Variant Rules

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1 Overview

Label Generation Rulesets (LGR) define permissible labels, but may also define the condition under which variant labels may exist and their status (disposition).

Successfully defining variant rules for an LGR is not trivial. A number of considerations and constraints have to be taken into account. This document describes the basic constraints and use cases for variant rules in an LGR by using a more readable notation than the XML format defined in [XML-LGR]. When it comes time to capture the LGR in a formal definition, the format in this document can be converted to the XML format fairly directly.

From the perspective of a user of the DNS, variants are experienced as variant labels; two (or more) labels that are functionally "the same" under the conventions of the writing system used, even though their code point sequences are different. An LGR specification, on the other hand, defines variant mappings between code points, and only in a secondary step, derives from these mappings the variant labels. For a discussion of this process as it relates to the root zone, see [Procedure].

By assigning a "type" to the variant mappings and carefully constructing the derivation of variant label dispositions from these types, the designer of an LGR can control whether some or all of the variant labels created from an original label should be available for allocation (to the original applicant) or whether some or all of these labels should be blocked instead and remain not allocatable (to anyone).

The choice between these alternatives would be based on the expectations of the users of the particular zone, and is not the subject of this document. Instead, this document attempts to point out how to design an LGR to achieve the selected design choice for handling variants.

2 Variant Relationships

A variant relationship is fundamentally a "same as", in other words, it is an equivalence relationship. Now the strictest sense of "same as" would be equality, and for equality we have both symmetry

$$A = B \Rightarrow B = A$$

and transitivity

$$A = B$$
 and $B = C \Rightarrow A = C$

The variant relationship with its expanded sense of "same as" must really satisfy the same constraint. Once we say A is the "same as" B, we also assert that B is the "same as" A. In this document, the symbol "~" means "has a variant relationship with". Thus we get

$$A \sim B \Rightarrow B \sim A$$

Likewise, if we make the same claim for B and C (B \sim C) then we do get A \sim C, because if B is "the same" as both A and C then A must be "the same as" C:

$$A \sim B$$
 and $B \sim C \Rightarrow A \sim C$

3 Variant Mappings

So far, we have treated variant relationships as simple "same as" ignoring that each relationship consists of a pair of reciprocal mappings. In this document, the symbol " \rightarrow " means "maps to".

$$A \sim B \Rightarrow A \rightarrow B$$
, $B \rightarrow A$

These mappings are not defined between labels, but between code points (or code point sequences). In the transitive case, given

$$A \sim B \Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A$$

$$A \sim C \Rightarrow A \rightarrow C, C \rightarrow A$$

we also get

$$B \sim C \Rightarrow B \rightarrow C, C \rightarrow B$$

for a total of six possible mappings. Conventionally, these are listed in tables in order of the source code point, like so

 $A \rightarrow B$

 $A \rightarrow C$

 $B \rightarrow A$

 $B \rightarrow C$

 $C \rightarrow A$

 $C \rightarrow B$

As we can see, each of A, B and C can be mapped two ways.

4 Variant Labels

To create a variant label, each code point in the original label is successively replaced by all variant code points defined by a mapping from the original code point. For a label AAA (the

letter "A" three times), the variant labels (given the mappings from transitive example above) would be

AAB

ABA

ABB

BAA

BAB

BBA

BBB

AAC

...

CCC

5 Variant Types and Label Dispositions

Assume we wanted to allow a variant relation between the letters Ö and O, and perhaps also between Ò and O as well as Ó and O. By transitivity we would have

$$0 \sim \ddot{0} \sim \dot{0} \sim \dot{0}$$

However, we would like to distinguish the case where someone applies for 000 from the case where someone applies for the label $\ddot{0}\ddot{0}\ddot{0}$. In the former case we would like to allocate only the label 000, but in the latter case, perhaps because people have been used to dropping accents on internet addresses, we would like to also allow the allocation of either the original label $\ddot{0}\ddot{0}\ddot{0}$ or the variant label 000, or both, but not of any of the other possible variant labels, like 00 $\dot{0}$ or 0 $\ddot{0}$.

