Creating voiD Descriptions for Web-scale Data

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Abstract

When working with large amounts of crawled semantic data as provided by the Billion Triple Challenge (BTC), it is desirable to present the data in a manner best suited for end users. This includes conceiving and presenting explanatory metainformation. The Vocabulary of Interlinked Data (voiD) has been proposed as a means to annotate sets of RDF resources to facilitate not only human understanding, but also query optimization.

In this article we introduce tools that automatically generate voiD descriptions for large datasets. Our approach comprises different means to identify (sub)datasets and annotate the derived subsets according to the voiD specification. Due to the complexity of Web-scale Linked Data, all algorithms used for partitioning and augmenting are implemented in a cloud environment utilizing the MapReduce paradigm. We employed the Billion Triple Challenge 2010 dataset [6] to evaluate our approach, and present the results in this article. We have released a tool named voiDgen to the public that allows the generation of metainformation for such large datasets.

Keywords: Semantic Web; Vocabulary of Interlinked Data; Semantic Data Profiling; RDF Metadata Generation; Cloud Computing

1. Introduction

Open data emerges from a variety of sources, e.g., government agencies, bio-science institutes, social networks, or community-driven knowledge bases. As of January 2011, ckan.net states to contain over 1,600 data packages. Often, such data is published as Linked Open Data (LOD) – data that adheres to a set of guidelines to allow easy reuse and semantic integration [4]. Specifically, ckan.net provides approximately 280 LOD sources. Due to the wealth of information available, descriptive metadata is essential for every open dataset. Furthermore, we believe that metainformation concerning relationships between distinct datasets represents valuable inter-domain knowledge and therefore provides additional insight.

Metadata is useful in a multitude of scenarios: the most obvious case is when data engineers search for information about a specific topic. How do they know what a dataset at hand is about and how can they quickly discover connections to other open sources that they already work with? A data source should provide this information in a standardized way. A second application is crawling the LOD cloud: here, raw statistics, e.g., the number of triples, resources, links, etc., are of interest for scheduling crawling tasks and provisioning resources. Also, semantic information, such as considered types or related resources, can facilitate useful segmentation of the data. Query answering for Linked Data is another scenario where statistics and metainformation can support decision making and help achieve better results more efficiently. We believe that a wide availability of well-defined metadata expedites the causes of data interconnectivity and semantic integration. The Vocabulary of Interlinked Datasets (voiD) addresses this need.

VoiD. The Vocabulary of Interlinked Datasets is an RDF-based schema to describe linked datasets [2, 8]. By providing a standardized vocabulary, it aims at facilitating the discovery of linked datasets as well as their usage. VoiD offers two main classes: a void:Dataset describes collections of data published and maintained by a single provider. A void:Linkset on the other hand is a subclass of void:Dataset, which describes entities linking to other sources. For linksets, interlinking predicates or link directions can be stored. Additionally, a number of properties defined in voiD describe technical or statistical features of datasets.

VoiD was introduced in 2009 and is already used by a number of projects. For instance, the authors of Zemánek and Schenk. [15] plan to leverage voiD dataset statistics for query optimization. The voiD browser [11] allows to use URIs to search for datasets. These approaches require existing voiD annotations, which have been created for a number of sources, e.g., data.gov.uk [14], the OECD Glossary [13], or just recently DBpedia [7]. Though it is considered to be fairly simple to produce voiD descriptions by hand, there are numerous sources in today’s LOD cloud that do not provide them. In our opinion, this is

1For example, at the time of writing the prominent New York Times dataset did not provide a voiD description.
due to the in fact substantial manual effort required to create them. Also, we often find that this metadata is either incomplete or does not reflect the entire contents of a dataset. For this reason we developed a set of algorithms and heuristics to create voiD descriptions automatically.

**Contribution.** We have created a set of algorithms to automatically generate voiD descriptions for Web-scale datasets. Note that we do not mean to replace manual creation of metadata – we rather target large, crawled datasets without full voiD descriptions. In addition, we propose extensions of the voiD standard, i.e., novel approaches to distinguish datasets (see Sec. 3) as well as fuzzy linksets (see Sec. 2.2). Due to the large volumes of data we tackle, we employ the MapReduce paradigm to efficiently compute voiD content. To demonstrate feasibility and scalability of our approaches, we present results for the Billion Triple Challenge Dataset 2010 [6] at https://www.hpi.uni-potsdam.de/naumann/sites/btc2010. On this site, we also offer a user-friendly tool as well as all sources and comprehensive documentation for download. For this article and our implementation, we use voiD version 1 of May 07, 2010 (the most current at the time of writing). To avoid namespace squatting and ambiguity we use voidgen as namespace prefix for the voiD extensions we propose. For ease of reading, we reuse voiD properties such as void:feature but note that, of course, property values would require a proper definition as void:TechnicalFeature.

