Using DBpedia Categories to Evaluate and Explain Similarity in Linked Open Data

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Abstract: Similarity is defined as the degree of resemblance between two objects. In this paper we present a new method to evaluate similarity between resources in Linked Open Data. The input of our method is a pair of resources belonging to the same type (e.g. Person or Painter), described by their DBpedia categories. We first compute the 'distance' between each pair of categories. For that we need to explore the graph whose vertices are the categories and whose edges connect categories and sub-categories. Then we deduce a measure of the similarity/dissimilarity between the two resources. The output of our method is not limited to this measure but includes other quantitative and qualitative informations explaining similarity/dissimilarity of the two resources. In order to validate our method, we implemented it and applied it to a set of DBpedia resources that refer to painters belonging to different countries, centuries and artistic movements.

1 INTRODUCTION

DBpedia (Lehmann et al., 2015) is one of the most important semantic datasets freely accessible on the web. It contains structured knowledge extracted from Wikipedia. To define RDF triples, DBpedia uses its own vocabulary1, RDF2, RDFS3 and OWL vocabularies and other ontologies such that Dublin Core Metadata Initiative4 (dcmi), Skos5 and Foaf6.

DBpedia uses many thousands predicates to describe resources but all these predicates don’t have the same importance. For example, on the french version of DBpedia7 we have 208796 (resp. 3352) articles belonging to the type Person (resp. Painter). These articles use 2887 (resp 345) predicates, but only 13 (resp. 14) predicates are used in 99% of the articles and only 18 (resp. 21) predicates are used in 80% of the articles. Only these common predicates can be used to compare resources. dcterms:subject is one of these few predicates. Its values are DBpedia categories and it is intended to define the topics of the resources.

Categories contain all important information about a resource. For example, when the article is about a novel, they give us all information about it (author, date, language, genre, ...). Therefore, categories contain all elements we need to compare two resources and to measure their similarity/dissimilarity.

Similarity is defined as the degree of resemblance between two objects (Meymandpour and Davis, 2016). According to Tversky (Tversky, 1977) it serves to "classify objects, form concepts and make generalizations". Many methods to evaluate similarity have been presented by researchers. An overview of these methods can be found in (Meng et al., 2013) and (Meymandpour and Davis, 2016). In this article, we present a new method for evaluating and explaining similarity between objects. These objects are represented as sets of DBpedia categories.

The rest of this paper is organised as follows. In section 2 we describe DBpedia categories and their organization. Section 3 summarizes the motivation of this work and its contributions. Sections 4, 5 and 6 give a detailed description of our method. In section 7 we present our experimental results. Section 8 describes related work. We conclude in the section 9.

1 http://dbpedia.org/ontology/
2 https://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns
3 https://www.w3.org/2000/01/rdf-schema
4 http://dublincore.org/documents/2012/06/14/dcmi-terms/
5 https://www.w3.org/2009/08/skos-reference/skos.html
6 http://xmlns.com/foaf/spec/
7 http://fr.dbpedia.org/
8 Retrieved April 28, 2017
2 DBpedia CATEGORIES

There are two main types of categories: administrative categories and content categories. Administrative categories are used to organise the Wikipedia project. They are non-semantic categories. The content categories are used to group articles dealing with the same subject. In other words, two Wikipedia articles belong to the same category if they share some property: e.g. Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael and Michelangelo belong to the 16th-century Italian painters.

Some categories are called container categories: they are intended to be populated entirely by subcategories. Other categories can contain only articles or both sub-categories and articles. We call the former pure categories and the latter mixed categories.

Given what we have summarized above, DBpedia categories are organised using two graphs. The first one is a bipartite graph $G_b=(R,C;E_S)$, where $R$ is the set of all resources, $C$ the set of categories and $E_S$ the set of edges defined by the predicate determines:subject. The second one is an acyclic directed graph $G_d=(C,EB)$ where $EB$ is the set of edges defined by the predicate skos:broader. For two categories $cat_1$ and $cat_2$, we have $cat_1$ skos:broader $cat_2$ if $cat_1$ is a sub-category of $cat_2$. We notice that in this graph about 13% of the vertices are isolated. The majority of these vertices correspond to date categories. We also have a little number of sinks (vertices without incoming edges). About 50% are sources (vertices without incoming edges). These vertices represent pure categories.

