Martine Collard (Ed.)

Ontologies-Based Databases and Information Systems

First and Second VLDB Workshops, ODBIS 2005/2006 Trondheim, Norway, September 2005 Seoul, Korea, September 2006, Revised Papers



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Preface

This volume constitutes the joint post-proceedings of the two international VLDB workshops on Ontologies-based Techniques for DataBases and Information Systems, ODBIS 2005 and ODBIS 2006, co-located with the 31st and 32nd International Conference on Very Large Data Bases (VLDB). It is a collection of extended versions of papers presented at the workshops.

Ontologies are generally used to specify and communicate domain knowledge in a generic way. While in a formal sense "ontology" means study of concepts, one can use the word "ontology" as a concept repository about a particular area of interest. Ontologies are very useful for structuring and defining the meaning of the metadata terms that are currently collected inside a domain community. They are a popular research topic in knowledge engineering, natural language processing, intelligent information integration and multi-agent systems. Ontologies are also applied in the World Wide Web community where they provide the conceptual underpinning for making the semantics of a metadata machine understandable. More generally, ontologies are critical for applications which want to merge information from diverse sources. They become a major conceptual backbone for a broad spectrum of activities dealing with databases and information systems. In these workshops, the objectives were to present databases and information systems research as they relate to ontologies and, more broadly, to gain insight into ontologies as they relate to databases and information systems. These post-proceedings are divided roughly into three sections: ontology-based interoperability and schema matching, management of ontological bases and links between ontologies and knowledge.

May 2007 Martine Collard

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A Multi-level Matching Algorithm for Combining Similarity Measures in Ontology Integration

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Abstract. Various similarity measures have been proposed for ontology integration to identify and suggest possible matches of components in a semi-automatic process. A (basic) Multi Match Algorithm (MMA) can be used to combine these measures effectively, thus making it easier for users in such applications to identify "ideal" matches found. We propose a multi-level extension of MMA, called MLMA, which assumes the collection of similarity measures are partitioned by the user, and that there is a partial order on the partitions, also defined by the user. We have developed a running prototype of the proposed multi level method and illustrate how our method yields improved match results compared to the basic MMA. While our objective in this study has been to develop tools and techniques to support the hybrid approach we introduced earlier for ontology integration, the ideas can be applied in information sharing and ontology integration applications.

1 Introduction

The rapid increase in the number of multiple information sources requires efficient and flexible frameworks for integration of these sources. Such frameworks should provide a way for extracting, transforming, and loading data from these sources, and be represented to the user in some appropriate way. There are two major approaches for integration of information: (1) the data warehouse (DW) or materialized approach and (2) virtual approach (also called mediator based).

In the context of ontology integration, we proposed a third approach [1] which is a hybrid between fully materialized and fully virtual approaches. Fig. 1 shows the architecture of this approach. The motivation of our ongoing research on integration of source ontologies was to develop tools and techniques for situations in which the information sources are expressed as ontologies, and to support queries over these sources, we need to build the global ontology (which has a common vocabulary among the sources). This allows the query processing (QP) component in the integrated framework in Fig. 1 to extract information from the ontology sources. To support this capability and realize the architecture proposed in Fig. 1, we need to develop effective matching techniques to assist users in a semi-automatic process. This is the motivation of the current work.

Let us review the issues faced in ontology matching, which is a fundamental problem in sharing information and integrating ontology sources in numerous

applications. We witness a continuous growth in both the number and size of available ontologies developed to annotate knowledge on the web through semantics markups to facilitate sharing and reusing by machines. This, on the other hand, has resulted in an increased heterogeneity in the available information. For example, the same entity could be given different names in different ontologies or it could be modeled or described in different ways. The Ontology Matching Problem (OMP) may then be described as follows: given ontologies O1 and O2, each of which describing a collection of discrete entities such as classes, properties, individuals, etc., we want to find the semantic correspondences that exist between the components of these entities.

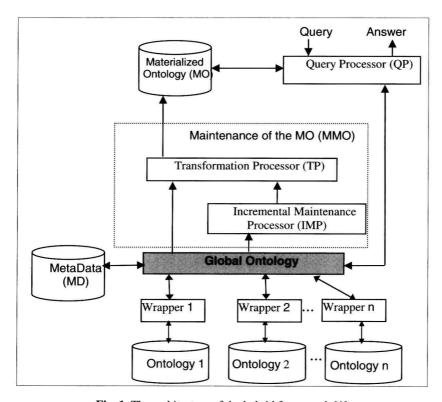


Fig. 1. The architecture of the hybrid framework [1]

Very often existing matching algorithms focus on one-to-one (1:1) matching. These methods hardly consider several entities at the same time and correspondingly use several similarity measures to solve OMP. In fact, OMP is an n:m matching problem. In order to obtain better matching results, existing measures should be used simultaneously and combined in a multi-space matching framework. We have developed such a method using a multi match algorithm (MMA).

