which the glabella can be found. This instance won't be as well newly created, but an already added bone has to be selected on the interface. The ?assay and the ?meausurementDatum



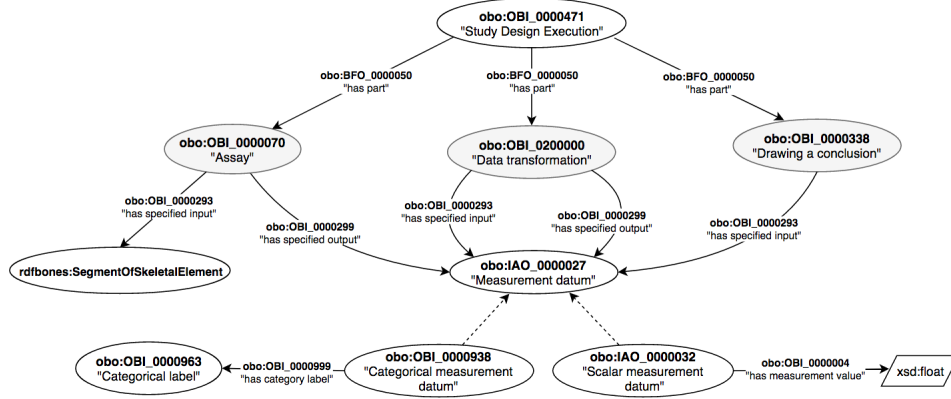


Figure 3.5: RDF Triple representation of a skull

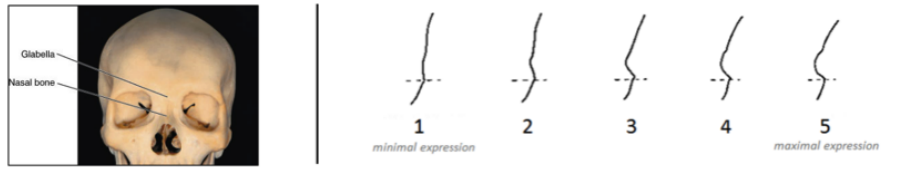


Figure 3.6: Glabella and its expressions

variables are new instances. To be able to generate an entry form for the problem, the following ontology extension has to be defined.

Mention that the task of the user is to add some elements if they exists or not.

#### 3.1.3 Ontology Extensions

It is often the case that in an investigation not only the bone itself, but also particular segments has to be addressed. However the bone segments of the bones are not standard, and they can differ according to researcher or research project. Therefore FMA do not contain any bone segment of the bone organs, and consequently we have to define it on our own. Important that the skeletal subdivision instances do not appear on the dataset on their own, but they are connected to Skeletal Inventories. Skeletal inventories are used to gather information about particular skeletal remains. The following image show the triple structure of skeletal inventories.

The variable ?skeletalInventory is the instance of the class `rdfbones:SkeletalInventory`,

