

Semantic Web Technologies: From Theory to Standards

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Abstract. This paper summarises the evolution of W3C standards in the area of Semantic Web technologies, as well as gaps within these standards still to be filled in terms of standardisation. Moreover, we give a subjective survey of the most influential scientific works which have contributed to the development of these standards and to closing the gaps between them. The Semantic Web proves to become an interesting application field for Artificial Intelligence; we aim here at both giving an overview of own work in the area as well as providing an entry point for researchers interested in the foundations of Semantic Web standards and technologies.

1 Introduction – The Semantic Web Architecture

The Semantic Web is about to grow up. Over the last few years technologies and standards to build up the architecture of this next generation of the Web have matured and are being deployed on large scale in many live Web sites. The underlying technology stack of the Semantic Web consists of several standards endorsed by the World Wide Web consortium (W3C) that provide the formal underpinings of a machine-readable “Web of Data” [94]:

- A Uniform Exchange Syntax: the eXtensible Markup Language (XML)
- A Uniform Data Exchange Format: the Resource Description Framework (RDF)
- Ontologies: RDF Schema and the Web Ontology Language (OWL)
- Rules: the Rule interchange format (RIF)
- Query and Transformation Languages: XQuery, SPARQL

The eXtensible Markup Language (XML) Starting from the pure HTML Web which mainly facilitated the exchange of layout information for Web pages only, the introduction of the eXtensible Markup Language (XML) in its first edition in 1998 [19] meant a breakthrough for Web technologies. With XML as a uniform exchange syntax, any semi-structured data can be modeled as a tree. Along with available APIs, parsers and other tools, XML allows one to define various other Web languages besides HTML. XML nowadays is not only the basis for Web data, but also for Web services [45] and is used in many custom applications as a convenient data exchange syntax. Schema description languages such as XML Schema [112] can be used to define XML languages; expressive query and transformation languages such as XQuery [27] and XSLT [68] allow for querying specific parts of an XML tree, or for transforming one XML language into another.

The Resource Description Framework (RDF) The *Resource Description Framework* (RDF) – now around for over a decade already as well – is the basic data model for the Semantic Web. It is built upon one of the simplest structures for representing data: a directed labeled graph. An RDF graph is described by a set of triples of the form $\langle \textit{Subject Predicate Object} \rangle$, also called *statements*, which represent the edges of this graph. Anonymous nodes in this graph – so called-blank nodes, akin to existential variables – allow one to also model incomplete information. RDF’s flat graph-like representation has the advantage of abstracting away from the data schema, and thus promises to allow for easier integration than customised XML data in different XML dialects: whereas the integration of different XML languages requires the transformation between different tree structures using transformation languages such as XSLT [68] or XQuery [27], different RDF graphs can simply be stored and queried alongside one another, and as soon as they share common nodes, form a joint graph upon a simple merge operation. While the normative syntax to exchange RDF, RDF/XML [13], is an XML dialect itself, there are various other serialisation formats for RDF, such as RDFa [1], a format that allows one to embed RDF within (X)HTML, or non-XML representations such as the more readable Turtle [14] syntax; likewise RDF stores (e.g. YARS2 [54]) normally use their own, proprietary internal representations of triples, that do not relate to XML at all.

RDF Schema and the Web Ontology Language (OWL) Although RDF itself is essentially schema-less, additional standards such as RDF Schema and OWL facilitate formal descriptions of the relations between the terms used in an RDF graph: i.e., the predicates in an RDF triple which form edges in an RDF graph (properties) and types of subject or object nodes in an RDF graph (classes). Formal descriptions of these properties and classes can be understood as logical theories, also called ontologies, which allow systems to infer new connections in an RDF graph, or link otherwise unconnected RDF graphs. Standard languages to describe ontologies on the Web are

- RDF Schema [20] – a lightweight ontology language that allows one to describe essentially simple class hierarchies, as well as the domains and ranges of properties; and
- the Web Ontology language (OWL) [108] which was first published in 2004 and recently has been extended with additional useful features in the OWL2 [56] standard.

OWL offers richer means than RDF Schema to define formal relations between classes and properties, such as intersection and union of classes, value restrictions or cardinality restrictions. OWL2 offers even more features such as, for instance, the ability to define keys, property chains, or meta-modeling (i.e., speaking about classes as instances).