The contributions of this paper are as follows:

- 1. We introduce an ontology matching approach, based on the idea of a multi-level match algorithm, in which each level uses different similarity measure(s).
- 2. We propose a flexible measure to compute the best possible matching state offered by MMA. This principle is based on the Dice coefficient adapted for our use.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we set up the formulation of the framework. The description of the algorithm is introduced in Section 3. An illustrative scenario is given in Section 4. The experiments and results are presented in Section 5. The related work is provided in Section 6. We conclude the paper with a summary and a discussion of future work in Section 7.

1.1 Motivating Example

In this section, we illustrate the ontology matching problem and introduce some concepts and techniques. Let us consider the following examples. Consider source ontology "S", which offers different types of electronic products. For simplicity, we consider only two products: PCs and laptops. Fig. 2 shows this ontology. As can be seen, S includes the concept *COMPUTERS* which represents *desktop* and *laptop*

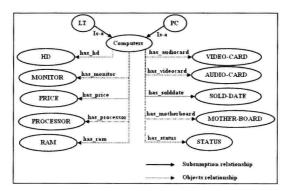


Fig. 2. Source ontology *S*

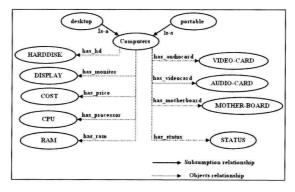


Fig. 3. Target ontology T

computers. Other concepts such as *MONITOR*, *PROCESSOR*, and *PRICE*, etc in this ontology represent technical specifications of computers. As the target ontology, we consider ontology "T", shown in Fig. 3. The goal is to find the corresponding matches among the entities in S and T.

There exist many methods to measure similarities between two entities, such as string similarity, linguistic similarity, etc. However, when we use a single matching measure for an input pair of ontologies, we may not be satisfied with the final match result. For instance, if we use a string similarity measure only, the concepts *PC* and *LT* in S have no matches in T. On the other hand, a string similarity measure is the basis for some other methods of measuring similarities between entities, and it works fine in some domains where a match in the entities on their syntax would most probably mean agreement on their semantics.

Another example is when we use a more semantic measure such as a linguistic based measure. For instance, we find out that the concept PC in S is mapped to the concept desktop in T and as well to concept computer in T. So, this will not help the user to focus his/her intention. As a result, if we use both measures (string and linguistic), the concept computers in S will be mapped into the concept computers in T with a very high confidence. Consequently, the concept PC in S will be mapped to desktop in T, and the concept LT in S will be mapped to portable in T.

1.2 General Description of the Framework

We propose a multi-level search algorithm that combines different measures in one unified framework to improve the matching results. Further, it minimizes user interaction with the system and suggests a single matching result of a collection of n elements in S to a collection of m elements in T.

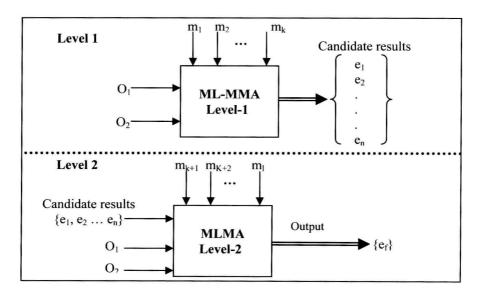


Fig. 4. A schematic description of the multi-level method

Fig. 4 illustrates the main idea of multi-level method, when there are two levels. It shows the different similarity measures $\{m_1, m_2, ..., m_l\}$ divided into two, and applied at two levels.

For instance, and to ease the presentation we use three similarity measures divided into two levels. The name and linguistic similarity measures have been applied in the first level. Then, the structural similarity measure has been applied on the candidate resulting states $\{e_1, e_2 \dots e_n\}$ in the second level. As a result, our method will output the state which has the highest confidence. Moreover, our resulting mapping state $\{e_f\}$ is measured based on its rich structure on one hand and the greatest number of corresponding concepts between the source ontologies on the other hand.

2 Formulation of the Framework

In this section, we provide the definitions for the main components of our framework. These definitions give the meaning of our notations such as, what are the entities we are referring to, the relationship matrix that gives the basis to compute the similarity matrix, the matching matrix, the matching space, and in the subsection we introduce the structure-based similarity measure.

