Integration Mapping Rules: Transforming Relational Database to Semantic Web Ontology

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Abstract: Semantic integration became an attractive area of research in several disciplines, such as information integration, databases and ontologies. Huge amount of data is still stored in relational databases (RDBs) that can be used to build ontology, and the database cannot be used directly by the semantic web. Therefore, one of the main challenges of the semantic web is mapping relational databases to ontologies (RDF(S)-OWL). Moreover, the use of manual work in the mapping of web contents to ontologies is impractical because it contains billions of pages and the most of these contents are generated from relational databases. Hence, we propose a new approach, which enables semantic web applications to access relational databases and their contents by semantic methods. Domain ontologies can be used to formulate relational database schema and data in order to simplify the mapping (transformation) of the underlying data sources. Our method consists of two main phases: building ontology from an RDB schema and the generation of ontology instances from an RDB data automatically. In the first phase, we studied different cases of RDB schema to be mapped into ontology represented in RDF(S)-OWL, while in the second phase, the mapping rules are used to transform RDB data to ontological instances represented in RDF triples. Our approach is demonstrated with examples, validated by ontology validator and implemented using Apache Jena in Java Language and MYSQL. This approach is effective for building ontology and important for mining semantic information from huge web resources.

Keywords: Relational database, Semantic web ontology, Resource description framework (Schema) (RDF(S)), Web ontology language (OWL), Mapping rule

1 Introduction

The semantic web is one of the most important research fields that came into light recently. It is one of the ways that make the processing of web information by computers possible and to transform the web into a medium through which data can be shared, understood and processed by automated tools [1,2]. With the development of semantic web, more and more ontologies are developed for various purposes [3]. Ontology is a key enabling technology for the semantic web. It plays a crucial role in solving the problem of semantic heterogeneity of heterogeneous data sources [4] and contributes to improve system interoperation [5]. The World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) has recommended several formats for representing web ontology, such as resource description framework (RDF) [6,7] data model, which is a standard model for data interchange on the web, RDF Schema [8], provides a data-modelling vocabulary for RDF data, and web ontology language (OWL) [9] as a formal language for authoring ontologies. All of these formats intended to provide a formal description of concepts, terms, and relationships and to enable automatic reasoning (inference) within a given domain.

The continuous explosion of RDF data opens door for new innovations in big data and semantic web initiatives, which can be shared and reused through application, enterprise, and community boundaries. Ontology data can be presented in the form of triples of data model (Subject, Predicate, Object), graph of the data model, or RDF/XML which stores RDF format in the form of XML file [6,7]. The most advantage of RDF/XML is that it can reuse the existing XML tools. Moreover, each RDF format has an internet content type [6,7], passed by the server. So, the client knows how to parse the data. In this paper, all the

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three forms were used to present the ontology results. The bulk of existing web content “deep web” is stored in RDBs [10], which characterized by high quality of storing and querying data but lack the ability to describe the semantics of data. Moreover, the development of the web content into the semantic web requires the inclusion of large quantities of data stored in RDBs. The RDF data generation from RDB has been the focus of research work in diverse domains. One of the challenges in real world applications is how to improve accessing and sharing knowledge residing in databases. For instance, Internet accessible databases contained up to 500 times more data compared to the static web and roughly 70% of websites are backed by relational databases [11]. Databases [12] and Wikipedia [13] are good candidates for populating the semantic web because they contain great amounts of information in a structured form. In order to utilize today’s RDB to support web applications and transparently participate in the semantic web, their associated database schemas need to be converted into semantically equivalent ontologies [14]. So, it is imperative for the community to develop fully automated methods for bridging RDB content and the semantic web.

Mapping RDB to RDF is an attractive field of research. Many approaches were explored to make relational data available to semantic web enabled applications. Most of the proposed approaches are simple, equivalent matching, and neglecting the formal definition which may lead to ambiguous when applying several transformation rules [15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20]. Through these approaches there are still difficulties for domain expert to understand the meaning between these approaches, such as unclear generation approach, un-unified ontology language and other related problems. Since, the manual ontology construction is a complex, cumbersome, mistakable, time consuming, high cost process, and requires the supports of domain experts in knowledge acquisition, the main goal of our approach is to generate ontology automatically from RDB. This automatic generation allows getting flexible mapping of complex relational structures into ontology. Moreover, our approach suggests direct mapping (transformation) rules for building ontology (RDF(S)/OWL) from RDB (schema and data) and covers all possible concepts of relational model to find their best transformation into the ontology model. The major contributions of this paper are as follows.

We propose a new approach for direct mapping RDB to semantic web ontology automatically containing:
1. Twenty-five unambiguous and well defined sequential mapping rules that transform all well-formed schemas and instances into semantically equivalent RDF(S)-OWL ontologies.
2. Two well-defined functions identifying binary relations and generating identifier ROWID.

The transformation rules designed in an obvious forms, so that the rules can be extended to reverse ontology to relational tables.

We design architecture that provides a uniform semantics between ontology mapping and information integration by transforming RDB schemas and instances to semantic web ontologies. Examples and ontology validator are used to describe how to apply and validate our approach then the proposed approach is implemented, evaluated, and compared with existing approaches.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses the related work in two parts extract ontologies from a relational database and mapping it to existing ontology. Section 3 presents the preliminary concepts of a RDB and ontology languages, and definition mapping between RDB and semantic web ontology. Section 4 shows our proposed architecture and discuss our approach, which includes the rules for mapping RDB schema and data into semantic web (S.W) ontology schema and instance. Section 5 presents examples to describe how to apply our approach. Implementation, ontology validation, comparison, and evaluation are discussed in Section 6. Finally, Section 7 concludes this paper with the future work.

