A formal mapping between OPC UA and the Semantic Web

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Abstract—The communication protocol OPC UA is one of the most important IIoT enablers within the automation domain. OPC UA not only aims to provide interoperability on the transport layer, but also interoperability of the semantic layer shall be addressed based on so-called Companion Specifications. However, the lack of OPC UA formal semantics makes automatic validation of OPC UA data models impossible. Another drawback is the shortage of available tools for OPC UA, such as an implementation of the query engine for the specified OPC UA query language. In this paper we provide a formal translation of OPC UA models to the Semantic Web standard OWL, thus making OPC UA implicit semantics, that is described in the documentation, explicit, by means of OWL axioms. Moreover, we outline how this mapping can be used to offer validation and querying of OPC UA data models based on already existing Semantic Web technology.

Index Terms-OPC UA, OWL, Mapping, Query, Validation

I. INTRODUCTION

In the area of factory automation OPC Unified Architecture (OPC UA) [1] is the new standard that is promised to lift field device communication from low-level signal exchange schemes onto a semantic level, contributing to the realization of flexible manufacturing scenarios within the Industry 4.0 vision. OPC UA is a machine to machine communication protocol for industrial automation developed by the OPC Foundation. However, despite all the improvements that OPC UA brings over conventional device communication, it still exhibits certain problems when it comes to capturing the semantics of m2m communication structures: much of the semantics of the OPC UA basic constructs is defined in specification documents in an implicit way, only accessible to the human implementor. Moreover, the relatively new OPC UA specifications also lack implementation in available tools, which now just start to emerge.

On the other hand, Semantic Web [2] technology is state-ofthe-art for representing and processing explicit semantics for data models in information systems in general, and specifically for the web. The standardized ontology languages RDF(S) and OWL provide a representation framework for formulating semantically rich knowledge graphs, while auxiliary standards like SPARQL or REST provide means to communicate and query such information. Being supported by an active research community for some years now, it also offers an established set of tools that support these standards. Hence, it appears to be natural to investigate the use of the already matured Semantic Web technology stack for the relatively new OPC UA standard for capturing semantics more formally and for the reuse of Semantic Web tools for tasks like querying or validation.

There are various uses cases in the automation world for which this combination of Semantic Web technology and OPC UA is promising. For accessing data from field devices described by means of OPC UA information models, the OPC foundation introduced OPC UA Query as a mechanism for performing a filtered search for information in the device server's address space. But since OPC UA is still rather new there is not yet an implementation of OPC UA Query available. To fill this gap, the readily available SPAROL language and tool stack could be used to query data from OPC UA information models when bridged to an RDFbased representation. Furthermore, validation of OPC UA information models against the specification is critical for producing high-quality data models that adhere to the OPC UA specification. Current tools already implement some validation checks covering certain aspects of the specification as part of their modeling UIs, but a broader coverage for validation could be reached by formulating OPC UA validity rules by means of ontology languages in a declarative way and use reasoning tools to automate and unify validation. In this way, validation could even be extended to the inclusion of custom rules that come from so-called Companion Specifications for specific industries.

Under these circumstances, it is surprising that only a few researchers tried to connect OPC UA to the Semantic Web so far. For example, the authors of [3] describe an approach how OPC UA can be integrated into a Linked Data environment. However, the authors seem to define a new ontology for OPC UA and also do not use most of the built-in OPC UA concepts like the type concept. Another interesting approach with a focus on the reversed mapping direction from OWL to OPC UA is described in [4]. The problem with this approach is that it does not define mappings for all OPC UA concepts like *ReferenceTypes.* Because of that, this mapping cannot be used to lift the rich semantics of OPC UA Companion Specifications up into the Semantic Web, mainly due to the fact of the missing concept transformations, which are heavily used in most of the Companion Specifications. The authors of [5], [6] developed a concept how OWL-S [7] can be introduced to OPC UA Methods. Nevertheless, because this approach only covers the Method-NodeClass of OPC UA and does not address the other NodeClasses only about 5% of the Nodes defined by most Companion Specifications can be covered.

