

RDF Tutorial

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Introduction

This document is a presentation of the *Resource Description Framework* (RDF) recommended by the *World Wide Web Consortium* (W3C), to model meta-data about the resources of the web. It is described in both documents [1] and [2]; the former focuses on syntactical aspects while the later addresses the definition of vocabularies (often named *schemas*). Though this is a pragmatic approach, I will use a slightly different plan, more suited to my own goals (using RDF in knowledge representation systems). The first section will describe the RDF model, which is its fundamental syntax. The second section will present the semantic aspects of RDF, the concepts and the corresponding vocabulary. The last section will describe the XML syntax proposed in [1].

1 Model

1.1 URIs

RDF identifies resources with *Uniform Resource Identifiers* (URI) as described in [?], but with a slight difference: RDF uses what we will call *qualified URIs*, that is, URIs with an optional fragment identifier (a text added to the URI with a "#" between them). For [?], the fragment identifier returns “a property of the data resulting from a retrieval action”; however, RDF considers every qualified URI (with or without fragment identifier) as a full resource by itself¹. In the rest of this tutorial, we will therefore use the word “resource” in the RDF point of view, unless specified otherwise.

¹It could then lead to more than one fragment identifier in a URI... This would not be incompatible with [?] but I've never seen such URI used.

1.2 Triples and graph

The base element of the RDF model is the triple : a resource (the *subject*) is linked to another resource (the *object*) through an arc labeled with a third resource (the *predicate*). We will say that $\langle \text{subject} \rangle$ has a *property* $\langle \text{predicate} \rangle$ *valued* by $\langle \text{object} \rangle$. For example, the triple in figure 1 could be read as “Champin is the creator of index.html”.

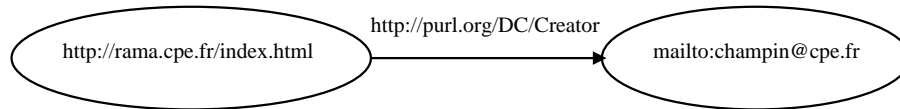


Figure 1: A triple

All the triples result in a direct graph, whose nodes and arcs are all labeled with qualified URIs. Note in figure 2 that a resource may have more than one value for a given property.

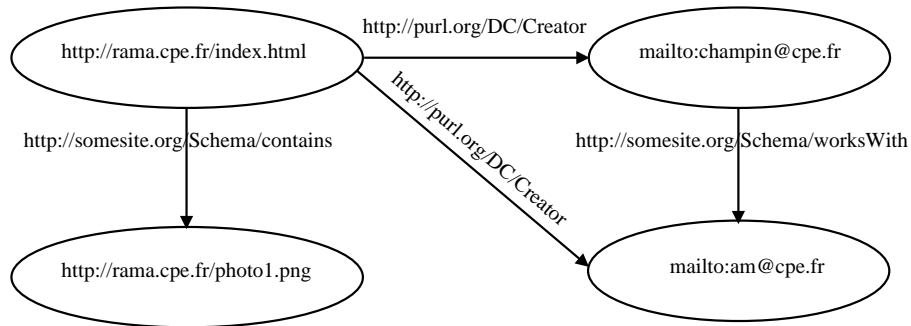


Figure 2: An RDF graph

1.3 Literals

In the RDF recommendation, targets of the graph can be pieces of text instead of resources; those pieces of text are called literals. Though this is syntactically useful in RDF documents (being able to write directly some text rather than storing it in another resource), I think handling it as an exception to the model is not appropriate, and that there is a cleaner way of doing it: the piece of text probably has a fragment identifier² and so the

²In an XML syntax, *XPointer* ([3]) could be used.

literal node could be replaced by a standard URI node in the RDF graph. Note that this alternative is compatible with the recommendation since it uses a subset of the model.

1.4 Uniformity

The RDF model is very simple and, above all, uniform. Mostly, the fact that the only vocabulary is URIs allows the use of the same URI as a node *and* as an arc label. This makes things like self-reference and reification possible, just like in natural languages. This is appreciable in a user-oriented context (like the web), but may become difficult to cope with in knowledge-based systems and inference engines.