2 Related Work

This section offered an overview of some related studies in mapping between a relational database and an RDF or OWL ontologies. Different researches have been established in this area to provide methods and tools that exposed or converted data in RDB as ontological data described in RDF. The W3C RDB2RDF Incubator Group [17, 21] has formed a working group to create a standard for exposing relational databases as RDF. Their efforts might solve the issue of external data access to RDBs. According to the nature of the target semantic web ontology, there are two architectural approaches to integration mapping between RDBs and ontologies. The first one used for extracting ontologies from an RDB (Fig. 1a) and the second one for mapping between relational databases and an existing ontology (Fig. 1b).
2.1 Extract ontologies from a relational database

Most of existing research in semantic extraction focused on how to directly extract ontology from specific schemata. Astrova [22] presented an approach that extracted ontologies from an RDB based on a reverse engineering method using SQL DDL as the RDB model and transformed it to RDFS ontology. This approach was composed of two processes: Analyzed information to extract a conceptual schema and transformed this schema into a semantically equivalent ontology. Finally, the data from a database were migrated into ontologies. They acknowledged that “hidden” semantics can be discovered by analyzing data disjointedness (no intersection) and data overlap (intersection). Another study carried by Buccella et al. [23], who proposed a method (semi-automatic mapping) that integrated several sources of information, based on the use of ontologies. Each data source has a source ontology built in two steps: Generating OWL initial ontology from data models represented in SQL-DDL and building the source ontology which allowed experts to add restrictions, classes and/or properties to the initial ontology. The limitation of their used rules in transformation of Datatype properties have not domain and range defined, the not-NULL constraint was translated to the number restriction, and their translation was not capable of expressing the primary keys. Moreover, in the case of SQL-DDL code did not show the minimal cardinality, to solve this problem experts need to add this cardinality after the ontology was built. Li et al. [24] proposed an approach of learning OWL ontology from data in RDB used a set of learning rules. This procedure had a disadvantage of losing the information because only the schema structure of a relational database had been used therefore, actual data was not utilized. On the other hand Shen et al. [25] were described groups of semantic mapping rules (semi-automatic) for extracting a global OWL ontology from a relational database. The mapped rules for concepts, properties and restrictions represented the correspondence at the metadata level. Stojanovic et al. [26] proposed a method, which was very closed to Astrova [22], they extracted semantics from RDB and represented it in RDFS ontology. This method defined a relational model, retrieved the model from SQL-DDL, and then mapped it to frame logic and RDF Schema. The rules in this method consist of creating classes, subclasses and properties. All these steps were realized in the semi-automatic way because some ambiguous situations can be raised when several rules were applied. This rule conflicts when information is spread across several relations, thus making this effort semi-automatic. In recent investigations Hu et al. [27] suggested a method includes three mapping rules from an RDB schema to ontology (class and property). They used these rules, to build an initial ontology of materials science that can be modified in later. While Zhou et al. [28] described a prototype tool for generating ontology from an RDB schema. The key feature of the tool can directly and automatically translate a RDB schema into ontology without translating data. Finally Zhang and Li [19] presented a method for automatic ontology building using the RDB resources to improve the efficiency, and named the ontology automatic generation system based on a relational database (OGSRD). But they ignored some tables that express association data, which could not be counted in the concepts.

2.2 Mapping a relational database to existing ontologies

In this area there are several approaches. For example Xu et al. [29] presented a practical approach for creating generic mappings between RDB schema and OWL ontology. They provided a D2OMapper tool, which automatically creates the mappings; their approach and tool can act as a gap-bridge between existing database applications and the semantic web. While R2O [30] described mappings between RDBs and ontologies implemented in RDFS or OWL. Mappings described by D2RQ [31] wraps one or more local RDB into a virtual and read-only RDF graph. Recently, Marx et al. [32] introduced an extensible Eclipse plug-in that supported the RDB2RDF conversion process used R2RML. While Hu and Qu [16] have been presented approach to discover simple mappings between RDB schema and ontology. Based on virtual document, initial simple mappings were derived and validated mapping for consistency. Their experimental results in a limited domain showed the feasibility of the approach. Other existing approaches in this area including the studies proposed by [33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40].

It should be mentioned that our paper focuses on extract ontology from RDB (Section 2.1) and according to the previous studies most of the approaches used in this area suffers from one of the following problems.

- Simple, equivalent matching and neglecting the formal definition which may lead to ambiguous transformation rules.
- May not describe the ontology from RDB directly and correctly.
- The data integration scenario is complex and must be more flexible to make the existing approaches enabled.
- Transformation structure in some approaches is so limited. E.g. primary key (PK) and foreign key (FK) were assumed to be a single-column. The simple relationship was assumed to be one: one.
- Some researches ignored the constraints, and some others only assumed simple constraints. They ignoring most referential constraints and table check constraints.
- Transform the structure and not the data.
- Semi-automatic and require much user interaction.
Some ambiguous situations can arise when applying several rules and making this effort semi-automatic.

Some researches ignored implementation and others assumed complex way for implementation.

There are still difficulties for domain expert to understand the meaning between these approaches, such as unclear generation approach, unformulated rules, and un-unified ontology language.

This paper proposes new rules for the direct mapping RDB (schema and data) to RDF(S)-OWL semantic web ontology by using a set of particular cases (rules) called mapping rules that is fully automatic. Our rules approach and adopt the methods clearly, easy, cover all concepts of relational models, no interference between transformed concepts, and very close to the software programmers. All types of relationships between tables are considered as (one: one (or zero), (one: many) and (many: many)) and other relationships such as unary relationship are created from referential constraints. Many types of foreign keys, referential constraints, and table check constraints are considered.

3 Preliminaries

In this section some aspects of a RDB (schema and data) as input of transformation and semantic web ontology (RDF triples, RDFS, and OWL) as output were briefly defined. The mapping between RDB and semantic web ontology is also considered.

3.1 Relational databases

A relational database consists of a collection of tables; every table is assigned a unique name. A row in a table represents a relationship between a set of values. The relational database is based on the relational model and uses a collection of tables to represent both data and its relationships. It also includes a DML (Data-Manipulation language) and DDL (Data-Definition language). A relational database schema is a set of tables that have the following concepts:

- Relation (table) $T$ is a two-dimensional table.
- Each table $T$ has a set of columns (attributes) $T(Cols) = \{Col_1, Col_2, \ldots, Col_n\}$.
- Both tables and columns are labeled by names and may have commented and caption name (by using SQL alias names).
- Each row in the table is called a tuple (i.e. record) $Row = Col_1 \times Col_2 \times \cdots \times Col_n$, where $Col$ refers to column name which may be either single or composite (individual attributes as components).
- The intersection of a row with the columns will have data values.
- Each column has a data type (i.e. string, int, float, date, etc.)