The Rule Interchange Format (RIF) Although ontology languages such as OWL(2) offer a rich set of constructs to describe relations between RDF terms, these languages are still insufficient to express complex mappings between ontologies, which may better be described in terms of rule languages. The lack of standards in this area had been addressed by several proposals for rule languages on top of RDF, such as the Semantic Web Rule language (SWRL) [62], WRL [6], or N3 [12,15]. These languages offer, for example, support for non-monotonic negation, or rich sets of built-in functions. The importance of rule languages – also outside the narrow use case of RDF rules – has finally lead to the establishment of another W3C working group in 2005 to standardise a generic Rule Interchange Format (RIF). RIF has recently reached proposed recommendation status and will soon be a W3C recommendation. The standard comprises several dialects such as (i)

RIF Core [17], a minimal dialect close to Datalog, (ii) the RIF Basic Logic Dialect (RIF-BLD) [18] which offers the expressive features of Horn rules, and also (iii) a production rules dialect (RIF-PRD) [35]. A set of standard datatypes as well as built-in functions and predicates (RIF-DTB) are defined in a separate document [92]. The relation of RIF to OWL and RDF is detailed in another document [31] that defines the formal semantics of combinations of RIF rule sets with RDF graphs and OWL ontologies.

Query and Transformation Language: SPARQL Finally, a crucial puzzle piece which pushed the recent wide uptake of Semantic Web technologies at large was the availability of a standard query language for RDF, namely SPARQL [97], which plays the same role for the Semantic Web as SQL does for relational data. SPARQL's syntax is roughly inspired by Turtle [14] and SQL [109], providing basic means to query RDF such as unions of conjunctive queries, value filtering, optional query parts, as well as slicing and sorting results. The recently re-chartered SPARQL1.1 W3C working group¹ aims at extending the original SPARQL language by commonly requested features such as aggregates, sub-queries, negation, and path expressions.

2 Scientific foundations for Semantic Web Standards

The work in the respective standardisation groups is partially still ongoing or only finished very recently. In parallel, there has been plenty of work in the scientific community to define the formal underpinnings for these standards:

- The logical foundations and properties of RDF and RDF Schema have been investigated in detail [83,52,89]. Correspondence of the formal semantics of RDF and RDF Schema [55] with Datalog and First-order logic have been studied in the literature [21,22,66].
- The semantics of standard fragments of OWL have been defined in terms of expressive Description Logics such as *SHOIN(D)* (OWL DL) [61] or *SROIQ(D)* (OWL2DL) [60], and the research on OWL has significantly influenced the Description Logics community over the past years: for example, in defining tractable fragments like the \mathcal{EL} [8,9] family of Description Logics, or fragments that allow for reducing basic reasoning tasks to query answering in SQL, such as the DL-Lite family of Description Logics [26]. Other fragments of OWL and OWL2 have been defined in terms of Horn rules such as DLP [51], OWL⁻ [34], pD* [110], or Horn-SHIQ [72]. In fact, the new OWL2 specification defines tractable fragments of OWL based on these results: namely, OWL2EL, OWL2QL, and OWL2RL [79].
- The semantics of RIF builds on foundations such as Frame Logic [70] and Datalog. RIF borrows, e.g., notions of Datalog safety from the scientific literature to define fragments with finite minimal models despite the presence of built-ins: the *strongly-safe* fragment of RIF Core [17, Section 6.2] is inspired by a similar safety condition defined by Eiter, Schindlauer, et al. [39,103]. In fact, the closely related area of decidable subsets of Datalog and answer set programs with function symbols is a very active field of research [10,42,25].
- The formal semantics of SPARQL is also very much inspired by academic results, such as by the seminal papers of Pérez et al. [85,86]. Their work further lead to refined results on equivalences within SPARQL [104] and on the relation of SPARQL to Datalog [91,90]. Angles and Gutierrez [7] later showed that SPARQL has exactly the expressive power of non-recursive safe Datalog with negation.

¹ <http://www.w3.org/2009/sparql/wiki>

Likewise, the scientific community has identified and addressed gaps between the Semantic Web standards and the formal paradigms they are based on, which we want turn to next.