How do we make that distinction?

The answer lies in labeling the mapping $0 \rightarrow \ddot{0}$ with the type "blocked" and the mapping $\ddot{0} \rightarrow 0$ with the type "allocatable". In this document, the symbol "x \rightarrow " means "maps with type blocked" and the symbol "a \rightarrow " means "maps with type allocatable". Thus:

When we generate all permutations of labels, we use mappings with different types depending from which code points we start.

In creating an LGR with variants, all variant mappings are always labeled with a type. By default, these types correspond directly to the dispositions for variant labels, with the most restrictive type determining the disposition of the variant label. However, as we shall see later, it is sometimes useful to assign types from a wider array of values than the final dispositions for the labels and then define explicitly how to derive label dispositions from them.

6 Allocatable Variants

If we start with ÖÖÖ, the permutation OOO will have been the result of applying only mappings with type "a" (allocatable) and by tracking which types were used in generating the label we know whether we can allocate both the label OOO and the original label ÖÖÖ.

We record the variant types for each of the variant mappings used in creating the permutation in an ordered list. Such an ordered list of variant types is called a "variant type list". In running text it is often enclosed in square brackets. For example [a x -] means the variant label was derived from a variant mapping with the "a" variant type in the first code point position, "x" in the second code point position, and that the third position is the original code point ("-" means "no variant mapping").

For our example permutation we get the following variant type list (brackets dropped):

```
ÖÖÖ → 000 : a a a
```

From the variant type list we derive a "variant type set", denoted by curly braces, that contains an unordered set of *unique* variant types in the variant type list. For the variant type list for the given permutation, [a a a], the variant type set is { a }, which has a single element "a".

Deciding to allow the allocation of a variant label then amounts to deriving a disposition for the variant **label** from the variant type set created from the variant mappings that were used to create the label. For example the derivation

```
if "all variants" = "a" ⇒ set label disposition to "allocatable"
```

would allow 000 to be allocated, because the types of all variants mappings used to create that variant label from ÖÖÖ are "a".

The "all-variants" condition is tolerant of an extra "-" in the variant set (unlike the "only-variants" condition described below). So, had we started with $\ddot{0}0\ddot{0}$, $0\ddot{0}\ddot{0}$ or $\ddot{0}\ddot{0}0$, the variant set for the permuted variant 000 would have been { a - } because in each case one of the code points remains the same as the original. The "-" means that because of the absence of a mapping $0 \rightarrow 0$ there is no variant type for the 0 in each of these labels.

The "all-variants" = "a" condition ignores the "-", so using the derivation from above, we find that 000 is an allocatable variant for each of the labels $\ddot{0}0\ddot{0}$, $0\ddot{0}\ddot{0}$ or $\ddot{0}\ddot{0}0$.

7 Blocked variants

Blocked variants are not available to another registrant. They therefore protect the applicant of the original label from someone else registering a label that is "the same as" under some user-perceived metric. Blocked variants can be a useful tool even for scripts for which no allocatable labels are ever defined.

If we start with OOO, the permutation ÖÖÖ will have been the result of applying only mappings with type "blocked" and we cannot allocate the label ÖÖÖ, only the original label OOO. This corresponds to the following derivation:

```
if "any variants" = "x" \Rightarrow set label disposition to "blocked"
```

To prevent allocating $\ddot{0}$ 00 as a variant label for $\ddot{0}$ 00 we further need to make sure that the mapping $\ddot{0} \rightarrow \dot{0}$ has been defined with type "blocked" as in

so that

Thus the set $\{x \ a\}$ contains at least one "x" and satisfies the derivation of a blocked disposition for $\ddot{O}O$.