2 Concepts and vocabulary

We can distinguish three kinds of concepts in RDF: fundamental concepts, schema-definition concepts (useful for defining new vocabularies) and utility concepts (concepts which are not absolutely necessary, but likely to be useful in any application domain).

All these concepts have been given a URI. These URIs are defined as fragment identifiers of the URIs of the W3C documents defining RDF. For the sake of clarity, we will rather use the XML non-expanded notation ; that is, prefixes `rdf:` and `rdfs:` will be used instead of

`http://www.w3.org/TR/1999/REC-rdf-syntax-19990222#` and

`http://www.w3.org/TR/1999/PR-rdf-schema-19990303#` respectively. The membership of one or the other namespace may not always seem logical, and must have historical reasons mostly.

2.1 Fundamental concepts

2.1.1 `rdf:Resource`

RDF is about describing resources ; according to [1], “resources are always named by URIs” and “anything can have a URI”. So RDF can theoretically be used to describe anything. Yet it was mainly designed to handle “network retrievable” resources.

[?] underlines that “the resource is the conceptual mapping to an entity (...), not necessarily the entity which corresponds to that mapping *at any particular instance in time*”. However most of the time we are interested in entities themselves. It is therefore important to note that the meta-data we

express about resources may require different levels of interpretation, which may be valid in a certain context only.

For example, the URI `http://www.w3.org/Icons/WWW/w3c_main` returns the W3C logo in the PNG or GIF format, depending on the browser being used. Another example is a daily weather report, whose URL would return a different page each day.

It follows that interpretation of resources (and therefore of RDF triples) is highly contextual. We can define the notion of *stable resource* as follows: stability for a resource is the property of being the same in any context, from the point of view of a user (or a community of users). This definition is still very contextual: it is dependant on the users we are considering, more precisely on the task they have to accomplish.

For example, from the point of view of a standard reader, the W3C logo is stable, since the GIF and PNG versions look the same, but the weather report is not stable. On the other hand, someone interested only in image formats may consider the W3C logo unstable and the weather report stable — assuming the weather report is always generating images in the same format.

However, in most applications, the task is less likely to change than the retrieving context, thus the stability assumption may be valuable.

2.1.2 `rdf:Property`

The properties are resources used as predicate of triples; the semantics of a triple clearly depends on the property used as predicate. Two things are very important with the concept of property:

First, RDF considers properties as first class object, unlike most object modeling languages, where properties are attributes of a class. Even though the concept of class exists in RDF (see subsection 2.2), properties can be defined and used independently of classes.

Secondly, as it has been mentioned in subsection 1.4, the fact that properties are resources allows to describe them with RDF itself. This will be widely used by the following concepts.

2.1.3 `rdf:Statement`

A statement is a resource reifying a triple. Such a resource must have at least 3 properties³: `rdf:subject`, `rdf:object` and `rdf:predicate`, valued by the

³Actually, [1] defines a fourth property for statements, `rdf:type`, which must be valued by `rdf:Statement`. Since this is generalized by the concept of Class in [2], we don't mention

corresponding resources.

The reification of triples may seem a utility concept rather than a fundamental concept. Nevertheless it is defined as a part of the model in the W3C recommendation. This supports the will to use RDF as its own meta-system, to make every element of RDF describable in RDF itself.

2.2 Schema definition concepts

All those concepts are defined in [2], the second document of the W3C, to allow the definition of schemas, that is, vocabularies of resources to use with RDF. Not all agents will need to be aware of these concepts : specialized agents, limited to using a predefined vocabulary, will not.

In schemas, new resources can be defined as *specialization* of old ones, thus allowing to infer implicit triples. Schemas also constrain the context in which defined resources may be used, inducing the notion of *schema validity*. We will see that those two notions can be seen as one, in a point of view based on first-order logic. They all can be expressed as rules allowing to infer new facts (basically, new triples or *negations* of triples). In these rules, the 3-ary logical predicate $\mathcal{T}(\textit{subject}, \textit{predicate}, \textit{object})$ will be used to represent a believed triple.