3 MOTIVATION AND CONTRIBUTION

Our aim in this work is to define a similarity measure for linked data that simulates as well as possible human notion of similarity. Given how humans evaluate the similarity between objects, such a measure must have at least the two following properties:

1. Be able to detect hidden commonality: let us for example consider two paintings defined by the following sets of features: $P_1=\{\text{Author=Claude Monet, Creation Year=1914, Museum=Musée de l’Orangerie}\}$ and $P_2=\{\text{Author=Auguste Renoir, Creation Year=1911, Museum=Petit Palais}\}$. These two paintings don’t have common features. A standard feature-based similarity measure will conclude that their similarity is equal to 0. However, they have an important commonality: both of them were painted by French impressionist painters, were created about 1910, and are on display in a Parisian museum. We call that a ‘hidden’ commonality.

2. To give different weights to features depending on their ‘obvious’ importance: let us for example consider the following objects: $P_1=\{\ldots, \text{Author=Claude Monet, Category=Vandalized works of art,...}\}$ and $P_2=\{\ldots, \text{Author=Claude Monet,...}\}$ and $P_3=\{\ldots, \text{Category=Vandalized works of art,...}\}$. According to a standard feature-based similarity measures, the similarity between $P_1$ and $P_2$ is equal to the similarity between $P_1$ and $P_3$ because the two pairs of paintings have the same number of common features and the same number of different features. But in the definition of a painting the feature ‘Author=’ is obviously more ‘important’ than the feature ‘Category=Vandalized works of art’. Therefore, in a ‘good’ similarity measure, contribution of the former feature should be more important than that of the latter.

In addition to these two essential properties, we want our similarity measure to have some other nice properties: to be intuitive, data type-independent and dataset-independent, and its results are easily explained.

To the best of our knowledge, no one of the known methods has all these properties (see section 8).

The main contributions of this paper can be summarized as follows:

1. Defining a unified representation of LOD resources using weighted DBpedia categories.
2. An intuitive algorithm that uses categories’ graph to measure similarity between resources.
3. The output of this algorithm is not limited to the similarity measure but contains qualitative elements explaining it.

4 PROBLEM FORMALIZATION

- Given two DBpedia resources belonging to the same type, our objective is to measure their similarity and give an explanation to this similarity/dissimilarity.
- A resource is described by its categories and each category is assigned a weight.
- As input we have two resources represented by their categories and their weights. In other words each resource is described by a set of couples $R=\{(c_i,w_i)\}$ where $c_i,w_i$ are categories and weights are real numbers such that $\sum w_i=1$. 
To measure similarity between \( R_1 = \{(c_1, w_1)\} \) and \( R_2 = \{(c_2, w_2)\} \) we need a function computing the 'distance' between categories. Let us call \( \text{dist} \) such a function.

We use \( \text{dist} \) to compute first the distance between each pair \((c_1, c_2)\), then the distance between each category \( c \) and the other resource, and finally the distance between the two resources.

The desired output contains 3 levels. The level 0 contains couples \( \{(c_1, c_2) \in R_1 \times R_2 \} \) such that \( c_1 \) is close to \( c_2 \). These categories explain resources’ similarity. This level also contains categories which are not close to other categories. These categories explain dissimilarity between the two resources. The level 1 contains a 1-dimension table summarizing the level 0 content. The top level contains a measure of the similarity between the two resources.

5 DISTANCE BETWEEN CATEGORIES

The predicate skos:broader is a particular case of the 'is-a' relation. This relation has been extensively studied and we know ((Rada et al., 1989)) that in this case the shortest path length between categories defines a semantic distance. We call \( \text{dist} \) this semantic distance and we compute it using the following algorithm:

- **Input**: The graph \( GB \), the two categories \( c_1 \) and \( c_2 \). An integer \( \text{DEPTH_MAX} \) and a 'big' integer \( \text{INF} \).
- **Output**: The integer value \( \text{dist}(c_1, c_2) \).
- Starting from \( c_1 \) and \( c_1 \) explore the graph \( GB \) using a breadth-first traversal. Limit the graph exploration to a depth \( \text{DEPTH_MAX} \).
- If we find a common ancestor \( cc \) : \( \text{dist}(c_1, c_2) = \text{length}(c_1 \rightarrow cc) + \text{length}(c_1 \rightarrow cc) \).
- Else : \( \text{dist}(c_1, c_2) = \text{INF} \).

In the following we will take \( \text{INF} = 2 \times \text{DEPTH_MAX} + 1 \). It results that \( \text{dist}(c_1, c_2) \in \{0,...,2 \times \text{DEPTH_MAX} + 1\} \).

5.1 Particular Case of Isolated Categories

Some categories are isolated vertices in the graph \( GB \). It follows that if we apply the general definition of the distance between categories we will have : For each isolated category \( c_d \), for each category \( c \neq c_d \), \( \text{dist}(c_d, c) = \text{INF} \).