- Each table $T$ has a primary key $PK$ (single or composite).
- Each table $T$ can have a foreign key $FK$ (single or multiple $FK$s) which refer to another table or the same table (recursive relation).
- One or more tables have relationships (one: one (or zero), one: many: many, and recursive relation by using reference constraints ($FK$).
- The $PK$ in a table $T1$ may be at sometimes is $FK$ which refers to $PK$ in another table $T2$, in this case the table $T1$ is the sub-table of table $T2$ (inheritance (sub-class)).
- The different types of constraints that can be imposed on the table are Not Null, Unique, Primary Key, Foreign Key, Table Check, and On Delete Cascade.
- Duplication of rows is not allowed.

3.2 Semantic web ontology languages

Several ontology languages have been developed during the last few years, and they will surely become ontology languages in the context of the semantic web. Semantic web stack [1] includes the standard of XML, XMLS, RDF, RDFS and OWL, are used to organize, integrate and navigate the web, in addition to allowing content documents to be linked and grouped in a logical and relevant manner. Ontology languages helped to achieve a mapping from Relational Databases to Semantic web ontology and their characters are summarized below:

- XML provides the syntax for writing the structural documents, but the meaning of semantic rich data is not clear. While the XML Schema enables the programmer to restrict a structure of XML documents and defines data types, we use it to mapping SQL data types.

Resource Description Framework (RDF): RDF is an XML-based language for describing information contained in a web resource through statements (or triples) and graph model for describing relationships between resources. It consists of three building blocks: (1) Resources: denoted by unique identifiers (URIs) for representing real world objects or abstract objects as well as statements that describes a binary relation between these objects. (2) Properties: they specify aspects, characteristics or attributes for describing resources. (3) Triples (or Statements): which include subject $S$, predicate $P$, object $O$ take the form of $T$ (triples) $= < S, P, O >$, all three elements are resources of an RDF model.

Resource Description Framework Schema (RDFS): RDFS extends RDF by offering additional primitives for defining RDF concepts. That is, they can be viewed as a meta-data about RDF elements. Essentially, it defines a number of classes and properties of those classes that have specific semantics [8]. A class is a set of resources, and corresponds to the notions of type or category in other representations. The most important elements of RDF and RDFS are shown in Fig. 2.
Web ontology language (OWL): Ontology is very useful for knowledge representation, which encompasses the following concepts: classes, relationships of classes, property of classes, constraints on relationships between the classes and their properties. OWL is a semantic markup language for publishing and sharing ontologies on the WWW, and it is intended to provide a language that can be used to describe the classes and their relations. When compared with RDF language, OWL has more powerful expressiveness, for example additional vocabulary such as a disjointness relation between classes, transitivity and cardinality of properties, or the creation of complex classes. Depending on the expressiveness, the W3C has split OWL vocabulary into three increasingly expressive sublanguages: OWL Lite, OWL DL and OWL Full. These three sublanguages are based on the standard [14, 41], as illustrated in Table 1. Therefore, the semantic web ontology (RDF(S)/OWL Ontology) is a set of classes that have the following concepts:

-Each class Cls(owl: class) has a set of object properties (owl:ObjectProperty), datatype properties (owl:DatatypeProperty), functional properties (owl:FunctionalProperty), and possible subclasses (rdfs:subClassOf).
-Each object property, datatype property, and functional property has a set of domain (rdfs:domain) and range (rdfs:range) classes.
-Each datatype property has a property refers by rdf:ID, type of data by XML Schema data type such as rdf:resource= (“xsd:string”, “xsd:int” “xsd:float”, “xsd:date”, etc.).
-Instances of classes and properties.
-Datatype describe the properties of elements of classes.
-Object properties describe the relations between elements of classes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: The important elements of the RDF(S)/OWL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RDF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RDF(S)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OWL DL and OWL Full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OWL Lite</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Definition of mapping between RDB and ontology

RDBs have a set of static structures: tables, columns, data types, relationships, primary keys, foreign keys (references), integrity constraints, and table check constraint as well as a variety of behavioral features (such as triggers, stored procedures, functions, referential actions etc.). Because of the static nature of ontologies, only the static part of relational databases can be mapped to ontologies, whereas dynamic aspects of RDBs (such as triggers) cannot be mapped [26]. When ontology is created from a relational database, the relational data model and the generated ontology are very similar. Therefore, the mapping process from the RDB schema is quite direct, and complex mapping cases do not usually appear. However, the creation of an ontology structure in this study was constructed by two ways:

1. Simple way: includes the direct transformation of each database table into an ontology class, each
column into a property, column datatype into an xml schema datatype, and description of tables and column into the comment of ontology. This way is not enough for expressing the full semantics of the database domain.

2. Complex way: includes the extraction of additional semantic relations between database elements (like the relationships, constraints, referential constraints, and table check constraints) and when we build vocabulary of an ontology it must be related to the concepts extracted from additional semantic relations.

4 Rules for mapping relational database schema and data into ontology

In this section, we introduced our approach to mapping from a relational database (schema and data) to ontologies (RDF(S)-OWL). Our method provides a new mapping rules of direct mapping RDB schema (i.e. tables, columns, relationships, integrity constraints, restriction on property of column, rows, etc.) to RDF(S)-OWL semantic web ontology (i.e. classes, datatype properties with domains and ranges, restriction on classes and properties, object property between elements of classes, inheritance between classes and properties, instances, etc.) automatically by using a set of particular rules (cases) called mapping rules. The contents of this part are represented by running example, which includes all our cases that used in this study as shown in Fig. 4. The mapping rules are divided in two parts: rules for mapping (transform) RDB schema and mapping RDB instances as shown in Fig. 4.