2.2.1 rdfs:subPropertyOf

Any property denotes a relation between resources (the set of resource couples linked by an arc labeled with the property). `rdfs:subPropertyOf` applies to properties and must be interpreted as the subset relation between the relations they denote. Thus the following rule stands:

$$\forall s, p_1, o, p_2 \quad \mathcal{T}(s, p_1, o) \wedge \mathcal{T}(p_1, \textit{rdfs:subPropertyOf}, p_2) \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}(s, p_2, o)$$

For example, if “mother” is a sub-property of “parent”, any triple having “mother” as predicate must also be considered as having “parent” as predicate. This property is very important in schema definitions for interoperability between RDF agents. In the example above, an agent not knowing the semantics of “mother” could at least treat it as “parent” (assuming it knows the semantics of “parent”).

Since `rdfs:subPropertyOf` denotes a subset relation, the transitivity rule also stands:

$$\forall p_1, p_2, p_3$$

it here.

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathcal{T}(p_1, \text{rdfs:subPropertyOf}, p_2) \wedge \mathcal{T}(p_2, \text{rdfs:subPropertyOf}, p_3) \\ & \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}(p_1, \text{rdf:subPropertyOf}, p_3) \end{aligned}$$

Note that it is considered invalid by [2] to have cycles in `rdfs:subPropertyOf`, though it doesn't define a way to express this constraint in RDF⁴. Anyway, the corresponding logical rule is the following (since any cycle would result, with transitivity, in a property being its own sub-property):

$$\forall p \neg \mathcal{T}(p, \text{rdfs:subPropertyOf}, p)$$

Note also that there is no standard URI for the universal property (super-property of any property).

2.2.2 `rdfs:Class`, `rdf:type` and `rdfs:subClassOf`

Classes are resources denoting a set of resources, by the mean of the property `rdf:type` (instances have property `rdf:type` valued by the class). Since all sets of resources presented in this section are resources (they have a URI), they have by definition the property `rdf:type` valued by `rdfs:Class`. On the other hand, all properties (defined in W3C recommendation or in any schema) have `rdf:type` valued by `rdf:Property`.

Classes are structured the same way as properties, in a subset hierarchy denoted by the property `rdfs:subClassOf`. As for `rdfs:subPropertyOf`, cycles must not exist though it could be used to express equivalence, but contrary to the property hierarchy, the class hierarchy has a maximum element: it is of course `rdf:Resource` (so any class implicitly has `rdfs:subClassOf` valued by `rdf:Resource`). The following rules, similar to the rules related to `rdfs:subPropertyOf`, stand:

$$\begin{aligned} & \forall i, c_1, c_2 \mathcal{T}(i, \text{rdf:type}, c_1) \wedge \mathcal{T}(c_1, \text{rdfs:subClassOf}, c_2) \\ & \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}(i, \text{rdf:type}, c_2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \forall c_1, c_2, c_3 \mathcal{T}(c_1, \text{rdfs:subClassOf}, c_2) \wedge \mathcal{T}(c_2, \text{rdfs:subClassOf}, c_3) \\ & \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}(c_1, \text{rdfs:subClassOf}, c_3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\forall c \neg \mathcal{T}(c, \text{rdfs:subClassOf}, c)$$

⁴Furthermore, this constraint may seem too strong: cycles could be used to express equivalence between properties.

2.2.3 rdfs:domain and rdfs:range

These properties apply to properties and must be valued by classes. They are used to restrict the set of resources that may have a given property (the property’s *domain*) and the set of valid values for a property (its *range*). A property may have as many values for `rdfs:domain` as needed, but no more than one value for `rdfs:range`:

$$\forall p, r_1, r_2 \mathcal{T}(p, \text{rdfs:range}, r_1) \wedge r_1 \neq r_2 \Rightarrow \neg \mathcal{T}(p, \text{rdfs:range}, r_2)$$

For a triple to be valid, the object must match the range (if any) of the predicate (that is, it must have `rdf:type` valued by the corresponding class or one of its subclasses), and the subject must match at least one of the domains (if any) of the predicate (Note that if the predicate has super-properties, this must also be checked recursively for all of them). This can be logically expressed by:

$$\begin{aligned} & \forall s, p, o \mathcal{T}(s, p, o) \wedge \exists d \mathcal{T}(p, \text{rdfs:domain}, d) \\ \Rightarrow & \exists d' (\mathcal{T}(p, \text{rdfs:domain}, d') \wedge \mathcal{T}(s, \text{rdf:type}, d')) \end{aligned}$$

$$\forall s, p, o, r \mathcal{T}(s, p, o) \wedge \mathcal{T}(p, \text{rdfs:range}, r) \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}(o, \text{rdf:type}, r)$$