As the primary contribution of this paper, we present a

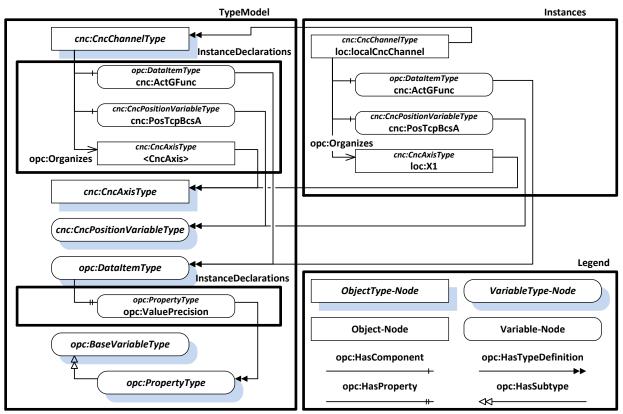


Fig. 1. An example OPC UA information model for CNC machines.

formal mapping between OPC UA information models and the OWL/RDF(S) languages. This shows in particular how any OPC UA-based model can be represented in RDF/OWL as a basis for automated transformation. Furthermore, we exemplify how this formal bridge between OPC UA and RDF/OWL can support the two use cases of querying as well as validating OPC UA information models. This is showing the potential of using Semantic Web technology in the emerging activities of building up semantic information models for device communication in the domain of industrial automation.

II. BACKGROUND

In the next two sections, we will give a brief overview of OWL and OPC UA.

A. Web Ontology Language

The Web Ontology Language (OWL) [8] is a W3C standard that provides ontological constructs for knowledge representation. OWL is built on top of other W3C standards such as RDF [9] and RDF(S) [10]. OWL semantics is grounded in Description Logics [11], which are decidable fragments of the first-order-logic.

The basic entities in OWL are the following: OWL individuals denote objects (e.g., anna and john); OWL classes denote classes of objects (e.g., Female, Person, Engineer); OWL object properties relate objects to objects (e.g., relating a child to its parent with hasChild); OWL data properties assign data values to objects (e.g. relating a height to a person); and OWL annotation properties to record ontology meta-information, such as the author and creation date. Moreover, OWL provides constructs for building complex class expressions, such as: conjunction (Female and Engineer), disjunction (Engineer or Doctor), existential restrictions (a class of Persons who have at least one child), etc; property expressions (inverse, chains, etc). OWL axioms, such as class subclass axioms (Female subClassOf Person), class disjointness axioms (Female disjointWith Male), class equivalence axioms (Person equivalent (Male union Female)) are used to axiomatize the domain. Moreover, there are property axioms which may specify property domain and range, sub-property relationships, property equivalence and disjointness, and relationships between property chains. Finally, individual axioms make statements about individuals (type assertions, property assertions, same individuals, different individuals). OWL Reasoners [12], [13] can automatically perform reasoning tasks such as checking consistency and inferring implicit relationships.

Moreover, the W3C recommendation SHACL (Shapes Constraint Language) [14] specifies a constraint language over RDF data; there is a number of available SHACL implementations [15]. RDF(S) datasets can be accessed via the W3C standard protocol and query language SPARQL [16].

B. OPC UA

Open Platform Communication Unified Architecture (OPC UA) [1] is one of the most promising industrial communication standards for Industry 4.0 scenarios. OPC UA aims to solve the two most important problems of typical IIoT scenarios, which are interoperability on the transport and semantic layer.

 TABLE I

 CNCCHANNELTYPE DEFINITION (SEE ALSO [22]).

Attribute	Value			
Browse-	CncChannelType			
Name				
IsAbstract	False			
References	BrowseName	DataType	TypeDefinition	MRule
Subtype of the CncComponentType				
HasComp.	ActGFunc	String[]	DataItemType	Mand.
HasComp.	PosTcpBcsA	CncPosDT	CncPosVarT	Mand.
Organizes	<cncaxis></cncaxis>		CncAxisType	OPlaceh.
NOTE: This row represents no Node in the AddressSpace. It is a placeholder				
pointing out that instances of the ObjectType will have those Objects.				

Interoperability on the transport layer can be achieved through the standardization of different transport protocols like OPC TCP and HTTP(S) in combination with different encodings like OPC JSON, OPC Binary, or OPC XML. Recently the OPC Foundation also offers a cloud-ready interface based on the well-known publish-subscribe pattern, using transport protocols like MQTT and AMQP. However, only standardizing the messages for various transport protocols is not enough. The second step to reach the goal of interoperability on the transport layer is the standardization of interaction patterns with the service. In OPC UA these interaction patterns are called *Services*, which allow a client to access the graph-based data model of OPC UA. Several services were defined to introspect and manipulate the data model (e.g., the *Read* service, for fetching data and the *Write* service for manipulating data).