### 3.1. Modeling anthropological research activity

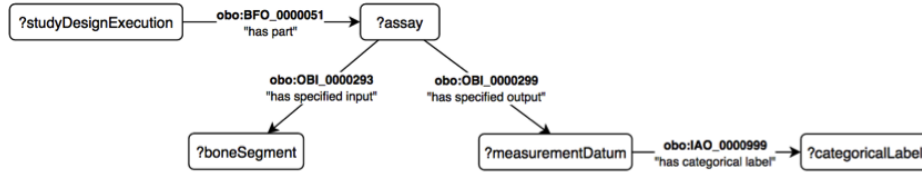


Figure 3.7: Study Design Execution Data Structure

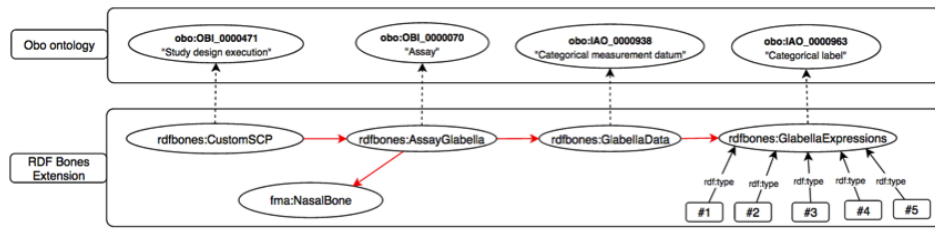


Figure 3.8: Ontology extension for Glabella

while the ?boneSegment is from the class `rdfbones:SegmentOfSkeletalElement`. The core ontology of the project contains a subclass of the `rdfbones:SkeletalInventory`, the `rdf:PrimarySkeletalInventory`. This skeletal inventory type is for skeletal remain collections where only the whole bone organs have to be addressed. The way to define custom bone segments is always through a custom skeletal inventories, which contains restrictions on the property `obo:isAbout` and on the class of custom bone segments. Of course the custom bone segments has to be assigned to the bone organ class they belong to, via restrictions on property `obo:systemic_part_of`. The following image illustrates the extension definition.

As these extensions are expressed by OWL restriction the application can query the definitions. Consequently if the custom entry form is called from the profile of a skeletal inventory instance, then the entry form processor routine can ask, what bone segment are defined to the type of the subject variable coming as input, and can offer them on the interface.



Figure 3.9: Skeletal Inventory Data Structure

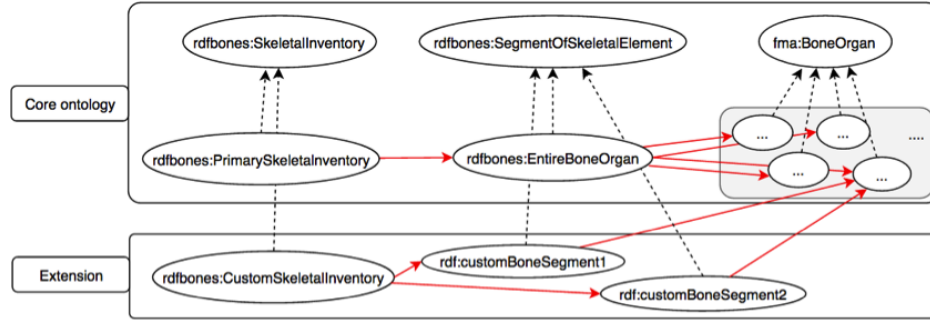


Figure 3.10: Ontology extension scheme

## 3.2 RDF Data input

### 3.2.1 Multi dimensional form

As it was addressed in the previous section each data input process of the application can be modeled by means of a tree style data structure. This means in terms of the data of the form, that just single key-value pairs like by the static HTML form is not sufficient for the problem. Therefore the task is provide such an interface that allows the user to add dynamically subforms, whose data object will be stored in arrays. Figure 3.12 illustrates the idea of the structure.

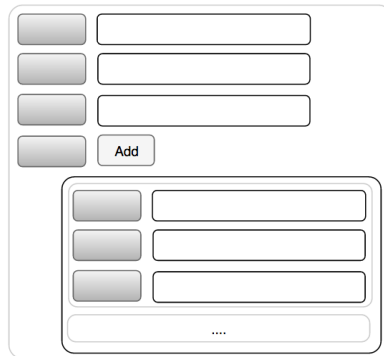


Figure 3.11: Multi dimensional form layout

So the forms consist of the selectors, and literalfield explained in the Chapter 1., but with an additional element that add further subforms. To achieve this JavaScript routine is required that adds the elements automatically and fills the form object with the data. The produced data of the form is looks as follows.

```
{
  key1 : "value1",
  key2 : "value2",
  ...
  subFormKey1 : [
    {
      key1_1 : "value1_1",
      ...
    }, { ... } ]
}
```

Listing 3.1: JSON object of the form

```
{
  skeletalSubdivisionUri : "FMA:46565",
  sytemic_parts : [{
    uri : "FMA:53672",
    systemic_parts : [{
      uri : "FMA:52788", //Right parietal bone
    } , { ... } ]
  } , { ... } ]
}
```

Listing 3.2: data representing skull

### 3.2.2 Form dependencies

These dependencies can occur not only between subforms but as well by in form dependencies where the selector elements can change based on selections.

### 3.2.3 Instance browsing

- Figure 3.13 shows a further option for instance selection.