We describe the mapping problem as identifying pairs of similar nodes (also called vertices) in the input ontologies modeled as labeled directed graphs. The nodes in an input graph correspond to entities in ontologies, and the edges indicate the relationships between the pair of nodes they connect. The labels indicate the kind of relationship, e.g. "domain" or "range." In this study, we limit ourselves to finding mappings for classes and relationships only.

Definition 1 (Entity-relationships). Let S be a source ontology, T be a target ontology. We use $E^S = \{s_1, s_2, ..., s_n\}$ and $E^T = \{t_1, t_2, ..., t_m\}$ to denote the set of entities in S and T, respectively. Entity refers to classes, properties, or individuals for which we want to find matches in the input ontologies. We use $R(r_{ij})$, defined below, to denote the relationship between entities s_i and t_j . We use r_{ij} to denote a matching degree between s_i and t_j .

Definition 2 (**Relationship Matrix**). This relational matrix, denoted as $R(r_{ij})$, represents the relationship between ontologies S and T, i.e., r_{ij} includes indicates the similarity between concept s_i in S and concept t_j in T. Using R, we define another relational matrix, called the *similarity matrix*, which captures a different relationship between S and T, defined as follows.

Definition 3 (Similarity Matrix). This relational matrix, denoted $L(l_{ij})$, includes entries in [0,1], called the *similarity coefficients*, representing the degree of similarity between s_i and t_j . Both R and L are n×m matrices.

Definition 4 (Matching Matrix). A matching matrix, denoted Map_{0-1} , is a 0-1 matrix with dimension $n \times m$ and with entries $r_{ij} \in \{0,1\}$. If $r_{ij} = 1$, it means that S_i and t_j are "matchable." They are unmatchable if $r_{ij} = 0$.

Definition 5 (Matching Space). All the possible assignments for the matching matrix form a *matching space*, also called the *mapping space*. Every assignment is a state in the matching space. The state represents a solution of ontology matching. The following example illustrates the above concepts and terms.

Example 1. Let S and T be the input ontologies, and $E^S = \{s_1, s_2, ..., s_n\}$ and $E^T = \{t_1, t_2, ..., t_m\}$ be the sets of entitie. A matching matrix Map_{0-1} indicates the similarity relation between the elements of E^S and E^T . The number of relationship matrices Map_{0-1} is 2^{nxm} , i.e., the matching space has 2^{nxm} states. These matrices form the matching space. For instance, when Map_{0-1} is 2×2 , the matching space would have 16 states. Some of these mapping states are as follows, in which the rows are entities in S and the columns are entities in T. E.g., the first matrix indicates no mapping. The third matrix below, it indicates that entity s_1 is matched with t_1 or t_2 , and s_2 is matched with t_2 , etc.

$$\left(\begin{bmatrix}0&0\\0&0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}1&0\\0&0\end{bmatrix},\dots,\begin{bmatrix}1&1\\0&1\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}1&1\\1&1\end{bmatrix}\right).$$

2.1 Tradeoff Between Structure and Size of the Mapping States

Many similarity measures have been introduced for a set of keywords representing a text. For example, the Dice coefficient, the Jaccard coefficient, the Cosine coefficient [21], etc. The Dice coefficient is defined as follows:

$$S_{T_1,T_2} = (2|T_1 \cap T_2|)/(|T_1| + |T_2|)$$
.

where $|T_i|$ is the number of terms in set T_i , and $|T_1 \cap T_2|$ is the number of common terms in T_1 and T_2 . We will use this as the similarity measure in our work.

Let O_1 and O_2 be a pair of ontologies represented as labeled graphs, and O_{MMA} be the ontology induced by the similarity result S_{MMA} obtained by applying the basic MMA match algorithm (which combines the similarity measures in a single step/level operation). Let S_{strc} be the structural similarity measure S, calculated as follows, which defines the similarities between the concepts provided by O_{MMA} and those in the original ontologies O_1 and O_2 .

$$S_{strc} = 2 \left| r(O_{MMA}) \right| / \left(\left| r(O_{MMA}(O_1)) \right| + \left| r(O_{MMA}(O_2)) \right| \right) .$$

where $| r(O_{MMA}) |$ is the number of relationships in ontology O_{MMA} , and $| r(O_{MMA}(O_i)) |$ is the number of relationships in the immediate neighborhood of O_{MMA} in O_i . This neighborhood of O_{MMA} consists of the relationships of O_i with at least one end (one of the edge's end) belonging to O_{MMA} .

We view S_{strc} as a complementary measure to the output of MMA, applied in the second level. This is justified as follows.