Interoperability on the semantic layer can be reached by the graph-based data model of OPC UA in combination with Companion Specifications. In previous years most of the Companion Specifications were mappings from other existing standards to OPC UA like AutomationML, PLCOpen, ISA-95, etc. [17]–[19]. All of these standards are generic and try to solve the problem of semantic interoperability on an abstract layer. Eventually, these standards can only be considered as the first step towards semantic interoperability. For example, standardizing the notion of a "Thing" and a concept how "Skills" of these "Things" shall be exposed, does not solve the issue of concrete Industry 4.0 applications like automatic skillmatching. For such applications, the semantics of concrete skills, like drilling or clamping, must also be standardized. Because of that, there exists a great demand for standardized detailed semantics for a given domain. This is exactly what is addressed by the VDMA [20]. VDMA represents more than 3200 companies within the manufacturing domain and can, therefore, be considered the largest industry association in Europe. One goal of the VDMA is to standardize domainspecific semantics for a huge part of the automation domain (e.g., machine vision, robotics, powertrain, cnc machines, etc.). Their semantics will be standardized within OPC UA Companion Specifications [21], leading to a whole new level of semantic interoperability in the automation domain.

III. ANALYSIS AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

As already mentioned in the previous sections, OPC UA offers the capability to store very rich and standardized seman-

tics in OPC UA information models. However, despite several public requests [23], there was no attempt to fully map the OPC UA specification to a formal ontology language yet. For our use cases of interest, validation and query of OPC UA data models, one would greatly benefit from such a mapping, as it would allow to apply relevant existing tools from the OWL/RDF(S) ecosystem, rather than having to re-invent them in the OPC UA world. The mapping we describe in Section IV aims to be first such comprehensive mapping from OPC UA to OWL. One essential requirement for this approach is that OPC UA restrictions and semantics (implicit and explicit) are transformed correctly to a formal ontology language like OWL. Only if the concepts match on both sides, all benefits of Semantic Web technology can be unleashed and used to solve our use cases. In the following, we will start with a short analysis of OPC UA semantics, revealing some of the issues which are preventing a trivial mapping to OWL. The basic building blocks of OPC UA are eight different types of Nodes (categorized in so-called NodeClasses). An example of such a NodeClass is the Object-Node, which can be used to represent a "Device", while a Variable-Node could be a concrete value (e.g., serial number) of the Device. The connection between different Nodes is done by so-called References.

Figure 1 shows an example information model of OPC UA based on [22]. The left side of the picture contains a small fracture of a typical OPC UA TypeModel, which is provided by the Companion Specifications. Several Type-Nodes are defined, for example, a "CncChannelType", a "CncAxisType" and also a "DataItemType". These Types are defined with special NodeClasses in OPC UA (e.g., ObjectType-Node and VariableType-Node). Each Instance-Node (Figure 1 right side) references its TypeDefinition with a special ReferenceType named "HasTypeDefinition". While Type-Nodes (e.g., VariableType, ObjectType, etc.) can be subtyped and therefore inherit semantics and restrictions from the supertype, the same is not true for Instance-Nodes (e.g., Variable, Object). However, surprisingly we can also find Instance-Nodes in the TypeModel of OPC UA. These special Instance-Nodes are also called InstanceDeclarations within OPC UA. An InstanceDeclaration is a Node which is defined in the context of a Type-Node and is used to model the sub-structure of a *Type*. The sub-structure of the CncChannelType is depicted in Table I. Each InstanceDeclaration is defined by several characteristics. (1) The ReferenceType interconnects the defining Type-Node with the InstanceDeclaration. It is also allowed to use a subtype of the concrete ReferenceType. (2) The expected NodeClass and BrowseName (a BrowseName is a string with a NamespaceURI assigned to it, for example, "http://opcfoundation.org/UA/CNC/" or in short "cnc:", as NamespaceURI and "CncChannelType" as string part), which must be identical on each Instance-Node. (3) The DataType (if applicable) and TypeDefinition (if applicable). Also in this case subtypes are allowed. Finally, the corresponding ModellingRule is assigned. OPC UA defines several ModellingRules and also allows to define new ModellingRules, if necessary. The Mandatory-ModellingRule, for example, en-