It is worth noting that, although these two rules are intended to be used for validity checking only, and the first one (`rdfs:domain` rule) can actually only be used this way (it can not be used to perform inference since its consequence is existentially qualified), the second one (`rdfs:range` rule) has different interpretations depending on our hypothesizing a closed or open world. In the closed world hypothesis, any missing triple is considered negated, so the `rdfs:range` rule has only to be verified. But in an open world hypothesis, missing triples are not necessarily false, so the rule could be used to perform inference instead. Since the “natural” field of RDF is the web, where information is by essence distributed and incomplete, the open world hypothesis seems much more reasonable.

2.2.4 rdfs:Literal

[2] defines a resource `rdfs:Literal`, denoting the set of literals, declared as a class (though literals are not resources, according to the recommendation!). Its intended use is to be the range of properties.

2.3 Utility concepts

These concepts may have been defined in external schemas, but since they are of very common use, they have been defined once for all in the core schema.

2.3.1 **rdfs:Container**

Containers are collections of resources. They are modeled by an instance of one of the three subclasses of `rdfs:Container`: `rdfs:Bag` (an unordered collection), `rdfs:Seq` (an ordered collection) or `rdfs:Alt` (an alternative). Membership is modeled by automatically generated properties `rdf:_1`, `rdf:_2`, *etc.* These properties are all instances of `rdfs:ContainerMembershipProperty`, a subclass of `rdf:Property`⁵.

This mechanism for modeling collections of resources is much controverted among RDF implementors: the numbering of membership properties is contentious especially when neither `rdfs:Bag` nor `rdfs:Alt` need an order relation between their members. Furthermore, these properties can not be expressed in any schema since there is an unbounded number of them. This can even cause infinite loops in agents using the XML syntax (see annex A).

2.3.2 **rdfs:ConstraintResource and rdfs:ConstraintProperty**

It can be interesting for an RDF agent to be informed that an unknown resource (or more specifically a property) is defining a validity constraint. The set of such resources is `rdfs:ConstraintResource`. Its subclass `rdfs:ConstraintProperty` is of course a subclass of `rdf:Property` too. Properties `rdfs:domain` and `rdfs:range` defined above are instances of `rdfs:ConstraintProperty`.

2.3.3 **rdfs:seeAlso and rdfs:isDefinedBy**

A given resource may be described in more than one place over the internet. The `rdfs:seeAlso` property can be used to point to alternative descriptions of the subject resource. Its sub-property `rdfs:isDefinedBy` more specifically points to an original or authoritative description.

2.3.4 **rdfs:label and rdfs:comment**

It can be useful to describe a resource with human readable text in addition to “pure” RDF properties ; this is the role of `rdfs:label` and `rdfs:comment`. The former is used to give a human-readable name of a resource, the latter, to give a longer description. Note that they may have multiple values for internationalization needs.

⁵a common super-property, in my opinion, would have been more useful than a class, to federate those membership properties.

3 XML syntax

This section describes the XML syntax recommended by [1] (we assume that the reader is already familiar with XML). It uses XML namespace notations ([4]), but expanded names are obtained simply by concatenating the namespace to the element name. Hence we will use the same convention as in the previous section for prefixes `rdf:` and `rdfs:`.

3.1 Descriptions

An RDF document is a list of descriptions. Each description applies usually to one resource, and contains a list of properties. Property values are either URIs, literals or others Descriptions.

In XML, RDF meta-data are embedded in an element named `rdf:RDF`. This element contains a sequence of elements named `rdf:Description`. Those elements can have one of the two attributes `rdf:about` or `rdf:ID` (but not both).