4.1 Proposed approach architecture of mapping rules

The conceptual data model of semantic web ontology is directly connected with the conceptual model and information resource of RDBs. Through analysis mentioned on Section 3 dealing with the concepts of RDB and ontology: A relational database consists of tables, which contains columns and rows (collection of a field’s value), relationships between tables and integrity constraints on the columns, whereas an ontology (RDF(S)-OWL) consists of classes, which contains properties and instances (collection of property values), object properties are the relationships between elements of classes and restrictions on properties. The row is nothing but the content of its fields, just as an RDF node is nothing but the connections: the property values. The formal corresponding relationships between tables, columns, rows, relationships, and integrity constraints in RDB and classes, properties, instances, object properties, and restrictions in ontologies make it possible to convert one schema to another (direct and indirect mapping discussed in Section 3.3). The main objective of the proposed approach to extract an ontology from RDB automatically, rapidly and in easy ways, leading to avoid limiting manual work, reducing cost and time, and improving the efficiency for building ontology. The proposed approach architecture used to generate ontology from a relational database is shown in Fig. 4 and includes the following stages:

1. Metadata (schema) and data were extracted from RDB using JDBC driver engine in Java.
2. The schema analysis from the previous stage includes tables, columns with datatype, relationships, integrity constraints, referential constraints, and check constraints.
3. Outputs of stage 2 are used as input for mapping rules to transform RDB model to ontology model. During this stage, Apache Jena package and some functions are used to generate the output of this stage which is an OWL structure build on RDF(S).
4. The RDB data analyzed from stage 1 to rows includes data of the simple tables or related tables as the input of mapping rules of data to generate the triples of data model. During this stage, Apache Jena and sub function (generate identifier of ROWID) were used to generate the output, which are RDF triples.
5. The general ontology was generated by collecting the output of stages 3 and 4.
6. Ontology validator used to verify our generated ontology.

4.2 Rules for mapping a relational database schema to ontology

This section defines the rules that mapping RDB schema to ontology built in OWL on top of RDF(S) vocabulary using XSD datatype. Furthermore, we applied each rule separately of each case by making an example of RDB and shown in Fig. 5. Firstly, we identify the binary relation in order to transform RDB into an RDF triple with OWL vocabulary.

Identifying binary relation: A table T1 is a binary relation between two tables (T2 and T3), if:

1. T1 contains only two columns (attributes) A1 and A2, which are a primary key of T1.
2. T2={B1,⋯,Bn}, where Bi is a primary key, and T3={E1,⋯,En}, where Ei is a primary key, assuming that i ∈ {1..n}.
3. A1 in table T1 is a foreign key, refers to column Bi in table T2.
4. A2 in table T1 is a foreign key, refers to column Ei in table T3.

In a mapping rule, negation is represented with the symbol ! , and upper case letters are used to denote variables.
4.2.1 Rules for mapping relations (tables) to classes

Each table Tn (where n is the name of a table) in an RDB unless the Tn is a binary relation (IsBinRel(Tn)) and should be mapped to a class CLSn (where n is the name of the class) in the ontology. The name of CLSn corresponding to the name of the table Tn, comment of table (Tcom) be transformed into the comment of the class(CLScm), and also optionally the caption of table as a full name(Tcap) be transformed into the label of the class(CLScap) respectively. The following rule is used for extracting ontology for class name, comment, and caption that are generated from tables.

4.2.2 Rules for mapping RDB data types to XSD data types

The datatypes of columns in the RDB are build-in SQL data types. Similar to columns, datatype properties in semantic web ontology unlike object properties it has a range classes and make use of RDF datatyping schema, which provides a mechanism for referring to XML Schema datatypes [14]. The RDF and OWL recommendations use the simple types of XML Schema data types [42] in semantic web ontologies. During the mapping of data type properties, the SQL data types are mapped into the matching XML Schema data types. Table

Fig. 4: System architecture for rules of mapping from RDB to Ontology
showing a list of common data types that matching with XSD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>RDB Data Type</th>
<th>Ontology data type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Byte</td>
<td>Bit Varying, Tinyint</td>
<td>xsd:Byte, unsignedByte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>Bit, Boolean</td>
<td>xsd:Boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currency</td>
<td>Smallint, Tinyint, Mediumint</td>
<td>xsd:Short, xsd:unsignedShort, xsd:int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Float, Real</td>
<td>xsd:Float</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interval</td>
<td>xsd:Duration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Numeric, Decima, Mony</td>
<td>xsd:Decimal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Double Precision</td>
<td>xsd:Double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date/Time</td>
<td>Date, Time, TimeStamp, TimeStamp with Time, Time with Time Zone</td>
<td>xsd:Date, xsd:Datetim, xsd:Duration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>part of</td>
<td>xsd:Day, xsd:Year, xsd:Month, xsd:Day, xsd:YearMonth, xsd:MonthYear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>datatype</td>
<td>xsd:MonthDay, xsd:duration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XML</td>
<td>XML</td>
<td>xsd:anyType</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Link(URL)</td>
<td>Hyperlink to URI</td>
<td>xsd:anyURI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Map 3: Every SQL data type in column table T1(COLDtype) where COLDtype could be (text,int,...) is mapped into the corresponding XML Schema data types (Table 3), except if the table T1 is a binary relation or column COL is a foreign key in the table T1 that reference column in other table T2(COL).

\[
T(COLDtype) \land \neg (\text{InRange}(T) \lor \neg \text{FK}(\text{COLDtype}(T)) \rightarrow \text{CLS(DTP}ng \text{of } xsd) \]

For instance, Student(Name Varchar(50)) holds in our example. The Varchar SQL datatype is mapped as follows:

```
<owl:DatatypeProperty rdf:ID="Name">
  <rdfs:label>Used to store name of student</rdfs:label> (op)
  <rdfs:comment>Used to store the name of Student</rdfs:comment> (op)
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Student"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="xsd:string"/>
</owl:DatatypeProperty>
```

4.2.3 Rules for mapping table columns to datatype properties

Every table in an RDB includes columns, which are classified into five groups:

1. Default columns.
2. Composite columns.
3. Enumeration (multi-valued) columns “Using Table Check constraints” (see Section 4.2.7).
4. Primary keys (see Section 4.2.5 (map 13)).