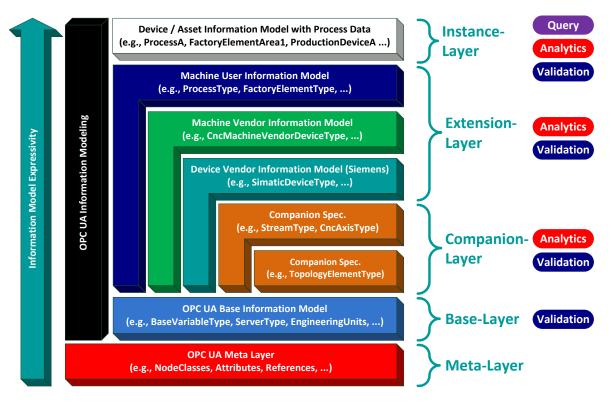


Fig. 2. Overview of OPC UA Information Modeling.

forces, that each *Instance-Node* of the CncChannelType must reference a *Node* similar to the corresponding *InstanceDeclaration*. Similar in this case means, the same *NodeClass* and *BrowseName* combined with the same *DataType* and *TypeDefinition* or a subtype (if applicable), referenced by the defined *ReferenceType* or a subtype of it. Similarly, there are *Optional-ModellingRules*, stating that *InstanceDeclarations* are not compulsory on instance level. The *Placeholder-ModellingRule* is used if the *BrowseName* of the *Instance-Node* is not defined within the *Companion Specification* and can be freely chosen for *Instance-Nodes* (only in combination with *Variables* or *Objects*).

A typical *Companion Specification* also describes the semantics of these *InstanceDeclarations* in textual form and in machine-readable form (OPC UA *NodeSet*). In case of the ActGFunc *InstanceDeclaration* from CncChannelType this is done in the following way [22]: **ActGFunc:** "Array of active G functions; there can be several G functions active at a time (modal and non-modal G functions).";

As shown above, the semantics of such *Companion Specifications* is very rich and can be used for use cases like monitoring applications, which are able to find the necessary data-points automatically based on standardized semantics. However, as also depicted in Figure 1, OPC UA has some special modelling practices. For example, just consider the fact that the semantics of the ActGFunc *Instance-Node* (right side of Figure 1) is defined by the *InstanceDeclaration* (left side of Figure 1), but the *Instance-Node* specifies the DataItemType as its *Type* and not the *InstanceDeclaration*. While the connections between InstanceDeclarations and Instance-Nodes are pretty obvious for each OPC UA expert, a typical Semantic Web expert would probably not have guessed these implicit connections. Note that, there is no other direct Reference between an InstanceDeclaration and an Instance-Node, the connection is implicitly made through the identical BrowseName. Of course, OPC UA defines further rules to ensure that this concept always can be applied. For example, it is forbidden to define two identical BrowseNames for InstanceDeclarations in the context of the same Type. In contrast, a Semantic Web expert would have probably expected a new VariableType, which is a subtype of DataItemType and is referenced by the HasTypeDefinition-ReferenceType of an Instance-Node. Exactly such modelling artefacts have prevented a trivial mapping from OPC UA to a formal language like OWL till now because, for each OPC UA design pattern, the corresponding concept and transformation rule must be identified.

Besides the concepts which already were mentioned above, we identified several additional concepts to express semantics in OPC UA: *ReferenceTypes*, *DataTypes* and some *Attributes*. However, because of space-limitations, we will not go deeper into details.

IV. OPC UA TO OWL

In this Section, we will give an insight into our mapping from OPC UA to OWL. The full mapping will be contributed later on directly to the OPC Foundation. In Table III we outlined the most essential mapping rules for transforming *Variable-Nodes* to OWL. The left side of Table III lists

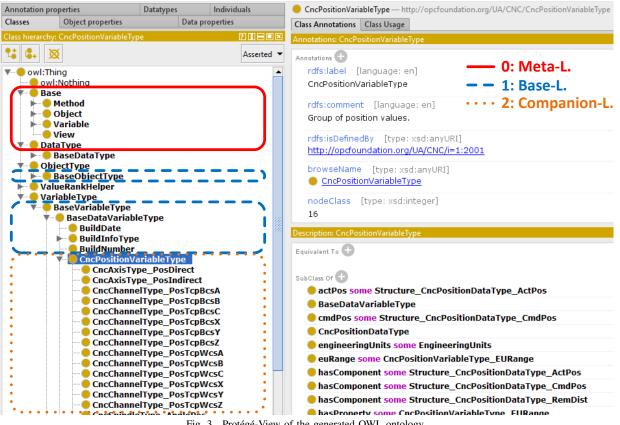


Fig. 3. Protégé-View of the generated OWL ontology.