In this work, we considered more specially birth and death categories (YYYY_births and YYYY_deaths) that we find in resources belonging to the type Person. These categories are processed as follows:

1. The distance between two birth (resp. death) categories is the number of generations between them. If this number of generations is greater than 2*DEPTH_MAX we consider that the distance is \( \text{INF} \). In this work we take \( \text{GEN}=25 \).
2. For each other category \( c \) the distance between a birth (resp. death) category and \( c \) is equal to \( \text{INF} \).

6 DISTANCE BETWEEN RESOURCES

Given two resources \( R_1 = \{(c_1, w_1)\} \) and \( R_2 = \{(c_2, w_2)\} \), we compute the distance \( \text{dist}(R_1, R_2) \) between them as follows:

1. For each pair \((c_1, c_2)\) compute the distance \( d_{ij} = \text{dist}(c_1, c_2) \).
2. For each category \( c_1 \), compute the distance between \( c_1 \) and the resource \( R_2 \) defined by \( \text{dist}(c_1) = \text{dist}(c_1, R_2) = \text{min}_j(d_{ij}) \).
3. For each category \( c_2 \), compute the distance between \( c_2 \) and the resource \( R_1 \) defined by \( \text{dist}(c_2) = \text{dist}(c_2, R_1) = \text{min}_i(d_{ij}) \).
4. When computing the latter distances we define the set \( T \) as follows:
   - \( T = \{(c, \text{dist}(c, c'))\} \) where \( c \) is a category of \( R_1 \) or \( R_2 \), and \( \text{dist}(c) = \text{dist}(c, c') \), in other words \( c' \) is a category that minimizes the distance between \( c \) and the categories of the other resource.
5. Define the 2*DEPTH_MAX + 2-size table \( \text{tab} \) as follows:
   - \( \text{tab}[i] = \text{cumulated weight of categories whose distance to the other resource is equal to } i \).
6. \( \text{dist}(R_1, R_2) = \sum (i \times \text{tab}[i]) / \sum \text{tab}[i] \)

This distance is comprised between 0 and \( \text{INF} = 2 \times \text{DEPTH_MAX} + 1 \). We can normalize it if we want to compare distances computed with different values of \( \text{DEPTH_MAX} \). Similar resources have low values of \( \text{dist} \). Dissimilar ones have values close to \( \text{INF} \).

To explain similarity/dissimilarity of the two resources, we use:
1. the set \( T \) : If the \( d \) value of a triplet \( \{(c,d,c')\} \) is low, categories \( c, c' \) and their common successor \( cs \) explain similarity. If \( d \) is high, \( c \) explains dissimilarity.

2. the table \( tab \) : This table summarizes the content of \( T \). Its left cells (lowest indexes) contain the cumulated weights of similar elements and Its right cells (highest indexes) contain the cumulated weights of dissimilar elements.

6.1 Algorithm

- **Input** :
  - Two resources \( R1 \) and \( R2 \) defined by \( R1=\{(c1,w1)\} \) and \( R2=\{(c2,w2)\} \).
  - Two integers \( DEPTH\_MAX,\ GEN \).

- **Output** :
  - \( T \) : the set of triplets \( \{(c,d,c')\} \).
  - \( tab \) : the \( 2*DEPTH\_MAX+2 \) table.
  - \( dist(R1,R2) \) : the similarity measure.

1. Initialize \( T \) to \( \emptyset \) and \( tab \) to \( \{0,...,0\} \).
2. **Clean** \( R1 \) and \( R2 \) :
   - Remove administrative categories.
   - Remove categories which are super-categories of other categories in the same resource.
3. For each couple \( (c1,c2) \) compute the distance \( d_{ij}=\text{dist}(c1,c2) \).
4. For each category \( c1 \) :
   - compute \( d1=\text{dist}(c1,R2) \).
   - Add \( w1 \) to \( tab[d1] \).
   - Add triplets \( (c1,d1,c') \) such that \( \text{dist}(c1,c') = d1 \) to \( T \).
5. Do the same with categories \( c2 \).
6. Compute \( \text{dist}(R1,R2) = \sum (i + \text{tab}[i]) / \sum \text{tab}[i] \)

6.2 Defining the Weights \( w_i \)

As it is noted by Cheekula et al.((Cheekula et al., 2015)), Wikipedia has a convention stating that the categories of a particular article should be ordered according to their significance in the article. We define the weights as a function of this order. In other words the weight \( w \) of a category \( c \) is defined by \( w = f(r) \), where \( f \) is a decreasing or constant function, and \( r \) is the rank of the category. We used 4 different functions :

1. The constant function \( f_1(x) = \frac{1}{n} \), where \( n \) is the total number of categories defining the resource (figure 1 (a)).
2. The affine function \( f_2(x) = ax + b \) (figure 1 (b)).
3. The logistic function \( f_3(x) = \frac{a}{1+\exp[\alpha]} \) (figure 1 (c)).
4. The inverse function \( f_4(x) = \frac{b}{x} \) (figure 1 (d)).