3 Gaps in the Semantic Web Architecture

Although the standards that make up the Semantic Web architecture have all been established by the W3C, they do not always integrate smoothly, indeed these standards had yet to prove useful “in the wild”, i.e., to be applied on real Web data. Particularly, the following significant gaps have been identified in various works over the past years:

- Gap 1: XML vs. RDF** The jump from XML, which is a mere syntax format, to RDF, which is more declarative in nature, is not trivial, but needs to be addressed by appropriate – yet missing – transformation languages for exchanging information between RDF-based and XML-based applications.
- Gap 2: RDF vs. OWL** The clean conceptual model of Description Logics underlying the OWL semantics is not necessarily applicable directly to all RDF data, particularly to messy, potentially inconsistent data as found on the Web.
- Gap 3: RDF/OWL vs. Rules/RIF** There are several theoretical and practical concerns in combining ontologies and rules, such as decidability issues or how to merge classical open world reasoning with non-monotonic closed world inference. The current RIF specification leaves many of these questions open, subject to ongoing research.
- Gap 4: SPARQL vs. RDF Schema/RIF/OWL** Query answering over ontologies and rules and subtopics such as the semantics of SPARQL queries over RDF Schema and OWL ontologies, or querying over combinations of ontologies with RIF rulesets are still neglected by the current standards.

In the following, we will discuss these gaps in more depth, point out how they have been addressed in scientific works so far, including own contributions.

Gap 1: XML vs. RDF Although RDF’s original normative syntax is an XML dialect, it proves impractical to view an RDF graph as an XML document: e.g., when trying to transform XML data in a custom format into RDF (lifting) or, respectively, RDF data into a specific XML schema (lowering) as may be required by a Web service: while W3C’s SAWSDL [44] an GRDDL [29] working groups originally proposed XSLT for these tasks, the various ambiguous formats that RDF/XML can take to represent the same graph form an obstacle for defining uniform transformations [3]: to some extent, treating an RDF graph as an XML document contradicts the declarative nature of RDF. Several proposals to overcome the limitations in lifting and lowering by XSLT include (i) compiling SPARQL queries into XSLT [50], (ii) sequential applications of SPARQL and XSLT queries (via the intermediate step of SPARQL’s result format [28], another XML format), or (iii) the extension of XSLT by special RDF access features [114] or SPARQL blocks [16]. Our own proposal – XSPARQL [3,2] – is a new language integrating SPARQL and XQuery; this approach has the advantage of blending two languages that are conceptually very similar and facilitates more concise translations than the previous approaches. XSPARQL has recently been acknowledged as a member submission by the W3C [95,71,75,84].

Gap 2: RDF vs. OWL There is a certain “schism” between the core Semantic Web and Description Logics communities on what OWL shall be: the description of an ontology in RDF for RDF data, or an RDF exchange format for Description Logic theories. This schism manifests itself in the W3C’s two orthogonal semantic specifications for OWL: OWL2’s RDF-based semantics [105], which directly builds upon RDF’s model-theoretic

semantics [55], and OWL2's direct semantics [80], which builds upon the Description Logics *SRIQ* but is not defined for all RDF graphs. Both of them address different use cases; however, particular analyses on Web Data have shown [11,58] that pure OWL(2) in its Description Logics based semantics is not practically applicable: (i) in published Web data we find a lot of non-DL ontologies [11], which only leave to apply the RDF-based semantics; (ii) data and ontologies found on the Web spread across different sources contain a lot of inconsistencies, which – in case one aims to still make sense out of this data – prohibits complete reasoning using Description Logics [58]; (iii) finally, current DL reasoners cannot deal with the amounts of instance data found on the Web, which is in the order of billions of statements. Our own most recent approach – SAOR (Scalable Authoritative OWL Reasoner) [59] – aims at addressing these problems. SAOR provides incomplete, but arguably meaningful inferences over huge data sets crawled from the Web, based on rule-based OWL reasoning inspired by earlier approaches such as pD*[110], with further cautious modifications. Hogan and Decker [57] have later compared this approach to the new standard rule-based OWL2RL [79] profile, coming to the conclusion that OWL2RL, as a maximal fragment of OWL2 that can be formalised purely with Horn rules, runs into similar problems as Description Logics reasoning when taken as a basis for reasoning over Web data without the further modifications proposed in SAOR. An orthogonal approach to reason with real Web data [36] – also proposed by the author of this work together with Delbru, Tummarello and Decker – is likewise based on pD*, but applies inference in a modular fashion per dataset rather than over entire Web crawls.

Gap 3: RDF/OWL vs. Rules/RIF Issues on combining RDF and/or OWL with rules, and particularly with rule sets expressed in RIF, have so far mostly been discussed on a theoretical level, perhaps because there has not yet been time enough for meaningful adoption of RIF on the Web.