OPC UA concepts. Note that most OPC UA concepts are defined by more than one line in the Table (marked with indents). The right side contains the OWL part of the mapping, sub-structured in OWL entities and OWL axioms [24]. The URI-schema is based on a RESTful OPC UA interface [25] with additional restrictions. In combination with this RESTful interface our mapping ensures that it will be possible to build up a Linked Data [26] network automatically for OPC UA (including Companion Specifications as well as vendor-specific extensions).

OPC UA information models are built in a modular way (see also Figure 2), where the OPC UA meta-model (Meta-Layer) provides the basic building blocks for information models, continuing with the OPC UA core information model (Base-Layer), which is provided by the OPC Foundation itself, followed by OPC UA companions (Companion-Layer), OEMspecific schema extensions (Extension-Layer) of OPC UA companions, and finally OPC UA instance models (Instance-Layer) that describe configuration and data items of individual devices based on schemas of the Base-Layer, Companion-Layer and Extension-Layer. The mapping transforms OPC UA information models by translation of the modules (levels Base-Layer - Instance-Layer described above) into RDF/OWL ontologies that import each other in the same way the respective OPC UA modules do. Once this transformation is performed, the resulting RDF/OWL ontologies can be used for the purpose of validation, querying, and analytics. Figure 2 also depicts the typical OPC UA information model layers for each use case.

A Protégé view of an example result OWL ontology is shown in Figure 3. The class hierarchy depicts the results of transforming the basic concepts of Meta-Layer such as Variable, VariableType, ObjectType, DataType; and the Base-Layer and Companion-Layer (sub-concepts of the respective Meta-Layer concepts, denoted with VarT and DataT in Table III:). The lower right corner of Figure 3 shows the results for transforming parts of the Mandatory VariableInstanceDeclaration restrictions. Notice that, in the transformation process also object properties for the BrowseName and classes for the InstanceDeclarations are generated (e.g., "actPos" and "cmdPos"). InstanceDeclarations with the "CncPositionVariableType" as Type are depicted in the lower left corner (e.g., "CncChannelType_PostTcpBcsA"). Type-Attributes are displayed at the upper right corner of Figure 3. Some of the Type-Attributes are directly mapped to some well-known annotation properties, for example, the OPC UA Nodeld to rdfs:isDefinedBy.

The mapping rules from Table III make use of OWL annotations as appropriate, as many OPC UA Type-Attributes are only used for describing the Type-Node and should not be inherited by the Instance-Node of this Type (e.g., DisplayName-Attribute). The existence of such attributes cannot be validated by OWL reasoners, but with alternatives such as SPARQL. On the other hand, the instantiation rules of OPC UA and also the subtyping concept of Types are captured by means of OWL axioms and therefore can be validated with OWL reasoners. We should mentions that, for using OWL reasoners to validate

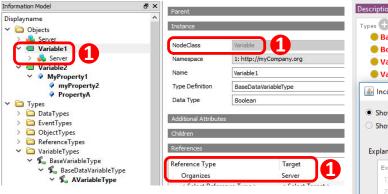


Fig. 4. Failures in an information model (UaModeler-View).

OPC UA data models, a lot of additional axioms, such as disjointness axioms, are introduced into the OWL ontology. The technical report of this mapping has about 50 pages and also contains, for example, the complete mapping of OPC UA datatypes to OWL datatypes.

V. PROOF-OF-CONCEPT

In the following Section, we will discuss two practical use cases to address some major challenges of OPC UA, which could not be solved till now. The underlying OWL ontology of our prototype is generated based on our transformation rules and has the DL expressivity SROIQ(D).

A. Validation

OPC UA defines a lot of rules regarding the structure of information models. However, currently there is no tool available which is able to validate information models for OPC UA. Most tools like SiOME [27] and UaModeler [28], only support basic checks, such as "All types are inherited by the BaseTypes of OPC UA", but at the end cannot be used to ensure that the designed information model is fully compliant to the OPC UA specification.