**Related Work.** Related work includes tools meant to create any sort of metainformation. Because such tools mainly originate from traditional database vendors and are not suitable for graph-structured RDF data, we do not discuss them here. However, in our group we are developing ProLOD [5] for iterative RDF data profiling. ProLOD aims at determining data quality issues instead of descriptive metadata and does thus not address voiD descriptions.

Besides tools there are libraries such as NXParse[4] which reads files in Nx format and is capable of dumping simple statistics about the data. RDFStats[6] computes statistics and outputs them using the so-called RDFStats statistics vocabulary. Finally, many developers use hand-crafted scripts to perform metadata extraction. On Grimnes’ Blog[7] one can find interesting results of such an approach. Others use high-end hardware to perform statistics computation for web-scale datasets [1].

For automatic generation of voiD properties, Virtuoso’s database provides a function called RDF VOID_STORE[8] that creates descriptions for RDF graphs. For this tool, we are unable to state how well it performs for Web-scale datasets and heterogeneous data from multiple sources in a single graph. Further, Virtuoso offers additional functions that create metainformation.

Also, there are tools for manual curation of voiD descriptions, e.g., ve2[9] which is a Web-based application. It allows manual input for dataset characteristics such as categories, interlinking, as well as technical features and creates RDF output in an on-the-fly manner.

Last, there is a notable project[10] by the RKB Explorer team that collects existing voiD descriptions, stores them, and provides query and browsing functionality.

**Structure of this article.** First, we introduce a basic partitioning algorithm that outputs dataset information according to the voiD definition (Sec. 2.1). We then illustrate the computation of linksets, using both the original approach and a new fuzzy version (Sec. 2.2), followed by a description of dataset metadata generation (Sec. 2.3). Next, we propose three new ideas for dataset partitioning and the corresponding algorithms (Sec. 3) before concluding this article (Sec. 4).

2. Generating voiD annotations

As mentioned above, voiD is centered around datasets and linksets. Datasets group subjects according to a specific property, i.e., the data publisher in the original voiD definition. In contrast, linksets contain links, i.e., triples among datasets. We first provide a way to compute both concepts in their original form before discussing metadata generation and possible voiD extensions. Note that while in the next sections we assume the semantic data at hand to be in a triple format (subject, predicate, object), our approaches also apply to quadruple format (with additional context information) as presented in the BTC 2010 dump.

2.1. Basic Datasets

The voiD standard associates a dataset with a single publisher, e.g., through a dereferencable HTTP URI or a SPARQL endpoint [8]. Typically, this means that all URLs described in a dataset are similar. Thus, we base our clustering on the dataset notation of Def. [1].

**Definition 1.** Two triples belong to the same dataset, iff the subjects’ URIs start with the same pattern. The length of the pattern is determined by the longest common prefix of all subjects in a dataset ending in one of the characters : /, or #.

For example, the two subjects

http://dbpedia.org/resource/Category:Germany

http://www.v3.org/wiki/NamespaceSquatting

http://void.rkbexplorer.com

http://lab.linkeddata.deri.ie/ve2

http://sw.deri.org/2006/08/nxparser

http://proemui.net/blog/?s=btc

http://virtuoso.openlinksw.com/
and http://dbpedia.org/resource/Tim_Berners-Lee belong to the same dataset – in this case http://dbpedia.org/resource/. For simplicity and readability, we identify a dataset by its URI endpoint, i.e., the void:uriLookupEndpoint. The generation of the remaining void:Dataset attributes is described in Sec. 2.3.

In other words, our basic dataset grouping partitions a data corpus using the individual subjects’ uniform resource identifiers if present. According to the W3C RDF format specification, a subject has to be either referenced by a URI or a blank node [12]. In the latter case, the associated triples are ignored for dataset grouping, as there is no publisher associated with them. Malformed URIs are disregarded as well. As the majority of subject URIs in our corpus adhere to the HTTP scheme, all other schemes each belong to a different dataset. This is also possible to use domain-specific HTTP schemes it is also possible to use domain-specific properties to distinguish subsets, e.g., the country code in case of phone numbers.

Discovering datasets based on the longest common URI prefix is conceptually straightforward and requires two MapReduce runs. The first run determines all possible non-trivial prefixes for every subject. For example, for http://dbpedia.org/resource/Category:Germany the prefixes http://dbpedia.org/, http://dbpedia.org/resource/, and http://dbpedia.org/resource/Category: are discovered. In the second step, the most suitable prefix for a dataset is determined, i.e., the longest one common to all subjects in the dataset. Consider the sample structure given in Fig. 1. Here, datasets identified by this basic partitioning approach are indicated by the color of the subjects that belong to them. They are also listed accordingly in the first column of Tab. 1.