\( f_1 \) considers that all categories have the same importance. \( f_2 \) decreases slowly, we use it when we want to limit difference between high weights and low weights. \( f_3 \) decreases very slowly then more rapidly, it divides categories into 3 groups : the first one is given a high weight, the second is given an average weight and the last is given a low weight. \( f_4 \) decreases very rapidly : only the very first categories are taken into account in the evaluation of the similarity.

6.3 An Example

Let us take an example. We want to measure the similarity between the two painters Raphael and Leonardo da Vinci. We take \( DEPTH\_MAX=4 \) and use the affine function to compute the weights.

1. **Raphael** is defined by an ordered list of 15 categories : {Italian Renaissance painters, Italian Renaissance architects, Mythological painters, ..., 1483 births, 1520 deaths, Death in Rome, ...}.
2. **Leonardo da Vinci** is defined by an ordered list of 15 categories : {Italian Renaissance painters, Italian Renaissance architects, ..., 1452 births, 1519 deaths, ..., Humanists, ..., Hydraulic engineers, ..., Anatomists}.
3. \( \text{sim}(R1,R2) = 2.97 \) out of \( 2*4+1=9 \) : it is a high similarity but not as high as we could expect. The reason is that the two painters have many similar elements and some dissimilar ones. The explanation of this value is given by the set \( T \) and the table \( tab \).
4. The table \( tab \) is shown by figure 2. We see in this bar chart that the weight of the distance 0 represents more than 35% of the total weight : this is...
due to the important number of common categories and to their high weight. We also notice that the right part of the figure is not empty: the distance $2 \times$ DEPTH MAX = 8 represents more than 10% of the total weight, ...

5. The set of triplets $T = \{\text{Italian Renaissance painters, Italian Renaissance painters, 0}, \text{Italian Renaissance architects, Italian Renaissance architects, 0}, \text{1483 births, 1452 births, 1}, \text{1520 deaths, 1519 deaths, 0}, \text{Mythological painters, Religious painters, 4}, \text{Death in Rome, People of the Republic of Florence, 5}, ...\}$. 

7 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS-EVALUATION

There are two main kinds of methods to evaluate computational measures of similarity. The first is correlating these values with those of human judgments (Resnik, 1995). The second is application-oriented evaluation: for example, the similarity measure is included in a recommender system (di Noia et al., 2012), (Meymandpour and Davis, 2016)) and the predictions of this system are compared to actual users’ behaviour. In this work, we chose to validate our method by showing that it simulates human notion of similarity. For that, we conducted several independent series of experiments. In the one we present in this paper, we use our similarity measures to rank resources with respect to their similarity with a given resource, then we compare the obtained results to those given by a human group.

7.1 Experimental Setting

The dataset we used in our experiments is the french version of DBpedia\(^9\). This dataset can be queried via its SPARQL endpoint\(^10\). The DBpedia resources we considered refer to painters belonging to different countries, centuries and artistic movements.

To implement our method we used Python programming language and its package Sparqlwrapper. The first task accomplished by our programs is to extract the set of categories of each resource and clean it by removing administrative categories and categories which are super-categories of other categories. These sets are then completed by adding the rank of each category.

For the next steps we need to choose the value(s) of DEPTH MAX. Both the accuracy of our measures and the time efficiency of our programs depend on the value of this parameter. In these experiments we chose these values empirically. For that, we started by trying a large set of values (between 2 and 10) and observed the categories lists obtained in each level and changes in the measures obtained. We then noticed that starting from the level 4, categories are too general and/or not too correlated with the considered resources. We also noticed that similarity measures change very little when we increase the value of DEPTH MAX. Considering this, in all our experiments we used DEPTH MAX=2 or DEPTH MAX=3. Generality of categories and their correlation with resources can be precisely measured using respectively information content and relatedness. For example, table 1 presents a short example giving average relatedness between the DBpedia resource ‘Edouard Manet‘\(^11\) and the categories met when exploring the graph starting from this resource. In this evaluation, relatedness value is between 0 for the very weakly correlated pairs resource/category (e.g Manet and Cultural anthropology) and 5 for the very highly related ones (e.g Manet and French Impressionist painters).