One example of an invalid OPC UA information model is displayed in Figure 4. For our use case, we modelled the following invalid statement: A *Variable-Node* which uses the *Organizes-ReferenceType* to reference another *Node* (OPC UA [1]: Allows the *Organizes-ReferenceType* to be used only with the *View-NodeClass* or *Object-NodeClass* as *Source-Node.*). Up to now, such failures cannot be detected by any consistency-check of UaModeler or SiOME.

We will now show how OPC UA information models can be validated based on our OPC UA to OWL mapping in combination with existing reasoner technology. Figure 5 depicts how the problem of Figure 4 can be addressed. This restriction can be modelled easily through the usage of OWL domain and range restrictions in combination with the disjoint concept and some further concepts, which are a part of our mapping. Nevertheless, not each rule in OPC UA can be checked easily with only OWL reasoners. This is mainly due to the fact that OWL reasoning uses the so-called openworld assumption (OWA). For example, a mandatory OPC

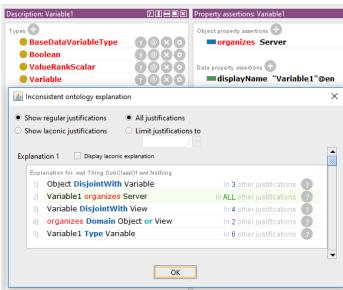


Fig. 5. Validation of OPC UA restrictions with HermiT [12] (Protégé-View).

UA property which is not present in the current graph is automatically considered as absent in OPC UA. In contrast, an OWL reasoner would not raise an exception if a mandatory property is missing, because there is no violation under OWA. Naturally, it is possible to introduce so-called closure axioms into the ontology, which can be used to add the fact that the mandatory property is not modelled anywhere else. Based on this axiom, the reasoner would now raise an exception, which is exactly the behaviour which is expected for our validation use case. Nevertheless, such rules can be checked much more efficiently with SPARQL or SHACL.

In conclusion, we showed that validation of OPC UA information models using OWL reasoners is feasible, but some further research is necessary regarding some special rules in OPC UA. We also notified the OPC Foundation about an inconsistency within the core OPC UA specification (Base-Layer) we detected. In addition, we also identified rules which cannot be checked because of missing support in the underlying reasoners. For example, OPC UA defines a *ReferenceType* restriction of "non-looping" hierarchies. This restriction could be easily modelled through irreflexive and transitive object properties. Nevertheless, most reasoners do not support the combination of these two object property characteristics.

B. Query

The OPC Foundation specified a query language for accessing the information model of OPC UA. Nevertheless, due to the high complexity, nobody has implemented OPC UA Query until now for a publicly available product. We will now explain in greater detail how the presented mapping can be used to formulate OPC UA queries in SPARQL. As an example, which is well-known in the OPC UA universe, we chose Example B.2.4 from OPC UA Part 4. An OPC UA Query can be partitioned in two steps: First, specifying a so-called *Content-Filter*, which is used to apply certain filters;

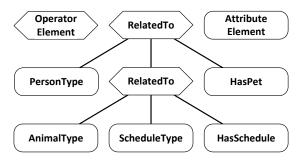


Fig. 6. OPC UA Part 4 Annex B Figure B.5 - Example B.2.4 Filter [1].

second, defining a so-called *NodeTypeDescription* for selecting the data which shall be returned.

The *Content-Filter* of Example B.2.4 can be formulated in the following way: Find all *Instances* of PersonType, where the *Instances* are connected to an *Instance* of AnimalType with a HasPet *ReferenceType*. In addition, the AnimalType *Instance* must be connected to a ScheduleType *Instance* with a HasSchedule *ReferenceType*. These conditions can also be represented in an OPC UA specific graphical notation, which is depicted in Figure 6.

The *NodeTypeDescription* of Example B.2.4 can be formulated in the following way: Return the LastName *Property* of the PersonType *Instance* and the Name *Property* of the corresponding AnimalType *Instance* and the Period *Property* of the ScheduleType *Instance* (see also Table II).

Annex B of OPC UA Part 4 also specifies an example information model and the results which should be returned for that query executed against this information model. Based on our mapping, it is possible to transform OPC UA information models into RDF-graphs, which can be loaded into already existing SPARQL-endpoints. We will now take a closer look at Example B.2.4 from the OPC UA specification and its transformation into SPARQL using our OWL ontology (see also Figure 7). For our prototype we used Apache Fuseki [29] from the Jena Semantic Web framework.