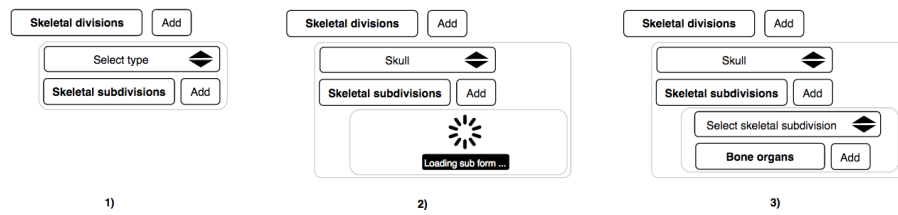


Figure 3.12: Subform dependencies

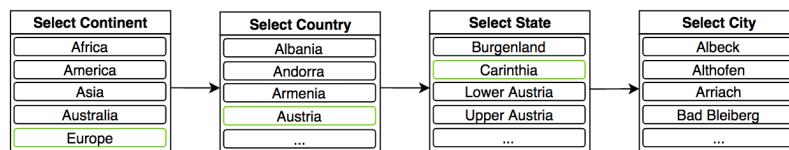


Figure 3.13: Navigator example

- The implementation requires on the server side query and the grouping of the result
- Client side - programming the navigator window

### 3.2.4 Validation

As by each form there is required field - required - restrictions The client has to get the information, about restrictions, and so

### 3.2.5 Editing form data

As it was already addressed in section ??, the dataset created by the forms have to be edited as well. By editing, the HTTP request calling the entry form contains an additional field, namely the *objectUri*. Based on the data model of the form, the server has to prepare the dataset, in our case a JSON object. The challenge of the server implementation is that in such multi dimensional dataset, it is not sufficient to perform only one query for the whole form data.

```
SELECT ?a ?b
WHERE {
  ?objectUri p1 ?a .
  ?objectUri p2 ?b .
```

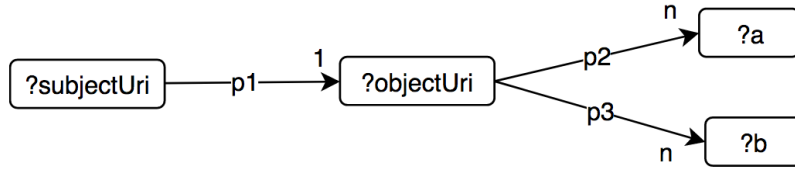


Figure 3.14: Example data model

?a	?b
a1	b1
a1	b2
a2	b1
a2	b2

Table 3.1: SPARQL Result

```

FILTER ( ?objectUri = <inputParameter> )
}

```

Listing 3.3: SPARQL query for the form data

The example data model from Figure 3.14 helps to understand the problem in more detail. If the SPARQL query on Listing 3.3 for variables ?a and ?b with incoming *objectUri* value were executed, then result table of the query is inconvenient to process. For example if there are two instances for both ?a and ?b present in the dataset, then the result table contains  $2 \times 2 = 4$  elements (Table 3.1).

Therefore the data object of the form has to be retrieved gradually, by dividing the data model graph by the predicates, whose cardinality is larger than one.

The next step after that the server has prepared the multi dimensional JSON object for the client, is to restore the state of the form, in which it was submitted by the user. This requires firstly the filling of the fields with the existing values, and adding the sub forms based on the arrays. Secondly the options of the selectors must be loaded, so that they conform to the dependencies explained in section 3.2.2.

Finally if a value of selector or literal field changes, or new sub forms has to be added or removed, the entry form data should not be completely sent again to the server, but only the data fields that are concerned by the modification. Thus it does not require a complete page reload, and these operation can be performed through AJAX calls. To achieve this the client has to be prepared to be able to send data modification requests to the server on change event of any form element or sub form.

### 3.2.6 Saving data





# Appendix A

## Glossary

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

### Symbols

---

\$ US. dollars.

### A

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A Meaning of A.

### B

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### C

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### D

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# 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

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich diese Abschlussarbeit selbständig verfasst habe, keine anderen als die angegebenen Quellen/Hilfsmittel verwendet habe und alle Stellen, die wörtlich oder sinngemäß aus veröffentlichten Schriften entnommen wurden, als solche kenntlich gemacht habe. Darüber hinaus erkläre ich, dass diese Abschlussarbeit nicht, auch nicht auszugsweise, bereits für eine andere Prüfung angefertigt wurde.

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