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5. Foreign keys (see Section 4.2.6).

In this paper, we considered each attribute (column COL) belonging to groups (3, 4, and 5) as an attribute belonging to the attribute constraints (see Section 4.2.5,6,7). Therefore, each attribute belonging to the above groups (1 and 2) can be mapped into DatatypeProperty(DTP) in ontology. The attribute name corresponds to rdfs:label and its description corresponds to rdfs:comment. The domain is the class created from this table and the range of a datatype property is the XSD data type (see Section 4.2.2), which is equivalent to the SQL datatype of the original attribute.

Map 4: Rule for mapping default (simple) columns. Simple columns (COLs) in an RDB are columns that contain a data item with a determined data type, unless the column PK(COL,T) or FK(COL,T). The column name (COLn) is mapped into a Datatypeproperty name (DTPn), the column description (COLcom) corresponds to the rdfs:comment, and the column caption (or name) (COLn/cap) corresponds to the rdfs:label. And the domain is the class(CLSDom) created from a table of column (T[COL]) and the range of a Datatypeproperty DTPng of xsd is the xsd schema data type equivalent to the data type of its original column in the database. The following rule is used for extracting ontology for data type properties that are generated from simple columns:

Thus by applying the rule, given that, COL_{Name} , Stud_Name, “Used to store name of student”, Student, Varchar(50) = false, FK(name, student) = false, holds in our example. That is mapped into DTP(Name, Student_Name, Used to store the name of Student, Student, xsd:string), as shown below:

```
<owl:DatatypeProperty rdf:ID="Name">
  <rdfs:label>Used to store name of student</rdfs:label> (op)
  <rdfs:comment>Used to store the name of Student</rdfs:comment> (op)
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Student"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="xsd:string"/>
</owl:DatatypeProperty>
```

Map 5: Rule for mapping composite columns. A composite column mainly consists of a set of values from more than one domain. For example, the address column consists of several domain names such as house number, country, phone, email etc. Assuming that we have the following table: Student (name, address); where the address is a composite column (phone text, email text). There are two ways to map composite attribute to an OWL datatype property. The first one is to map only their simple component attributes (phone, email) of a composite column (Address) to datatype properties of a corresponding OWL class, and ignores composite column (Address) itself. The second one is to map composite column to datatype property and then map its simple, component columns to sub property of corresponding datatype property.
4.2.4 Rules for mapping relationship between tables to ontology relationships

Relationships in relational databases are maintained through the use of foreign keys. A foreign key is a data column(s) that appears in one table that may be part of or is coincidental with the key of another table. There are three relationships in a relational database: one: one (or zero), one: many (or many: one), and many: many, as shown in Fig. 5. Moreover, other cases of the relationships were studied in section of rules for mapping referential constraints.

Rules for mapping one: one relationship: In this relationship the maximums multiplicities is one, for example the holds relationship between Student and Position in Fig. 5a. A student holds only one position in a laboratory (Lab) and a position may be held by one student (some positions go unfilled). We can classify this relationship into two rules based on two cases, as shown in Figs. 5a and 5d.

Map 6: One:one (or zero) in which the FK ꞌPK. If two tables T1{A1,···,An}and T2{B1,···,Bn} are related to each other through their columns T1.A1 and T2.B1, where an FK(A1,T1) that references PK(B1,T2), therefore, the relation is one:one (or zero if FK=null). So, the FK(A1,T1) is mapped into an owl:objectproperty OBP(A1,T1dom,T2rng) that has the source table T1 as its domain and destination table T2 as its range. In the relationship one:one the T1.A1=T2.B1, therefore, this property is restricted to the same value from the class T2 RestOnProp(A1,owl:hasValue,T2), and because the constraint A1≠null mapped into a mincardinality of 1 RestOnProp(A1,owl:minCardinality,xsd^^int 1).

Map 7: one:one in which FK ꞌPKs. The primary key of a table can be, at the same time, a foreign key of another table (COL(A)=FK(A)=PK(A), T). Or, the PKs of a table consist of foreign key(s) of another table and some other fields (FK ꞌPKs). In our example, in Fig. 5d which holds as Prof,managerlab is a primary key in table Lab, at the same time it is a foreign key (i.e. FK a part of PKs) that refers to column Prof_no in the table Professor. However, since the FK is a part of the PKs, it is mapped to an object property OBP(A1,T1dom,T2rng) accompanied with restriction on property A1 RestOnProp(A1,owl:hasClassValue,T2), and a cardinality 1 RestOnProp(A1,owl:Cardinality,xsd^^int 1).

Map 8: Rule for mapping one:many or many:one relationship. This occurs when the maximum of one multiplicity is one and the other is greater than one. If two tables T1{A1,···,An} and T2{B1,···,Bn} are related to each other through their columns T1.A1 and T2.B1 and not similar to (one:one) relationship, where an FK(A1,T1) that references PK(B1,T2), therefore, the relationship is one:many( or many:one) is mapped into an OBP(A1,T1dom,T2rng). In the one:many relationship all values(T2.B1) exist in the column value(T1.A1), therefore, this property is restricted to all values from the class T2 RestOnProp(A1,owl:hasClassValue,T2). If the constraint A1≠null hold, that is mapped into a mincardinality 1 RestOnProp(A1,owl:minCardinality, xsd^^int 1).

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properties and restriction, when the foreign key represents a relationship as: one-many.

An example the study of the relationship between student and Lab holds as Lab_No is a foreign key in the table Student that references column Lab_No in the table Lab. A student study in one Lab and any given lab has one or more students studying there.

Map 9: Rule for mapping many:many relationship. In this relationship the maximum of both multiplicities is greater than one, an example the assigned relationship between Student and Course. A student is assigned one or more courses and each course is assigned to one or more students. Therefore, the binary relation is mapped into object properties and their restrictions that are generated from a binary relation:

According to the definition (1), BinRel(Stud_Cors, Stud_Id, Cors_No) is the primary key of Stud_Cors, Stud_Id is a foreign key and each column Cors_No holds as Cors_No in the table. Therefore, it mapped according to the above rule.