7.2 Application to Ranking

In this series we evaluated our results by correlating our similarity values with those of human judgments. For that we formed two groups: the first was composed of 10 engineering school teachers and the second was composed of 10 graduate students. We gave the list of 12 painters shown in table 2 to every member of these groups and asked them to rate similarity for

\(^9\)http://fr.dbpedia.org/
\(^10\)http://fr.dbpedia.org/sparql
\(^11\)http://fr.dbpedia.org/resource/Edouard_Manet
Table 1: Average relatedness/level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Avg. Relatedness</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each pair of painters on a scale from 0 (no similarity) to 4 (very high similarity). We computed the 4 similarity measures (constant, affine, logistic and inverse) between each pair of painters. Then for each painter, we rank the 11 other painters with respect to their similarity with this painter. It follows that for each painter $P$ we have 6 rankings: $RT$ (resp. $RS$) is the ranking wrt average value of similarity measures rated by the teachers (resp. students) group. $RC$ (resp. $RA$, $RL$ and $RI$) is the ranking wrt the values calculated by our programs in the constant (resp. affine, logistic and inverse) case. We compute Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient (Saporta, 2011), chapter 6 between $RT$ and $RS$, then between $RT$ and the 4 computational rankings.

Table 2 presents the URIs of resources used in this series. Table 3 contains a detailed example: the similarity measures (columns $T^*$) and the corresponding rankings (columns $R^*$) for the painter Claude Monet.12

The table 4 contains the spearman coefficient for each painter and for each pair of rankings, the best value (column $BestV$) of this coefficient among our 4 cases, the case in which we obtain this value (column $BestF$) and the probability to have a Spearman coefficient greater than the best value we obtained. This table shows that:

1. The Spearman coefficients we obtain in the best case vary from 0.47 and 0.97. Those between the two human rankings vary from 0.52 and 0.93.
2. The probability to have better correlation (last column) is equal to 17% in one case (The painter Henri Matisse) and smaller or equal to 5% in all the other cases.
3. In all but two cases, we obtain the best correlation with a method taking into account the weights (affine, logistic or inverse).

Using these three remarks we can conclude that our approach simulates very well the human notion of similarity and that giving the right weights to categories in the description of a resource is essential for similarity measure accuracy.

7.3 Similarity Measure Considered as a Random Variable

According to G. Saporta (Saporta, 2011), chapter 2), Laplace-Gauss distribution is usually used to describe “distribution of measurement errors around the “true value””. Given two objects, similarity measure values, rated by humans or calculated by algorithms, can be seen as approximations of the “true value” of the similarity between these two objects. Errors in these approximations are due to subjective judgments or lack of knowledge. In this section we state the following hypothesis: “Similarity measure between two objects can be represented by a random variable following the normal distribution.” To test this hypothesis we use two properties of the normal distribution: Its skewness $s$ is 0 and its kurtosis $k$ is 3. Considering this, we split our hypothesis into two ones:

1. $H_0: s = 0; H_1: s \neq 0$.
2. $H_0': k = 3; H_1': k \neq 3$.

To test these two hypotheses we use the fact that for $N$ size samples from a normal distribution we have (Bobée and Robitaille, 1975):

1. $s$ follows a normal distribution with an expectation $ms=0$ and a variance $std^2(s) = \frac{6N(N-1)}{(N-2)(N+1)(N+3)}$.
2. $k$ follows a normal distribution with an expectation $mk=3$ and a variance $std^2(k) = \frac{24N(N-1)}{(N-3)(N-2)(N+3)(N+5)}$.

It follows that we can accept the null hypotheses $H_0$ and $H_0'$ with type 1 error $\alpha = 5\%$ if we have:

$$-1.96 \leq \frac{k}{std(k)} \leq 1.96 \quad \text{and} \quad -1.96 \leq \frac{k}{std(k)} \leq 1.96$$

where $s$ and $k$ are the sample’s skewness and kurtosis.