8 Pure Variant Labels

Now, if we wanted to prevent allocation of ÖOÖ when we start from ÖÖÖ, we would need a rule disallowing a mix of original code points and variant code points, which is easily accomplished by use of the "only-variants" qualifier, which requires that the label consist entirely of variants and all the variants are from the same set of types.

```
if "only-variants" = "a" ⇒ set label disposition to "allocatable"
```

The two code points $\ddot{0}$ in $\ddot{0}0\ddot{0}$ are not arrived at by variant mappings, because the code points are unchanged and no variant mappings are defined for $\ddot{0} \rightarrow \ddot{0}$. So, in our example, the set of variant mapping types is

but unlike the "all-variants" condition, "only-variants" requires a variant type list [a a a]" (no - allowed). By adding a final derivation

```
else if "any-variants" = "a" ⇒ set label disposition to "blocked"
```

and executing that derivation only on any remaining labels, we disallow $\ddot{0}0\ddot{0}$ when starting from $\ddot{0}\ddot{0}\ddot{0}$, but still allow 000.

Derivation conditions are always applied in order, with later derivations only applying to labels that did not match any earlier conditions, as indicated by the use of "else" in the last example. In other words, they form a cascade.

9 Reflexive Variants

But what if we started from ÖOÖ? We would expect OOO to be allocatable, but the variant type set would be

because the O is the original code point. Here is where we use a reflexive mapping, by realizing that O is "the same as" O, which is normally redundant, but allows us to specify a disposition on the mapping

$$0 \text{ a} \rightarrow 0$$

with that, the variant type list for $\ddot{0}0\ddot{0} \rightarrow 000$ becomes:

and the label 000 again passes the derivation condition

```
if "only-variants" = "a" ⇒ set label disposition to "allocatable"
```

as desired. This use of reflexive variants is typical whenever derivations with the "only-variants" qualifier are used.

10 Limiting Allocatable Variants by Subtyping

As we have seen, the number of variant labels can potentially be large, due to combinatorics.

To recap, in the standard case a code point C can have (up to) two types of variant mappings

$$C x \rightarrow X$$

$$C a \rightarrow A$$

where $a \rightarrow$ means a variant mapping with type "allocatable", and $x \rightarrow$ means "blocked". By convention, we name the target code point with the corresponding uppercase letter.

Subtyping is a mechanism that allows us to distinguish among different types of allocatable variants. For example, we can define three new types: "s", "t" and "b". "s" and "t" are mutually incompatible, but "b" is compatible with either "s" or "t" (in this case, "b" stands for "both"). With this, a code point C might have (up to) four types of variant mappings

 $C \times X \rightarrow X$

 $C s \rightarrow S$

 $C t \rightarrow T$

 $C b \rightarrow B$

and explicit reflexive mappings of one of these types

$$C s \rightarrow C$$

```
C t \rightarrow C
 C b \rightarrow C
```

As before, all mappings must have one and only one type, but each code point may map to any number of other code points.

We define the compatibility of "b" with "t" or "s" by our choice of derivation conditions as follows

```
if "only-variants" = "s" or "b" \Rightarrow allocatable
else if "only-variants" = "t" or "b" \Rightarrow allocatable
else if "any-variants" = "s" or "t" or "b" or "x" \Rightarrow blocked
```

An original label of four code points

```
CCCC
```

may have many variant labels such as this example listed with its corresponding variant type list:

```
CCCC \rightarrow XSTB : x s t b
```

This variant label is blocked because to get from C to B required $x \rightarrow$. (Because variant mappings are defined for specific source code points, we need to show the starting label for each of these examples, not merely the code points in the variant label.) . The variant label

```
CCCC \rightarrow SSBB : s s b b
```

is allocatable, because the variant type list contains only allocatable mappings of subtype s or b, which we have defined as being compatible by our choice of derivations. The actual set of variant types {s, b} has only two members, but the examples are easier to follow if we list each type. The label

```
CCCC → TTBB:ttbb
```

is again allocatable, because the variant type set $\{t, b\}$ contains only allocatable mappings of the mutually compatible allocatable subtypes t or b. In contrast,

```
CCCC → SSTT:sstt
```

is not allocatable, because the type set contains incompatible subtypes t and s and thus would be blocked by the final derivation.