4.2.5 Rules for mapping integrity constraints to ontology object property or (and) restriction on the property

When creating an RDB, there are some constraints, which are rules or regulations imposed on data to ensure their correctness. The SQL supports constraints: Not Null, Unique, Primary Keys, Referential constraint, Table Check constraint, etc.

Map 10: Rule for mapping not null constraints. Use the NOT NULL constraints to ensure that a column receives a value during insert or update operations. If the column is Not Null COL(Aisnotnull,T) it is mapped to restriction such as a minCardinality of constraint of 1

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Rule for mapping unique constraints: Use the UNIQUE constraint to ensure that a column accepts only unique values. In this case, we can divide it into two rules (cases).

**Map 11:** If the column is UNIQUE COL(A, T) it is mapped to an inverse functional property InvFunProp(A, T) in ontology.

**Map 12:** If the column is UNIQUE COL(A, T) and foreign key FK(A, T) indicates that A is the column of a foreign key in T that refers to a table T2, then it is mapped to object property OBP(A, T1, T2), with inverse function property InvFunProp(A, T). The following rules are used for extracting ontology for object properties and inverse function property from RDB scheme unique constraints.

For instance, in Map 11, the COL(Name, student) holds as Name \( \neq \) Null, for every row (tuple) in table Student.

For instance, the COL(NAME, student) holds as Name \( \neq \) Null, for every row (tuple) in table Student.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Map 11: simple column has unique constraint</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COL(A, T) ( \implies ) InvFunProp(A, T)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 12: column is foreign key and unique constraint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COL(A, T) ( \implies ) FK(A, T) ( \implies ) OBP(A, T1, T2), InvFunProp(A, T)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, in Map 11, in our relational schema, the COL(Cors_Name, Courses) holds as a Cors_Name is unique in table Courses. Also in Map 12, the COL(Prof_Name, Position) and FK(stud_id, position, stud_id, student) holds as a Stud_Id is unique and foreign key in Table Position.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Map 11(Exp):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;owl:InverseFunctionalProperty rdf:ID=&quot;Cors_Namae&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;rdfs:range rdf:resource=&quot;&amp;xsd;string&quot;/&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="">owl:InverseFunctionalProperty</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Map 12(Exp):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;owl:ObjectProperty rdf:ID=&quot;Prof_Name&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;rdfs:range rdf:resource=&quot;&amp;xsd;positiveInteger&quot;/&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="">owl:ObjectProperty</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Map 13: Rule for mapping primary key constraints. A primary key is a column (or a set of columns) that contains a unique, and not null value for each row in a table. When we define a primary key constraint, it is mapped by recall two rules (rules of map unique and rule of mapping not null).

4.2.6 Rule for mapping referential constraints

Referential integrity constraint is a property of databases that is based on the concept of data which needs every value of one column of a table to exist as a value of another column in a different (or the same) table. A foreign key joins and establishes dependencies between tables and creates a referential constraint. Both column constraint (reference) and table constraint are used for specifying foreign keys. For referential constraints, some rules proposed in the previous section (rules for relationships), and the rest of the rules presented in this section. More precisely, the following rules are used to transform the referential constraints such as foreign keys to reference triples for object properties with some restrictions.

**Map 14:** Rule for mapping referential constraints when FK=PK to ontology such as class inheritance. An inheritance relationship occurs in a relational schema, if the two (or more) tables T1, T2,.., Tn share the same primary key. The table T2,.., Tn that inherits the properties is called the subtables(subClass). The table T1 whose properties are inherited is called the supertable(superClass). This case is mapped to a class inheritance, that T2,.., Tn are subClass of table T1.

| Map 15: Rule mapping for referential foreign key as unary (recursive) relationship such as one:many is mapped to a logical characteristic of properties "Symmetric Property". A unary (recursive) relationship RecuRel(COL, REF, COL, T) defined as a relationship between instances within the same table (i.e. A foreign key FK(COL, REF, COL, T) column is added within the same table that references the primary key PK(COL, T) values (COL, REF, COL, PK), this foreign key must have the same domain Dom(COL, REF, T) as the primary key and same range Range(COL, REF, T). Therefore, the |
foreign key is mapped to a symmetric property SymProp that uses a class CLS(T) as both its domain and range SymProp(COL_REF,Tdom,Trng). The following rule is used for extracting an ontology logical characteristic of properties "Symmetric Property" from a recursive relation.

Definition 2: T is a Unary(Recursive) relationship:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tdom</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Trang</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\forall$ $y$ $\exists x$ $\forall z$ $(T(x,y,z) \land T(y,z,x))$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Map 15: RecuRel(COL_REF,COL,T) – CLS(T), SymProp(COL_REF,Tdom,Trng).
SP Symprop: SP( $x \rightarrow y$ ) $\Rightarrow$ SP($y \leftarrow x$).

Fig. 5f shows a unary relationship, which holds in our example. Note that the recursive foreign key in the table Professor is named Prof_Manager, this column has the same domain as the primary key Prof_No within the same table. Therefore, after applying the mapping rule to the database of Fig. 5f, the resulting RDF(S)-OWL vocabulary as shown:

```owl
/owl:class rdf:id="Professor"/>
<owl:SymmetricProperty rdf:ID="Prof_Manager">
   <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Professor"/>
   <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#Professor"/>
   </owl:SymmetricProperty>
```

Map 16: Rule mapping for referential foreign key with cascade delete constraints to logical characteristics of properties (Transitive Property). A foreign key with a cascade delete occurs whenever rows in the master table (referenced) MstrTable(COL,Tmst) are deleted, the relevant rows in the child table (referencing) ChildTable(COL_REF,Tchild) with a corresponding foreign key column will get deleted as well. If MstrTable(COL,Tmst) at the same time ChildTable(COL_REF,Tchild) means that a foreign key to the same table, indicating a unary relationship again RecuRel(COL_REF,COL,T) but in this case the foreign key with trigger cascade delete(on delete cascade). A foreign key FK(COL_REF,Tchild,COL,Tmst) column in a Tchild that references the primary key PK(COL,Tmst) (this foreign key must have the domain Dom(COL_REF, Tchild) and range Range(COL_REF,Tmst)). Therefore, the foreign key is mapped to a transitive property TrnsProp that uses a class CLS(Tchild) as its domain and a class CLS(Tmst) as its range TrnsProp(COL_REF,Tchild-dom,Tmst-range). The following rules are used for extracting an ontology logical characteristic of properties "Transitive Property" from the referential foreign key with cascade delete constraint.