To avoid ambiguity, for the remainder of this article the original, unpartitioned BTC 2010 dump is referred to as ‘corpus’, whereas a ‘dataset’ describes any logical subset of the corpus determined by one of the introduced partitioning approaches.

After partitioning the data corpus, we compute different void:ID statistics of the newly discovered datasets, such as void:numberOfPredicates, void:numberOfSubjects, etc. Notice that these attributes each refer to unique entities within a dataset only. These void:ID attributes already provide interesting insight into the structure of the datasets: for example, a low number of void:numberOfPredicates relative to void:numberOfSubjects suggest that the included entities all belong to the same type and thus share most of their attributes. For a heterogeneous dataset like DBpedia the other hand, this relation is very different. Listing 2 presents a sample void-ID description for the example.com/ dataset from Fig. 1 in the Turtle RDF serialization format 3.

2.2. Linksets

Crisp Linksets. Besides datasets, the void standard also introduces the notion of linksets. A void:Linkset contains all links from one dataset to another, where links are identified by triples in which the subject belongs to a different dataset than the object. In our implementation, a linkset may also be reflexive, i.e., it can describe the connections within a single dataset. Linksets are not symmetric, but rather directed from one dataset to another. For example, we discovered 4,042 links from DBpedia to GeoNames, but 6,956 links in the other direction.

Once datasets have been determined, linksets among them can be obtained in one MapReduce run. In the Map phase, all triples in which both subject and object are members of previously identified datasets are extracted. The emitted tuple then contains the subject and object dataset identifier as key. The Reduce phase subsumes all tuples identified by the same key. Listing 2 presents the void-ID description for the linkset from bar.net/to foo.org.

Fuzzy Linksets. In addition to these ‘crisp’ linksets, we also examine links between different datasets that are not explicitly stated. We introduce the notion of k-similarity, where two subjects are k-similar, if k of their predicate/object combinations are exact matches. Def. 2 provides a formal definition that helps identify ‘fuzzy’ linksets among datasets.

Definition 2. For a fixed subject s1, and a number of associated predicates p1, i with objects o1, i, i.e., for the triples (s1 p1,1 o1,1), (s1 p1,2 o1,2), . . . , the set C1 denotes all
of the predicate/object combinations at hand. For \( k > 0 \),
two subjects \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \) are \( k \)-similar iff

\[
\begin{align*}
C_1 &= \{ (p_{1,1}, o_{1,1}), \ldots, (p_{1,n}, o_{1,n}) \}, \\
C_2 &= \{ (p_{2,1}, o_{2,1}), \ldots, (p_{2,m}, o_{2,m}) \}, \text{ and} \\
|C_1 \cap C_2| &= k, \text{ with} \\
(p_{i,j}, o_{i,j}) &= (p_{k,l}, o_{k,l}) \Leftrightarrow p_{i,j} = p_{k,l} \land o_{i,j} = o_{k,l}
\end{align*}
\]

The intuition of \( k \)-similarity is that two subjects are to
some degree similar if they share a common set of attribute
values, and might therefore be relatable, e.g., using one of
the methods introduced in [10]. These fuzzy linksets con-
nect similar entities (and thereby datasets) that are not ex-
plicitly referenced by one another. Instead of \( k \)-similarity
one could use any other notion of similarity among sub-
jects. With \( k \)-similarity, however, we chose a strict starting
point for fuzzy linksets that is generic, simple, and easy to
parameterize (using \( k \)). It should be noted that in con-
trast to crisp linksets, fuzzy linksets using \( k \)-similarity are
always symmetrical.

In Listing 3, a description for a fuzzy linkset between
example.com and foo.org is denoted in Turtle format.
The listing refers to Fig. 1 where there are three 1-
similar links with predicate rdf:type and object :city
connecting example.com/Munich, example.com/Berlin,
and foo.org/place#Lyon, thus indicating a fuzzy
linkset. As fuzzy linksets are not yet defined in
the Vocabulary of Interlinked Data, we propose a
new class voidgen:FuzzyLinkset and a new attribute
voidgen:kSimilarity to specify them properly. The latter
may also be represented as a technical feature as is the
case in Listing 3.