- `rdf:about` is used to describe any resource ; its value is either an absolute or a relative URI.

```
<rdf:Description about="http://rama.cpe.fr/index.html">  
  ...  
</rdf:Description>
```

- `rdf:ID` is used to define a resource ; its value is a fragment identifier (without the `"#"` character) to be added to the XML document URI. A resource may not be defined more than once.

```
<rdf:Description ID="foo">  
  ...  
</rdf:Description>
```

- a description without `rdf:about` nor `rdf:ID` is said to describe an *anonymous* resource.

```
<rdf:Description>  
  ...  
</rdf:Description>
```

An element `rdf:Description` contains a sequence of XML elements. Those elements are interpreted as properties, whose predicate's URI is the expanded

name of the element. If the element is empty, it must have an attribute `rdf:resource` whose value is the object's URI (see 1st `dc:Creator` in fig.3). Else, it can contain plain text (then interpreted as a literal - see `dc:Title` in fig.3) or a single embedded `rdf:Description` element (see 2nd `dc:Creator` in fig.3).

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8" ?>
<rdf:RDF xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"
  xmlns:dc="http://purl.org/DC/"
  xmlns:os="http://somesite.org/Schema/">
  <rdf:Description about="http://rama.cpe.fr/index.html">
    <dc:Creator rdf:resource="mailto:am@cpe.fr"/>
    <dc:Title> Index of my web site </dc:Title>
    <dc:Creator>
      <rdf:Description about="mailto:champin@cpe.fr">
        <os:worksWith rdf:resource="mailto:am@cpe.fr"/>
      </rdf:Description>
    </dc:Creator>
  </rdf:Description>
</rdf:RDF>
```

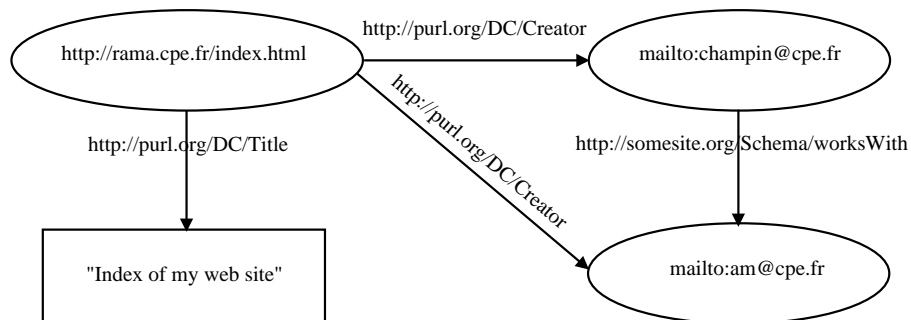


Figure 3: XML syntax simple example

In case of ambiguity, the attribute `rdf:parseType` can be used in property elements with "Resource" or "Literal" value. The later can be used when a literal contains XML tags, to prevent their being parsed as a description.

The syntax may also be abbreviated in two ways:

- the description element name may be replaced by any URI. It is interpreted as an additional `rdf:type` property, valued by the named resource. Note that the context always allows to differ a typed description element from a property element.

- properties with literal values may be written as attributes of the description element rather than an embedded elements.

For example, the following description:

```
<rdf:Description ID="fatherOf">
  <rdf:type rdf:resource=
    "http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#Property"/>
  <rdf:label> father of </rdf:label>
  <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="#parentOf">
</rdf:Description>
```

may be abbreviated into

```
<rdf:Property ID="fatherOf" rdfs:label="father of">
  <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="#parentOf">
</rdf:Description>
```

3.2 Containers

As mentioned in the previous section, RDF containers are defined as a part of the XML syntax. A container node is described with a special element named `rdf:Bag`, `rdf:Seq` or `rdf:Alt` (those elements can be used instead of `rdf:Description` elements). Those special descriptions can only have `rdf:ID` attribute or be anonymous, they can not have `rdf:about`.

Membership properties are not used as is, but instead the element `rdf:li` is used; the parser has to replace it by the appropriate numbered property. Figure 4 is an example of it.

3.3 Distributed descriptions

Instead of `rdf:about`, descriptions can also have attribute `rdf:aboutEach` or `rdf:aboutEachPrefix`. This allows to distribute a description over a set of resources.

- `rdf:aboutEach`'s value must be a container's URI; the corresponding description applies to every member of the container.
- `rdf:aboutEachPrefix`'s value is a string; the corresponding description applies to any resource whose URI starts with this string.