### Table 3: RDB table check constraints and ontology such as OWL property

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>RDB Table Check constraints</th>
<th>OWL restriction cardinality</th>
<th>Function map (axiom map)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 17 | Logic Check
| 18 | Check
| 19 | Check
| 20 | Check
| 21 | Check
| 22 | NULL
| 23 | Between
| 24 | In

For instance, a table check constraint on a single or multiple columns that where shown in Figs. 5h and 5j holds in our example. Check constraint of table student to ensure that all rows of the students' table contain only the students who are studying MSc or PhD and they have a site in the laboratory. If he is an MSc student, he should...
complete required course credits that are greater than or equal to 28 before they graduate, but if it is a PhD student, he should have total credits of at least 11.5. Therefore, a datatype property is restricted to have the same value for all instances of a class Students according to the check constraints (Credit requir = 11.5 and Stud_Type = "PhD"), as well as, Check IN("M.S","PhD") respectively, as shown below.

4.3 Rules for mapping RDB instances into ontology instances

We now define the rules that map a relational database instance into RDB Triples. After the ontology was extracted, the process of data transformation can start according to the above mapping rules (e.g. classes, properties, restrictions, etc.) from a relational database schema. The goal of this task is the extraction of ontological instances based on the rows of the relational database tables. The values of the table rows can be transformed to the values of the corresponding property of ontological instances.

Map Inst 1: If a table T is mapped to the class CLS then all rows of the table T(RW1,...,RNw) are transformed to the instance of a class (as an RDF graph (Triples)) CLS(TRIPLES1,...,TRIPLESn), also, each column in table T(COL1,...,COLn) can be transformed to the properties of the instance CLS(DTP1,...,DTPn).

In the bottom part of Fig. 7, we show how the rows of Person (TNO1,"Shady") and (TNO2,"Mohamed")..(TNOn,....), where TNO1 is identifier to generate the ROWID1 for the first row such as Person1, can be represented as an RDF graph according to the mapping rules RDB schema and data. In RDF, the subject of a triple must be an identifier, which can be represented as (TNO1,...,TNOn) in the example. A TNO is identifier of rows (ROWID) that generated according to the following rule.

5 Case Study

In this section, we explain our approach by using some examples of mapping RDB Schema and data to ontology RDF(S)-OWL code, and validating code using W3C RDF validator [43] to show the triples of the data model and ontology graph as resulting ontology. Therefore, to understand how to apply our rules on database to generate ontology code and graph, some examples are used as follows:

Example 1: The schema and rows of the table "Person" represents according to the above rules as follows: Map1 (table Person) to class(Person), Map3,4 (columns of table person into datatype property with xsd corresponding the original SQL datatypes of columns), and Map_ins1(rows to triples) depending on Table 4, as follows: RW1(Person,TNO1,P_No,1,Name,"Shady"), RW2(Person,TNO1,P_No,2,Name,"Mohamed") it is mapped to the class Person in an OWL ontology, also their table columns can be transformed to the properties of the instance. The RW1 and RW2 are rows of Person then the ontology instance for the rows as follows:

These triples can be represented in Table 5.
Table 4: An example of a Person table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P_No</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Shady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mohamed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Triples of the data model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P_No</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>InverseFunctionalProperty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P_No</td>
<td>Domain</td>
<td>Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>DatatypeProperty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Label</td>
<td>Person_Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Comment</td>
<td>Store name of person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Domain</td>
<td>Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Range</td>
<td>xsd:int</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the results of applying rules return the following RDF Triple and Graph as shown in Figs. 6 and 7 respectively.

Example 2: If one of the tables refers to another table by a foreign key as shown in Figs. 9a-9c, can be mapped according to the above rules a Map1 (table to class), Map4 (column to data type property), Map5 (column data type to data type XML Schema data type), Map13 (primary key to inverseFunctionProperty), Map7,8,15 (relationships to objectproperty with restriction on property), and Map_inst (rows to triples). Then the values of rows in the table can be transformed to the ontological instances, as shown in Fig. 9d.

From the instances mentioned (Fig. 9) we can know that the values of Lab_No in a Student represented as a property added to the class of Student because table a Student has a column Lab_No that references a table Lab through a column Lab_No. Therefore, the created class Student has one property linking the resources Lab node to represent the values of a column Lab_No in the Student. In the same way a column Prof_Managlab in table Lab that refers to Prof_No in Professor.

Fig. 8 shows the ontology created in general by applying above mapping rules on relational database example shown in Fig. 5. In this figure, oval shapes represent basic concepts in ontology, solid line rectangles represent xml schema datatype, and the other shapes that describe the rest of the vocabulary ontology are represented in the left side of the figure.