We applied this normality test to all our pairs of painters (66). The samples we used were obtained by merging for each pair the values proposed by the teachers’ group and those proposed by the students group: thus, we had 20 observations for each test. The normality test has been accepted for 49 pairs of painters and rejected for the 17 others (both $H_0$ and $H_0'$ have been rejected for 15 pairs, $H_0$ has been rejected for the 2 others). For each one of these 49 pairs we wanted to measure how close are our 4 similarity measures to the “true value” (the mean $m$ of the normal distribution). For that we calculated the value

12http://fr.dbpedia.org/resource/Claude_Monet
Table 2: Resources URIs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Artist</th>
<th>URI</th>
<th>Artist</th>
<th>URI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DAL</td>
<td>dbo:Salvador_Dal</td>
<td>GAU</td>
<td>dbo:Paul_Gauguin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAN</td>
<td>dbo:douard_Manet</td>
<td>MAT</td>
<td>dbo:Henri_Matisse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCA</td>
<td>dbo:Michel-Ange</td>
<td>MON</td>
<td>dbo:Claude_Monet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIC</td>
<td>dbo:Pablo_Picasso</td>
<td>REN</td>
<td>dbo:Auguste_Renoir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPH</td>
<td>dbo:Raphal_(peintre)</td>
<td>TIT</td>
<td>dbo:Titian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLT</td>
<td>dbo:Henri_de_Toulouse-Lautrec</td>
<td>VNC</td>
<td>dbo:Leonard_de_Vinci</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Similarity and rank for Claude Monet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Painter</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>RT</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>RS</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>RC</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>RA</th>
<th>SL</th>
<th>RL</th>
<th>SI</th>
<th>RI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DAL</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAU</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAN</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAT</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCA</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>4.8</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>4.3</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>VNC</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Spearman coefficients.

| Painter | RT,RS | RT,RC | RT,RA | RT,RL | RT,RI | BestV | BestF | P(|r|>BestV) |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|
| GAU     | 0.73  | 0.7   | 0.65  | 0.67  | 0.66  | 0.77  | Logistic | 1%           |
| MAN     | 0.52  | 0.5   | 0.56  | 0.65  | 0.48  | 0.65  | Logistic | 4%           |
| MAT     | 0.87  | 0.44  | 0.44  | 0.46  | 0.47  | 0.47  | Inverse  | 17%          |
| MCA     | 0.65  | 0.81  | 0.82  | 0.76  | 0.76  | 0.76  | Affine   | 0.5%         |
| MON     | 0.83  | 0.76  | 0.76  | 0.76  | 0.76  | 0.76  | All      | 1%           |
| PIC     | 0.93  | 0.67  | 0.81  | 0.84  | 0.92  | 0.92  | Logistic | 0.03%        |
| REN     | 0.65  | 0.64  | 0.6   | 0.57  | 0.57  | 0.64  | Constant | 5%           |
| RPH     | 0.77  | 0.65  | 0.68  | 0.73  | 0.77  | 0.77  | Inverse  | 1%           |
| TIT     | 0.6   | 0.8   | 0.81  | 0.84  | 0.81  | 0.84  | Logistic | 0.4%         |
| TLT     | 0.59  | 0.93  | 0.97  | 0.93  | 0.91  | 0.97  | Affine   | 0.00002%     |
| VNC     | 0.69  | 0.69  | 0.68  | 0.62  | 0.55  | 0.69  | Constant | 3%           |

\[ u = \frac{|x-m|}{\sigma} \] for each similarity \( x \). The table 5 contains a summary of these values.

We conclude from this summary that, in average, between 52% and 62% of similarity values are further from the "real value" than our measures. We also notice that the best results are obtained when we take into account the weights of the categories in the resources's description.

7.4 Concluding Remarks

In the previous subsections we presented experiments we conducted to validate our approach. The results of these experiments show that our approach approximates well the human notion of similarity applied to complex objects: linked data resources. In all our experiments, the best results have been obtained with logistic or inverse weight functions. This fact proves the importance of weights in the description of complex objects and that similarity value depends mainly on the most important features (categories). To complete this conclusion, let us note that during our experiments, we have been faced with some characteristics of DBpedia content and ontology that have limited the precision of our programs. These characteristics can be summarized as follows:

- Missing information (1): We often noticed differences between Wikipedia articles' categories and those of corresponding DBpedia resources. DBpedia is not up to date.
- Missing information (2): In some Wikipedia articles, obvious categories are missing. This is cer-
8 RELATED WORK

Several works aimed to define a similarity measure for complex objects and more specially for linked data resources. In the following we present these works and qualitatively compare them to ours.