The variant labels

 $CCCC \rightarrow CSBB : c s b b$

 $CCCC \rightarrow CTBB : c t b b$

are only allocatable based on the subtype for the $C \rightarrow C$ mapping, which is denoted here by c and (depending on what was chosen for the type of the reflexive mapping) could correspond to s, t, or b.

If it is *s*, the first of these two labels is allocatable; if it is *t*, the second of these two labels is allocatable; if it is *b*, both labels are allocatable.

So far, the scheme doesn't seem to have brought any huge reduction in allocatable variant labels, but that is because we tacitly assumed that C could have all three types of allocatable variants *s*, *t*, and *b* at the same time.

In a real world example, the types s, t and b are assigned so that each code point C normally has at most one non-reflexive variant mapping labeled with one of these subtypes, and all other mappings would be assigned type x (blocked). This holds true for most code points in existing tables (such as those used in current IDN TLDs), although certain code points have exceptionally complex variant relations and may have an extra mapping.

11 Allowing Mixed Originals

If the desire is to allow original labels (but not variant labels) that are s/t mixed, then the scheme needs to be slightly refined to distinguish between reflexive and non-reflexive variants. In this document, the symbol "r-n" means "a reflexive (identity) mapping of type 'n'". The reflexive mappings of the preceding section thus become:

```
C r-s \rightarrow C

C r-t \rightarrow C

C r-b \rightarrow C
```

With this convention, and redefining the derivations

```
if "only-variants" = "s" or "r-s" or "b" or "r-b" \Rightarrow allocatable else if "only-variants" = "t" or "r-t" or "b" or "r-b" \Rightarrow allocatable else if "any-variants" = "s" or "t" or "b" or "x" \Rightarrow blocked else \Rightarrow allocatable
```

any labels that contain *only* reflexive mappings of otherwise mixed type (in other words, any mixed original label) now fall through and their disposition is set to "allocatable" in the final derivation.

12 Handling Out Of Repertoire Variants

At first it may seem counterintuitive to define variants that map to code points not part of the repertoire. However, for zones for which multiple LGRs are defined, there may be situations where labels valid under one LGR should be blocked if a label under another LGR is already delegated. This situation can arise whether or not the repertoires of the affected

LGRs overlap, and, where repertoires overlap, whether or not the labels are both restricted to the common subset.

In order to handle this exclusion relation through definition of variants, it is necessary to be able to specify variant mappings to some code point X that is outside an LGR's repertoire, R:

$$C \times X \rightarrow X : where C \in R \text{ and } X \notin R$$

Because of symmetry, it is necessary to also specify the inverse mapping in the LGR:

```
X \times \rightarrow C: where X \notin R and C \in R
```

This makes X a source of variant mappings and it becomes necessary to identify X as being outside the repertoire, so that any attempt to apply for a label containing X will lead to a disposition of "invalid" — just as if X had never been listed in the LGR. The mechanism to do this, again uses reflexive variants, but with a new type of reflexive mapping of "out-of-repertoire-var", shown as "r-o→":

$$X \text{ r-o} \rightarrow X$$

When paired with a suitable derivation, any label containing X is assigned a disposition of "invalid", just as if X was any other code point not part of the repertoire. The derivation used is:

```
if "any-variant" = "out-of-repertoire-var" ⇒ invalid
```

It is inserted ahead of any other derivation of the "any-variant" kind in the chain of derivations. As a result for any out-of repertoire variants three entries are minimally required:

```
C \times X : \text{ where } C \in R \text{ and } X \notin R
 X \times C : \text{ where } X \notin R \text{ and } C \in R
```

 $X \text{ r-o} \rightarrow X : \text{ where } X \notin R$

Because no variant label with any code point outside the repertoire could ever be allocated, the only logical choice for the non-reflexive mappings to out-of-repertoire code points is "blocked".