Line 1-2 of Figure 7 shows how OPC UA NamespaceURIs of the OPC UA NamespaceArray can be used as SPARQLprefix. Line 3 defines the Namespace for our OPC UA metamodel in OWL. The OPC UA Content-Filter is modelled in SPARQL based on simple triple statements (Line 7-9). Note that more complex filters are also no problem for SPARQL. For example, a "greater than" comparison can be easily modelled in SPARQL with the following statement: FILTER(?value > 10). Based on Line 5 in combination with the Lines 11-13, the NodeTypeDescription is expressed

 TABLE II

 OPC UA PART 4 TABLE B.3 - NODETYPEDESCRIPTION [1].

Туре-	Include	QueryDataDescription	
DefinitionNode	Subtypes	Relative Path	Att.
PersonType	FALSE	".12:LastName"	value
		"<12:HasPet>12:AnimalType	value
		.12:Name"	
		"<12:HasPet>12:AnimalType	value
		<12:HasSchedule>12:Schedule-	
		Type.12:Period"	

1 -	prefix query: <http: opcfoundati<="" td=""><td>ion.org/UA/Exampl</td><td>es/QueryPart4</td><td>/></td></http:>	ion.org/UA/Exampl	es/QueryPart4	/>	
2	<pre>prefix opcua: <http: opcfoundation.org="" ua=""></http:></pre>				
3	<pre>prefix ia: <http: ia="" meta="" opcfoundation.org="" ua=""></http:></pre>				
4					
5	SELECT DISTINCT ?nodeId ?lastnameValue ?nameValue ?periodValue				
6 •	WHERE {				
7	<pre>?person opcua:hasTypeDefinition query:PersonType. ?animal a query:AnimalType</pre>				
8	<pre>?schedule a query:ScheduleType. ?animal query:hasSchedule ?schedule.</pre>				
9	<pre>?person query:hasPet ?animal.</pre>				
10					
11	<pre>?person ia:nodeId ?nodeId. ?person query:lastname/ia:value ?lastnameValue.</pre>				
12	<pre>?animal query:name/ia:value ?nameValue.</pre>				
13	<pre>?schedule query:period/ia:value ?periodValue.</pre>				
14 QUEF	}LIMIT 25				
	,				
	RY RESULTS				
QUEF	RY RESULTS Table Raw Response	lastnameValue 0	nameValue ⊽	periodValue	
QUEF	RY RESULTS Table Raw Response	lastnameValue ∲ "Jones"	nameValue ∲ "Rosemary"	periodValue "Hourly"	
QUEF Show	RY RESULTS Table Raw Response wing 1 to 3 of 3 entries modeld "http://opcfoundation.org/UA/Examples/Q	•	•	•	

Fig. 7. Example B.2.4 of OPC UA Part 4 in SPARQL (Apache Fuseki).

in SPARQL. The lower part of Figure 7 displays the results which were returned from Apache Fuseki after executing the query against the information model of OPC UA Part 4 Annex B. Not surprisingly the results exactly match the results which shall be returned for the given query.

In conclusion, we showed how OPC UA information models can be filtered and navigated using SPARQL in combination with a suitable OPC UA to OWL mapping. Furthermore, the same query formulated in OPC UA Query based on the OPC UA C++ SDK of Unified Automation needs about 100 lines of code (see also [30]), which is much more effort for users than our SPARQL-based query of Figure 7.

VI. SUMMARY AND OUTLOOK

In this paper, we showed how Semantic Web technology can be used to solve some big challenges of OPC UA data models. First, we analysed how semantics is expressed within OPC UA data models and identified common pitfalls, which prevent a trivial extraction of the semantics. After that, we gave some insights into our OPC UA to OWL mapping and explained parts of the mapping by means of an example (This work will be contributed to a new OPC UA working group which will focus on this research). Finally, we outlined how this mapping can be used to validate and query OPC UA based data models.

Nevertheless, there are still some open challenges which have to be addressed. For example, OPC UA Query was designed to be used in production environments with thousands of updates per millisecond. This places a huge load on the triple store of the SPARQL query engine and also on the underlying controllers. At the moment we are investigating concepts to improve the performance based on classifying OPC UA data models in static and dynamic data.