• (Meymandpour and Davis, 2016) : A linked data resource \( r \) is defined by a set of features \( F_r \) representing its outgoing and incoming relations. Outgoing (resp. incoming) relations correspond to RDF triples in which the resource is the subject (resp. the object). The information content \( IC(f) \) of a feature \( f \) is defined, as is well known in Information theory, as a decreasing function of its relative frequency. The information content of a set of features (a resource, the intersection or the difference of two resources) is defined as the sum of the information content of its features. The similarity of two resources \( r \) and \( s \) is defined by the following formula:

\[
sim(r,s) = \frac{IC(F_r \cap F_s)}{IC(F_r) + IC(F_s) - IC(F_r \cap F_s)}
\]

Several important differences can be noticed between this work and ours. We use exclusively categories, which in general summarize well the important properties of the resources, while they use all resources’ properties. Unlike ours, this work doesn’t take into account hidden commonalities. We explicitly assign a weight to each feature while they consider that importance of features are related to their information content. Characterizing importance of a feature by its information content doesn’t correspond to human judgment (to which we want to correlate our similarity measures) : for example, among the properties of the resource representing the painter Claude Monet, 19th century French painter is 35 times more frequent than People with cataractes. Therefore, the information content of the former is much lower than that of the latter. But, when measuring similarity of Claude Monet with any other person, human will give much more importance to the first property. Let us note to finish this comparison that information content of features is indirectly taken into account in our similarity measure since in our category graph exploration the more specific categories (higher information content, e.g. French Impressionist painters) are met before more general categories (lower information content, e.g. French painters).

• (Ostuni et al., 2014) : Two resources are similar if they are related to similar entities, in other words if they share a similar neighborhood in the RDF graph (considered as undirected). Each resource \( r \) is represented by the subgraph \( G^h(r) \) obtained when performing a breadth-first search up to a limited depth \( h \). A feature vector representation \( \Phi_h(r) \) is then deduced from \( G_h \). \( \Phi_h(r) \) is defined as follows:

\[
\Phi_h(r) = (w_{r_{e_1}}, \ldots , w_{r_{e_l}})
\]

where \( e_j \) are the edges of \( G^h \) and \( w_{r_{e_j}} \) their weights. The weight \( w_{r_{e_j}} \) depend on the number of edges involving \( e_j \) in each level \( l = 1, \ldots, h \) of \( G^h \). The similarity between two resources \( r_1 \) and \( r_2 \) is computed by taking the scalar product of the feature vectors \( \Phi_h(r_1) \) and \( \Phi_h(r_2) \). This similarity measure gives different weights to the features (depending as outlined by the authors on their ‘occurrence’ and ‘locality’) and takes into account hidden commonalities on \( h \) levels. The main difference between this work an ours is that we use a unified representation of resources (as sets of DBpedia categories) and therefore we use a smaller set of features (while capturing the same information) and we explore the categories’ graph instead of the whole RDF graph. We also have two different definitions of the feature weights : ours are computed in function of their human defined rank.

• (Zadeh and Reformat, 2013) : Resources are described by their RDF triples \( \text{resource, property, value} \). In other words a resource is represented

| Table 5: Position of the similarity measures in the normal distribution. |
|------------------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|
|                        | \( \min(u) \) | \( \max(u) \) | \( \text{av}=\text{average}(u) \) | \( P(|X| > \text{av}) \) |
| Constant               | 0.03          | 1.57           | 0.65            | 0.52            |
| Affine                 | 0.05          | 1.45           | 0.58            | 0.56            |
| Logistic               | 0.05          | 1.29           | 0.49            | 0.62            |
| Inverse                | 0.03          | 1.70           | 0.51            | 0.61            |
by the features property=value. Properties are given different weights reflecting their importance in describing the resources, and grouped according to their importance to form fuzzy sets 1, ..., h. To define properties’ importance, the authors proceed as follows: first they discard properties not included in the Wikipedia infobox of the resource, then they categorize the remaining properties based on the location of their domains in taxonomy of domains and they consider that properties with more abstract domains are more important. Contribution of features to the similarity value are computed with respect to two layers: the first layer correspond to common features, the second to different values for the same property. Contribution of each fuzzy set is computed by averaging those of properties belonging to it. Finally, The overall similarity value is obtained by aggregating fuzzy sets’ contributions. Like ours, This work takes into account hidden commonalities (contribution of the second layer) and considers that features should have different importance (weight) in similarity assessment. However, there are at least two main differences between the two works. First, the authors use a definition of feature/property weights which doesn’t correspond to human definition of importance: for example if we consider books, the literarygenre and author properties are very important but their domain is not abstract. Second, exploration of the (resources’) graph for hidden commonalities is limited to only one layer while we showed above that it is useful to go deeper (2 or 3 levels) in the (categories’) graph.