6 Implementation and Comparison

6.1 Implementation environments

Based on our system architectures, we propose to implement the method in two phases: the first phase is to transform an RDB Schema to an OWL build on RDF using RDFS and XSD. The Second phase is to transform an RDB Data to RDF Triples (Graph) with a function to generate identifier ROWID for all rows in a table. In order to implement the transformation from an RDB Schema
and data to an ontology (RDF(S)-OWL file), we propose a method using Apache Jena 2.11.0 and using ontology validator [43] to validate, show the triple of data model, and ontology graph. Apache Jena™ is a Java framework for building semantic web applications. Jena provides a collection of tools and Java libraries to develop semantic web and linked-data apps, tools and servers [44]. The proposed method is implemented using Jena 2.11.0 package (http://jena.hpl.hp.com/) in Java Language using (NetBeans IDE7.3.1 a platform framework for Java desktop applications, and an integrated development environment (IDE)). To examine it, the new method should be applied to an RDB. A sample RDB named, RDBLAB (have several cases applied by our rules), created by MYSQL5.5 and connecting with Java JDBC by "com.mysql.jdbc.Driver". It consists of 7 tables and

![Fig. 8: Ontology generated from RDB LAB](image1)

![Fig. 9: RDF triples of ontology extracted from the relationship between the Student, Lab, and Professor](image2)

![Fig. 10: RDF(S)/OWL ontology extracted from a table Person as ontology code](image3)
Fig. 11: RDF(S)/OWL ontology extracted from a table Person as triples of the data model

### 6.2 Ontology validation

To understand the ontology (RDF(S)-OWL) formation, the ontology code production and the ontology graph representation. We used RDF validator [43] to validate RDF(S)-OWL code that generated after applied our rules on RDB, and show the RDF triples and Graph as resulting ontology. According to the schema and data of the Person table (Fig. 5, and Table 4), the results are shown in Figs. 10-12.

### 6.3 Comparison

Different aspects of approaches, such as model, lanuguage support, relationship type, constraint support, complexity, validation, etc. compared with existing approaches. The solution described in this paper contains extra domain knowledge and advantages, based on important factors of mapping rules, strategy used for solution, validation, implementation and complexity degree (Table 6). Moreover, comparison of our approach to existing approaches at the rules level was shown in Table 7.

It must be considered that our approach used for the rules construction is more significant and clear through the transformation process when compared with other approaches.

### 6.4 Evaluation

We evaluate the proposed transforming strategies by matching a relational database with ontology (RDF(S)/OWL) to determine the true matches, and compare our results with related approaches. To approve the quality of the matching process, we use precision and recall [45] as measuring tools of relevance. Given a reference context alignment $R$, the precision of some matching alignment $A$ is given by

$$\text{Precision}(A, R) = \frac{|R \cap A|}{|A|} \quad (1)$$

Recall specifies the share of real correspondences

$$\text{Recall}(A, R) = \frac{|R \cap A|}{|R|} \quad (2)$$

Where $R$, is the set of context with correct reference matching and $A$ is the set of all matching retrieved by a particular approach. $|R \cap A|$ is number of correct matching found, $|A|$ is number of matching retrieved by a certain approach, and $|R|$ is number of existing context.

Since precision and recall are most widely used for comparing matching systems and one may prefer to have only a single measure, F-measure [46] is introduced to aggregate the precision and recall.

$$F - \text{Measure} = 2 \cdot \frac{\text{Precision} \cdot \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}} \quad (3)$$

To obtain practical evidence, we applied our transformation to one sample database, particularly, RDBLAB (Fig. 5). Then the precision, recall, and
F-measure values are used to compare our proposed method and related work, such as Astrova et al. [34], Li et al. [24], Zhang and Li [19], and Juan Sequeda [39]. These approaches totally depend on SQL-DDL as a source and can automatically produce ontology. The comparing results of precision, recall and F-Measure are shown in the Fig. 13, indicating that our approach with high measuring relevance. The main reason is that our approach transforms all concepts of relational models and types of relationships between tables. As well it converts characteristics of attributes, many types of foreign keys, referential constraints, and table check constraints. Whereas other techniques transformed some relational concepts and part of them ignored some relationships, attributes properties and constraints on attribute and foreign keys. Except Astrova et al. [34], who was considered only one case of check constraints, all the study approaches ignore mapped check constraints.

It can be concluded that one of the main feature of our approach it deals with class properties, properties of
7 Conclusion and Future Work

This paper treated the area of ontology-based cooperation of information systems. We proposed a new approach for direct mapping of the relational database Schema to semantic web ontology built in OWL on top of RDF using vocabulary RDFS and Xml Schema data type. We then transformed the relational data tables to ontological instances formatted as RDF(S)-OWL. By adopting this approach, domain-related experts can be directed-automatically to engage in mapping of different sources of RDB Schema and data to RDF(S)-OWL ontologies. In order to generate semantic web ontology as per the underlying RDB, ontology database mappings are expressed as a set of correspondences that relate the vocabulary of a relational model (table, column, datatype, relationships, integrity constraints, table check constraints etc.) with the ontology model (concept, property, xsd, object property, restriction, instances etc.) automatically using mapping rules. Our approach is divided in two phases: firstly transforms an RDB schema into the ontology schema, secondly transforms an RDB data into the ontology instances. Ontology validator is considered in this approach and implemented using Apache Jena in

Table 7: Comparison of our approach at the rules level with an existing approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definition 1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition 2</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (developed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 2</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQL type to XSD</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes (more datatype)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (developed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (developed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 5</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 6</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>1:1 and 1:0 Developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 7</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 8</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 9</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes (clear and Developed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 10</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes (complex)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 11</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map 12</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (not clear)</td>
<td>Yes (developed)</td>
<td>Yes (developed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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Fig. 13: Matching comparison between our method and related work on RDBLAB database

object property (property restriction), characteristics of properties and cardinality constraints in ontology building. These criteria make the constructed ontology more integrated and enable the reconstruction of RDB.
Java and MYSQL (not limited to MYSQL database). Our rules approach and adopt the methods clearly, easily, and closely to the software programmers. This may help software engineers to build the semantic web from relational databases rapidly and particularly, this is particularly important for mining semantic information from huge web resources. One of the main advantages of this approach is studied different cases of an RDB, which decreases the loss of information and avoided ambiguity where rules are applied.

For the future work, we confess that the domain and success frequency of direct transformation is very improbable to be achieving because the amount of domain semantics captured in SQL models are highly variable. There is a domain for extending this work by extracting new mapping rules and querying relational databases on the semantic web using an ontology generated by our rules. In this paper, static structures of relational database are studied, while the dynamic aspects such as triggers are not considered, which are still open research question.

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References


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