```

<?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8" ?>
<rdf:RDF xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#">
  <rdf:Bag ID="mybag">
    <rdf:li resource="http://rama.cpe.fr/index.html"/>
    <rdf:li resource="mailto:champin@cpe.fr"/>
    <rdf:li> literal element </rdf:li>
  </rdf:Bag>
</rdf:RDF>

```

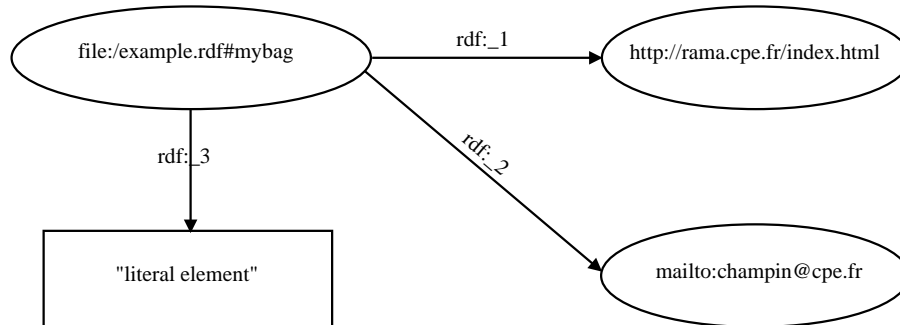


Figure 4: An RDF bag

Implementations of RDF are not bound to keep information about those distributive descriptions - this is only a syntactic shortcut. It may result in unexpected behaviours of some agents, as soon as more than one RDF source is involved (resources defined in a source may match a distributed description in another one, but not be detected as such).

Moreover, it is not specified whether distributed description may be embedded as property values. Though this possibility is never mentioned, the formal syntax allows it. A natural interpretation would be that the property is valued by every resource matching the distributed description.

3.4 Reification

The XML syntax of RDF provides a way to reify asserted statements: a single arc can be reified by adding an `rdf:ID` attribute to the property element, which will define the URI of the reified statement. On the other hand, every arc generated by a description can be reified by adding an `rdf:bagID` attribute to the Description. This defines the URI of a new bag resource, whose members are the reified statements.

A A naughty example

This trivial example is likely to lead most RDF parsers into an infinite loop:

```
[1] <?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8" ?>
[2] <rdf:RDF xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"
[3]         xmlns:rdfs:"http://www.w3.org/TR/1999/PR-rdf-schema-19990303#">
[4]   <rdfs:Class rdf:ID="WebResource"/>
[5]   <rdf:Description aboutEachPrefix="http:" bagID="bag">
[6]     <rdf:type resource="#WebResource"/>
[7]   </rdf:Description>
[8] </rdf:RDF>
```

Line 4 generates a resource `<this file>#WebResource`, then generates an arc between it and `rdfs:Class`, labeled with `rdf:type`.

Then the description lines 5 to 7 is parsed; at this point, there is at least one resource starting with "http:" (`rdfs:Class`). So the distributed description will generate at least one arc, which will be reified and stored in the bag.

But the storing in the bag will generate a membership property `rdf:_1`, which starts with "http:". So the distributed description will generate another arc, another reification stored in the bag, and another membership property. That may repeat forever.

It is very important for RDF parsers to be able to avoid those infinite loops; a simple solution is to prevent any membership property from matching `rdf:aboutEachPrefix` descriptions. A cleaner solution would be to use another schema for containers...

References

- [1] Ora Lassila and Ralph R. Swick. Resource Description Framework (RDF) Model and Syntax Specification. W3C recommendation, feb 1999. <http://www.w3.org/TR/1999/REC-rdf-syntax-19990222>.
- [2] Dan Brickley and R.V. Guha. Resource Description Framework (RDF) Schema Specification. W3C proposed recommendation, mar 1999. <http://www.w3.org/TR/1999/PR-rdf-schema-19990303>.
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- [4] Tim Bray, Dave Hollander, and Andrew Layman. Namespaces in XML. W3C recommendation, jan 1999.
<http://www.w3.org/TR/1999/REC-xml-names-19990114>.