• (di Noia et al., 2012) : The authors present a content-based recommender system exploiting exclusively LOD datasets. To suggest new items to a user, this recommender system needs to compute similarity value between pairs of LOD resources belonging to the same type (e.g. movies). The first step consists of computing this similarity wrt each common property p (e.g. director, starring, ...). For that, the two resources are represented as two vectors m1,p and m2,p showing commonalities and differences between them wrt p. The vectors’ values are TF – IDF weights. Similarity wrt p is computed as the cosine of the angle between these two vectors. These values of similarity are combined to compute an overall similarity value according to a user profile. In this overall similarity value, a weight αp is assigned to each property representing its worth with respect to the user profile. These weights are learned using two methods: a genetic algorithm or a statistical analysis on Amazon’s recommender system. The main difference between this similarity measure and ours is that the former was specially designed for a recommender system: it is application-dependent (e.g. the weights are computed with respect to a user profile).

• (Damijanovic et al., 2012) : In the context of a search for concepts (Linked data resources) relevant to a given set of seed/initial concepts, the authors present a similarity measure in which they distinguish two kinds of links between concepts: hierarchical links which serve to organize resources into classes (eg rdf:type or dcterm:subject) and transversal links (all other links). The contribution of the two types of links are computed differently. Several variants of the distances for calculating these contributions are described. This approach was extended by (Paul et al., 2016) and used to enrich annotated documents and evaluate their similarity. The main differences between this similarity measure and ours: (1) we give different weights to categories and (2) we don’t use “transversal links” because we noticed that we have information redundancy between the two kinds of links (properties).

• (Passant, 2010) : To evaluate similarity between two resources, the authors measure their ”semantic distance” using a function they name LDSD (Linked Data Semantic Distance). Six versions of LDSD are presented and compared by correlating their results with human judgments. This function rely on the number of direct and indirect, incoming and outgoing links between resources. A direct link between two resources r1 and r2 means that for some property p we have p(r1) = r2 or p(r2) = r1. An indirect link means that for some property p we have p(r1) = p(r2) or p(r3) = r1 and p(r3) = r2 for some other resource r3. In other words, indirect links represent common properties of the two resources while direct links represent relatedness between resources. Since these measures rely on the ”number” of links, all properties are supposed to have the same importance. Since exploration of indirect links is limited to the first level, hidden commonalities are ignored.

• (Ponzetto and Strube, 2007) : The authors use Wikipedia categories for computing semantic relatedness. They consider the system of categories as a semantic network. To compute semantic relatedness between a pair of words, they retrieve two unambiguous pages associated with the words. For each page they extract the set of categories the page is assigned to. They compute the set of paths between all pairs of categories.
of the two pages. Once they have all the paths they select the shortest path or path with the most common subsumer (two kinds of measures) and then they apply Resnik’s measure (Resnik, 1995). Like ours, this work uses exclusively Wikipedia/DBpedia categories to represent complex objects and to measure similarity between them. But at least two important differences exist between the two works, probably due to the different types of objects (words versus LOD resources): first we explicitly assign weights to categories and second our measure combines contributions of all categories and not only the ones corresponding to the shortest path.

(Fouss et al., 2005) : To measure similarity between elements of a database, authors define a weighted undirected graph in which nodes correspond to database elements (e.g. movies, people and movie_categories) and edges to links between them (e.g. has watched). The weight \( w_{ij} \) of the edge connecting two nodes \( i \) and \( j \) is defined as follows: the more important the relation between elements \( i \) and \( j \), the larger the value of \( w_{ij} \). A Markov chain is defined in which a state is associated to each node of the graph and the probability of jumping from a node \( i \) to an adjacent node \( j \) is proportional to the weight \( w_{ij} \). Using this Markov chain properties, the authors show that similar resources are connected by a comparably large number of short paths and dissimilar resources have fewer paths connecting them and these paths will be longer. They also show that a similarity measure can be extracted from the pseudoinverse of the Laplacian matrix of the graph. This method was not designed for linked data and if we want to adapt it we must add weights to RDF graphs’ edges, i.e. to each RDF triple’s predicate. Such weights should represent relatedness between the resources connected by the concerned edges. In other words, to apply this method to linked data, we must first compute relatedness between each pair of resources belonging to an RDF triple. This is not realistic.

9 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this work we aimed to define a simple and highly correlated to human judgment similarity measure for Linked data. We positively answered the question: can we measure and explain semantic similarity using exclusively DBpedia categories. But this work is a part of a larger project in which we also deal with the following problems:

1. To show that DBpedia categories can used for a unified representation for all the linked data resources and not only those of DBpedia.
2. To use machine learning methods to create new categories and to assign categories to resources.
3. To give a general characterization of feature-based similarity that the measure presented in this paper will be a special case.

REFERENCES


Using DBpedia Categories to Evaluate and Explain Similarity in Linked Open Data