13 Conditional Variants

Variant mappings are based on whether code points are "the same" to the user. In some writing systems, code points change shape based on where they occur in the word (positional forms). Some code points have matching shapes in some positions, but not in others. In such cases, the variant mapping only exists for some possible positions, or more general, only for some contexts. For example, take a variant relation that only exists at the end of a label (or in final position):

final: $C \rightarrow D$

From symmetry, we have that the mapping $X \rightarrow C$ should also exist only when the code point X is in final position. (And the same for transitivity). Because shapes differ by position, when a context is applied to a variant mapping, it is treated independently from the same mapping in other contexts. For example, the mapping $C \rightarrow X$ may be "allocatable" in final position, but "blocked" in any other context (that is when the condition is the opposite of final, shown here as "!final"):

final: $C a \rightarrow D$!final: $C b \rightarrow D$

Now, the type assigned to the symmetric, or transitive mapping is independent. Let's imagine a situation where the transitive case is D a \rightarrow E, that is, all mappings from D to E are "allocatable":

final: D $a \rightarrow E$!final: D $a \rightarrow E$

Why not simply D a → E? Adding a context makes the variant mapping distinct and it needs to be accounted for explicitly so that human and machine readers can easily verify symmetry and transitivity of the variants in the LGR.

For the same reason it is an error to combine a variant mapping with context with a variant mapping with the same target but without a context, or to define two contexts that may be satisfied by the same label.¹

Finally, for symmetry to work, the context must be such that it is satisfied for both the original code point in the context of the original label as for the variant code point in the variant label. Positional contexts satisfy this last condition, but in principle it is possible to define other kinds of contexts.

It is not necessary to define multiple contexts, such as "final" and "!final", that together cover all possible cases. For example, here are two contexts that do not cover all possible positional contexts:

final: $C \rightarrow D$ initial: $C \rightarrow D$.

14 Corresponding XML Notation

The XML format defined in [XML-LGR] corresponds fairly directly to the notation used in this document. For example, a variant relation of type "blocked"

¹ The former error can be easily detected and rejected by a parser, the latter depends on the interaction between labels and context rules. It should be reported if detected during label evaluation, but short of brute force testing could be missed during LGR creation.

```
C x \rightarrow X
```

is expressed as

```
<char cp="nnnn"><var cp="mmmm" type="blocked" /></char>
```

where we assume that *nnnn* and *mmmm* are the Unicode code point values for C and X, respectively. A reflexive mapping always uses the same code point value for <char> and <var> element, for example

$$X r-o \rightarrow X$$

would correspond to

```
<char cp="nnnn"><var cp="nnnn" type="out-of-repertoire-var" /></char>
```

Multiple <var> elements may be nested inside a single <char> element, but their "cp" values must be distinct (unless other distinguishing attributes are present that are not discussed here).

A set of conditional variants like

```
final: C a \rightarrow K!final: C b \rightarrow K
```

would correspond to

```
<var cp="kkkk" when="final" type="allocatable" />
<var cp="kkkk" not-when="final" type="blocked" />
```

where the string "final" references a name of a context rule. Context rules are defined in [XML-LGR] and the details of how to create and define them are outside the scope of this document. If the label matches the context defined in the rule, the variant mapping is valid and takes part in further processing. Otherwise it is invalid and ignored. Using the "notwhen" attribute inverts the sense of the match. The two attributes are mutually exclusive.

A derivation of a variant label disposition

```
if "only-variants" = "s" or "b" \Rightarrow allocatable
```

is expressed as

```
<action disp="allocatable" only-variants= "s b" />
```

Instead of using "if" and "else if" the <action> elements implicitly form a cascade, where the first action triggered defines the disposition of the label. The order of action elements is thus significant.

For the full specification of the XML format see [XML-LGR].

15 References

[Procedure] Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers, "Procedure to Develop and Maintain the Label Generation Rules for the Root Zone in Respect of IDNA Labels." (Los Angeles, California: ICANN, March, 2013)

http://www.icann.org/en/resources/idn/variant-tlds/draft-lgr-procedure-20mar13-en.pdf

[XML-LGR] Davies, K. and A. Freytag, "Representing Label Generation Rulesets using XML", http://tools.ietf.org/html/draft-davies-idntables-07/. Visited 2015-07-18.