TABLE III
OPC UA to OWL transformation rules (not complete). Notation $M: E \to M(E)$.

OPC UA	OWL		
Element <i>E</i> Mapping m(<i>E</i>): OWL Entity		Mapping m(E): OWL Axiom	
Meta-Model Basic Concepts			
Variable-Meta-Concept	owl:Class Variable	SubClassOf(Variable m(Base))	
NodeClass-Attribute	has-value class expression	SubClassOf(Variable DataHasValue(ia:nodeClass 2))	
VarT	owl:Class VarT	SubClassOf(VarT m(VariableType))	
DataType-Attribute	subclass axiom	SubClassOf(VarT m(DataT))	
ValueRank-Attribute	subclass axiom	SubClassOf(VarT m(VR))	
DataT	owl:Class DataT	SubClassOf(DataT m(DataType))	
VR	owl:Class VR	SubClassOf(VR m(ValueRankHelper))	
RefT	owl:ObjectProperty RefT	SubObjectPropertyOf(RefT m(opcua:topObjectProperty))	
SourceNode-Restriction (textual)	domain object property axiom	ObjectPropertyDomain(RefT " <sourcenode>")</sourcenode>	
TargetNode-Restriction (textual)	range object property axiom	ObjectPropertyRange(RefT " <targetnode>")</targetnode>	
Symmetric-Attribute	symmetric object property axiom	SymmetricObjectProperty(<i>RefT</i>)	
VID	owl:Class VID	SubClassOf(VID m(Variable))	
HasTypeDefinition-Reference	subclass axiom	SubClassOf(VID m(VarT))	
DataType-Attribute	subclass axiom	SubClassOf(VID m(DataT))	
ValueRank-Attribute	subclass axiom	SubClassOf(VID m(VR))	
BN	owl:ObjectProperty BN	SubObjectPropertyOf(BN m(opcua:topObjectProperty))	
IA	owl:DataProperty IA	SubDataPropertyOf(IA owl:topDataProperty)	
TA	owl:AnnotationProperty TA	AnnotationProperty(TA)	
Instance-Model Basic Concepts			
VarI	owl:NamedIndividual VarI	ClassAssertion(m(Variable) VarI)	
VID (if applicable)	class assertion	ClassAssertion(m(VID) VarI)	
Meta-Model Relations			
$VarT_1$ HasSubtype $VarT_2$	subclass axiom	SubClassOf(m($VarT_2$) m($VarT_1$))	
$DataT_1 HasSubtype DataT_2$	subclass axiom	SubClassOf(m($DataT_2$) m($DataT_1$))	
Ref T_1 HasSubtype Ref T_2	object subproperty axiom	SubObjectPropertyOf($m(RefT_2)$ $m(RefT_1)$)	
Mandatory-VID	existential class expression	SubClassOf($m(VarT_1)$ ObjectSomeValuesFrom($m(RefT_1) m(VID_1)$))	
$VarT_1 RefT_1 VID_1$			
BN-Concept of VID_1	owl:ObjectProperty IDOP ₁	SubObjectPropertyOf($IDOP_1 m(BN)$)	
Implicit-Concept	has-value class expression	SubClassOf(m(VID ₁) DataHasValue(ia:browseName " <browsenamevalue>")))</browsenamevalue>	
Implicit-Concept	functional object property axiom	FunctionalObjectProperty(IDOP ₁)	
Implicit-Concept	irreflexive object property axiom	IrreflexiveObjectProperty(IDOP ₁)	
Implicit-Concept	existential class expression	SubClassOf(m(VarT ₁) ObjectSomeValuesFrom(IDOP ₁ m(VID ₁)))	
Instance-Model Relations			
$VarI_1 RefT_1 VarI_2$	positive object property assertion	ObjectPropertyAssertion(m($RefT_1$) m($VarI_1$) m($VarI_2$))	
IA of VarI ₁	positive data property assertion	DataPropertyAssertion(m(IA) m(VarI ₁) " <attributevalue>")</attributevalue>	
		Type, DataT = DataType, VID = VariableInstanceDeclaration	
IDOP = InstanceDeclarationObjectPr	roperty, IA = Instance-Attributes, TA	= Type-Attributes, BN = BrowseName-Concept, VR = ValueRank-Attribute	

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