- The structure similarity S_{strc} is mainly based on the presence of common concepts between the matched ontologies induced by the states calculated by MMA, and
- the similarity degree between the matched ontologies may still exist, even when there is no structural match in the result of MMA, i.e., when $S_{vrc} = 0$.

Accordingly, the combined similarity measure S is relative to S_{MMA} , and should not be zero in case $S_{strc} = 0$. We further "smooth" the effect of S_{strc} as follws:

$$S = S_{MMA} + (x * S_{strc})$$
, where $x = (1 - S_{MMA})$.

In the combined similarity S, suppose S_{strc} = 0. This then means S just depends on the similarity measure of MMA. On the other hand, if S_{strc} = 1, the neighborhood of the concepts matched by MMA is the same, and consequently S will take the maximum value, and since $1 = S_{MMA} + x$, we have that $x = 1 - S_{MMA}$, representing the complementary part of information described in the relationships among the concepts in a desired state found by MMA.

As we do not want to miss a matching state found which includes a large number of concepts matched, S_{MMA} provides possible good matches in the input ontologies together with the similarity degrees. The extended method will determine the same collection of matched states, but with better differentiation among them by taking into account the structural measures in the second level. An extension of this two level method to a multi-level method is straightforward, when the user can identify which measures could or should be applied at which level.

3 Structure-Based Multi Level Matching Algorithm

Now we study various matching spaces, and show how to construct the matching spaces. Then, we describe an algorithm to solve OMP, using MLMA.

3.1 The MLMA Algorithm

There are many algorithms for matching spaces. The notion of multispace "combines" all desired spaces into a single unified space. By searching from space to space, the matching algorithm can find a reasonable solution eventually. The main idea of the proposed Multi-Level algorithm is shown in Fig. 5.

The algorithm is mainly divided into three phases. In phase 1, which is the initialization phase, an initial assignment for the matching matrix *Map* is provided, as well as the functions of similarity to evaluate the relationship matrix. In phase 2 of MMA, which is the search phase, it is an iterative refinement for the *Map* matrices. In phase 3, the resulting mapping states from MMA will be qualified based on the connectivity among their concepts. Then, the best possible final state will be offered to the user.

The algorithm iteratively constructs matching spaces for entities of both S and T (see illustrative example in the next section). Then, the *Map* matrices will be evaluated according to the re/used spaces such as name and linguistic spaces, and finally the mapping state with the highest evaluation value will be offered to the user. If we only search one matching space, the algorithm behaves and computes as a single matcher; otherwise, it is indeed a multi-matcher. This design is useful as it provides a flexible and convenient way to use various relevant information about input ontologies, and to combine feasible mapping methods to obtain a far better matching result than the results obtained by each individual method. The method can employ any desired search algorithm.

```
Given: Two ontologies S and T
Output: The mapping result between S and T
Phase 1 Initialization
     Design an initial assignment matching matrix.
     /* For example, let Map be the zero matrix,
     or let diagonal elements in Map be equal to 1, and so
     Use the similarity functions to evaluate similarity or
     relationship matrix.
Phase 2 Search Matching Space
   begin
      Enter an active search space
      /* such as the name matching space */
      Evaluate an intermediate matching state
      /* more better matching results */
      begin
            Enter another active search space
            /* such as the linguistic matching space */
            Evaluate a better intermediate matching state
              Begin
                 /* various available matching spaces,
              i.e. many feasible matching methods */
         end;
         if the intermediate matching state is not
            the final solution
            /* the matching result does not satisfy
               the evaluation function */
              then use it as an initial solution in the
             next iteration;
              if the matching instance satisfies the
                  evaluation function
                 then return the final solution
     end;
Phase 3 Apply the Complementary measures
            /* Apply the structure similarity measure
               to the output of phase 2. */
```

Fig. 5. The Multi-Level Match Algorithm

3.2 Multiple Matching Spaces

Matching spaces are distinguished by diverse similarity measures. Moreover, the different kinds of similarity measures between the entities of the ontologies use different methods to compare the similarity of two ontologies. Accordingly, we construct the similarity matrices and matching spaces. Furthermore, different relation spaces are built on the result of using different methods of measuring similarity. These methods can be classified as follows (see [12] for more detailed explanation).

- String similarity. These methods are based on the hypothesis that concepts and property names representing semantic similarity will have similar syntactic features. The Levenshtein distance is the simplest implementation of string distance.
- Linguistic similarity. This is an extension of string similarity measures with some semantics. For example, considering the synonyms based on some specific thesauri, e.g., WordNet.