One strand of these discussions is concerned with extending RDF with rules and constraints, in terms of either suggesting new non-standard rule languages for RDF to publish such rules [106,15,5,6,4], or theoretical considerations such as redundancy elimination with rules and constraints on top of RDF [78,88]. An interesting side issue here concerns rule languages that allow existentials in the head such as RDFLog [23], or more recently Datalog^{+/-} [24], which may in fact be viewed as a viable alternative or complement to purely Description Logics based ontology languages. Non-monotonicity – which is not considered in OWL, but is available in most of the suggested rule languages for RDF [5,15,6] by incorporating a form of “negation as failure” – has sparked a lot of discussions in the Semantic Web community, since it was viewed as inadequate for an open environment such as the Web by some, whereas others (including the author of the present work) argued that “scoped negation” [69,93] – that is, non-monotonic negation applied over a fixed, scoped part of the Web – was very useful for many Web data applications. This is closely related to what Etzioni et al. [43] called the “local closed world assumption” in earlier work.

Another quite significant strand of research has developed on the theoretical combination of Description Logics and (non-monotonic) rules in a joint logical framework. While the naïve combination of even Horn rules without function symbols and ontologies in quite inexpressive Description Logics loses the desirable decidability properties of the latter [74], there have been several proposals for decidable fragments of this combination [51,82,72] or even extending the idea of such decidable combinations to rules with non-monotonic negation [98,99,101,81,77]. Another decidable approach was to define the semantic interplay between ontologies and rules via a narrow, query-like interface within rule bodies [40]. Aside from considerations about decidability, there have been several proposals for what would be the right logical framework to embed combinations

of classical logical theories (which DL ontologies fall into) and non-monotonic rule languages. These include approaches based on MKNF [81], FO-AEL [32], or Quantified Equilibrium Logics (QEL) [33]. For an overview of issues concerned with combining ontologies and rules, we also refer to surveys of existing approaches in [38,37,100].

As a side note, it should be mentioned that rule-based/resolution-based reasoning has been very successfully applied in implementing Description Logics or OWL reasoners in approaches such as KAON2 [63] and DLog [76] which significantly outperform tableaux-based DL reasoners on certain problems (particularly instance reasoning).

Gap 4: SPARQL vs. RDF Schema/RIF/OWL SPARQL has in its official specification only been defined as a query language over RDF graphs, not taking into account RDF Schema, OWL ontologies or RIF rule sets. Although the official specification defines frame conditions for extending SPARQL by higher entailment regimes [97, Section 12.6], few works have actually instantiated this mechanism and defined how SPARQL should handle ontologies and rule sets.

As for OWL, conjunctive query answering over expressive description logics is a topic of active research in the Description Logics Community, with important insights only being very recent [41,47,46,73], none of which yet having covered the Description Logics underlying OWL(2), *SHOIN*(D) and *SROIQ*(D). Answering full SPARQL queries on top of OWL has only preliminarily been addressed in the scientific community [107,67] so far.

In terms of SPARQL on top of RDF in combination with rule sets, the choices are more obvious. Firstly, as mentioned above, SPARQL itself can be translated to non-recursive rules – more precisely into non-recursive Datalog with negation [91,7]. Secondly, expanding on the translation from [91], additional RDF rule sets that guarantee a finite closure, such as Datalog style rules on top of RDF, can be allowed, covering a significant subset of RIF or rule-based approximations of RDFS and OWL [65,64].

One should mention here that certain SPARQL queries themselves may be read as rules: that is, SPARQL's CONSTRUCT queries facilitate the generation of new RDF triples (defined in a CONSTRUCT template that plays the role of the rule head), based on the answers to a graph pattern (that plays the role of a rule body). This idea has been the basis for proposals to extend RDF to so-called Networked Graphs [102] or Extended RDF graphs [96], that enable the inclusion of implicit knowledge defined as SPARQL CONSTRUCT queries. We have also proposed to extend RDF graphs in such fashions as an expressive means to define ontology mappings [96].

The recently started W3C SPARQL1.1 working group has published a working draft summarising first results on defining an OWL entailment regime for SPARQL [49], which, although worth to be mentioned, will not necessarily encompass full conjunctive queries with non-distinguished variables.

4 Conclusions

The present paper tried to summarise current developments and trends in terms of Semantic Web standards, highlighting gaps between these standards and surveying scientific works that have provided foundations to these standards or promise to close these gaps. We hope this subjective selection serves as an entry point for the interested reader. The work presented has been supported in parts by (i) Science Foundation Ireland – under the L on (SFI/02/CE1/I131) and L on-2 (SFI/08/CE/I1380) projects. The author especially thanks all co-authors of own works cited in this paper.

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