A number of factors influence the ‘interestingness’ of
fuzzy links. On the one hand, a higher value for \( k \) indi-
cates that the two subjects have a high number of predi-
cate/object combinations in common. Hence, \( k \) (calcu-
lated absolute or relative) can indicate similarity of subjects and thus a new relationship between the associated entities is disclosed. To illustrate this effect, we analyzed a 10% sample of the BTC 2010 corpus, containing 317 million quadruples. Of these, around 122 million had one predicate/object combination in common with at least one other quadruple. By setting $k$ to 2, the number of associated quadruples drastically decreased to 25.

On the other hand, some predicate/object combinations appear very often, and are therefore not insightful. In the BTC 2010 corpus for example, the \texttt{rdf:type} predicate occurs quite frequently in conjunction with the \texttt{rdf:Resource} object, rendering a small value for $k$ unsuitable for our approach and this specific combination. In general, more specific predicates, i.e., predicates that do not appear very often themselves, provided a better lead for detecting dataset similarity. Overall, $k$-similar linksets can be considered an extension to the \texttt{void:Linkset} class, revealing implicit, fuzzy connections between two datasets.

The computation of $k$-similarity is implemented as two MapReduce runs. The first run clusters subjects by a hash value obtained from respective predicate/object pairs. The second run performs a Map-Side (Self-)Join on the hash values and determines $k$-similarity values in the Reducer.

\subsection{Dataset Metadata}

The \texttt{voiD} standard introduces a number of properties that characterize a dataset. However, some of the properties are meant to be augmented manually by the data provider and cannot be derived automatically, e.g., the license of a dataset or the date of its creation. Hence, we limit ourselves to the subset of properties that can be deduced from the resources within the dataset, but still provide interesting insights for data consumers.

The attribute \texttt{void:exampleResource} provides a link to a representative entity within the dataset. In our approach, we filtered the subject that provided the most predicate/object combinations as a sample resource. Presumably, this entity is described most thoroughly. The \texttt{dcterms:description} attribute provide a textual, human-readable description of the dataset. We chose to base the textual description on the most common types of the subjects included in the dataset. More specifically, we filtered all resources described by a \texttt{rdf:type} predicate and ranked those according to the respective number of occurrences. For example, in DBpedia we discovered 12,151 subjects of type \texttt{http://dbpedia.org/ontology/Person}, etc. Thus, we can conclude that this dataset provides information about places, people, etc. We found that by limiting ourselves to the top 10 types discovered, the generated description offers a good overview of the dataset contents. As mentioned above, we used the URI pattern analysis to determine the \texttt{void:uriLookupEndpoint} content such as the number of distinct subjects, predicates, etc.

The following Tab. \ref{tab:runtime} summarizes the runtimes for the generation of all basic \texttt{voiD} metainformation using 20 “High-CPU Extra Large” (\texttt{c1.xlarge}) computing instances on the Amazon Elastic Compute Cloud (EC2). The data already resided in Amazon’s Simple Storage Service (S3) offering and hence upload times are omitted. Note that the use of the Hadoop MapReduce framework allows for an easy transition from a local cluster for testing purpose to a large-scale commercial cluster (such as Amazon’s). Therefore, \texttt{voiDgen} allows an easy specification of the desired cluster setup.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline
\textbf{task} & \textbf{runtime in mm:ss} \\
\hline
Load into HDFS & 28:21 \\
RDF statistics & 16:21 \\
Dataset detection (basic) & 13:20 \\
Textual description & 08:04 \\
Linkset detection (crisp) & 01:32 \\
\hline
\textbf{Total} & \textbf{67:37} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Runtimes for generating \texttt{voiD} metainformation for the BTC2010 corpus on 20 Amazon EC2 \texttt{c1.xlarge} instances.}
\end{table}

\section{Extending \texttt{voiD} Content}

Detecting individual datasets provides interesting insights into the contents of large data corpora. In its original \texttt{voiD} definition, a dataset identifies a set of data provided by a specific publisher. We define \texttt{semantic datasets}, i.e., partitions of resources that share certain \texttt{semantic features}. Specifically, we provide means to identify \texttt{connected} sets of resources or sets of \texttt{conceptually similar} resources.

\footnote{Each such instance has 7 GB of memory, 20 EC2 Compute Units, 1.69 TB of instance storage, and 64-bit Linux OS.}
Given two such semantic datasets and respective linksets, one can, for instance, observe the connectivity among concepts.

### 3.1. Connected Datasets

Two resources reside within the same connected dataset, iff there is a link of a specific type between them. Hence, we compute connected components of a predicate-based subgraph $H$ of the original RDF graph $G$. Ding et al. provide a formal definition of a predicate-based subgraph filter $\text{psf}$ and the resulting subgraph $H_0$.

**Definition 3.** A predicate-based subgraph filter is a function $H = \text{psf}(G, P)$, where $H$ and $G$ are RDF graphs and $P$ is a set of RDF properties. The function $\text{psf}$ returns $H$ which is a subgraph of $G$, and the predicate of any triple in $H$ is a member of $P$.

If the type of the link is undefined, i.e., $P$ is the set of all predicates in the RDF graph, any two connected resources share the same dataset and there are no linksets. In contrast, if the links among resources are fixed to one specific type, e.g., $P = \{\text{owl:sameAs}\}$ or $P = \{\text{livesIn}\}$ in Fig. 1 then one can derive meaningful linksets. Tab. 1 lists the datasets for $\text{owl:sameAs}$ and the custom-defined $\text{livesIn}$ link in the second and third column, respectively. In the first case, linksets contain $\text{livesIn}$ and $\text{worksAt}$ links whereas in the second case linksets contain $\text{owl:sameAs}$ and $\text{worksAt}$ links (for simplicity, we here disregard the other two link types).

A suggested notation for connected datasets is presented in Listing 4. It should be pointed out that besides specifying the $\text{void:linkPredicate}$, it is essential to indicate a pivot resource to be able to gather all entities belonging to a connected dataset. In Listing 4 the resource $\text{example.com/Berlin}$ can be used to determine all other elements of the dataset by executing the appropriate SPARQL query using the specified $\text{void:linkPredicate}$ attribute value. Notice that besides a new class ($\text{voidgen:ConnectedDataset}$), no further additions would need to be made to $\text{void}$. However, it could be argued that the improper use of $\text{void:exampleResource}$ and $\text{void:linkPredicate}$ should be rectified by adding new, unambiguous attributes. In addition, some of the attributes reserved for $\text{void:Dataset}$ might be omitted for connected datasets as they do not seem to bear much information, such as $\text{void:urlLookupEndpoint}$.

To compute connected datasets, we have implemented a two-phase MapReduce sequence: the pseudocode in Jobs 1 and 2 exemplarily illustrate these MapReduce jobs. First, connected resources are assigned to individual clusters (Job 1 map), and then resources and ids are assigned to the respective minimum cluster id (Job 1 reduce). The second phase iteratively builds the transitive closure of clusters until all clusters are merged (Job 2).

**MapReduce Job 1 Connected Datasets Step 1**

```java
function map (Object k, Text v):
1. quadruple ← parse(v)
2. if quadruple.predicate ∈ P then
3. # generates new cluster id
4. cid ← counter.get('cid').increment()
5. emit(quadruple.subject, cid)
6. emit(quadruple.object, cid)
7. end if
```

```java
function reduce (StringLong k, List<Long> vs):
8. minClusterId ← min(vs)
9. # entities will be put into minClusterId cluster
10. emit(minClusterId, k)
11. # all clusters get the id of their base cluster
12. for all v ∈ vs do
13. emit(v, minClusterId)
14. end for
```

### 3.2. Conceptual Datasets

Two resources are contained in the same conceptual dataset, iff they are of the same or of related type. To calculate this relationship, we provide two approaches.

The hierarchical approach assigns any resource representing a concept and all its superconcepts (up to a certain level $d$) to an individual dataset. Consider the last column of Tab. 1 as an example: for $d = 1$, the first partition contains all resources of type $\text{city}$ whereas the second partition comprises entities of type $\text{capital}$. By increasing $d$ to 2, the transitive closure of $\text{capital}$ is determined, and the aforementioned two partitions are merged into a single one. The number of MapReduce runs for this partitioning approach is variable, depending on the number of iterations $d$ allocated for detecting transitive links.

The distinct approach selects a single concept type per resource and assigns the resource to the respective dataset. For example, in Fig. 1 $\text{example.com/Berlin}$ is both a city and a capital. The previous transitive approach assigns it to both respective partitions for $d = 1$, and forms
a single partition for \( d > 1 \). The distinct approach on the other hand selects exactly one specific dataset for the assignment. The dataset selection is driven by the concepts’ levels of generality. We use the concepts’ occurrence rates to determine that level of generality: we consider frequent concepts to be more general whereas infrequent concepts have a lower level of generality. This requires two MapReduce runs: the first one gathers statistical information about the concepts within a corpus; the second determines the best-fitting dataset allocation based on the desired level of generality.

Listing 5 presents a sample description of a hierarchical conceptual dataset, based on the \( \text{:capital} \) class. Here, \( d \) is set to 1, therefore no superconcepts of \( \text{:capital} \) are included in the conceptual dataset (i.e., \( \text{:city} \)). As before with connected datasets, a new class is introduced as a possible extension to voiD: \( \text{voidgen:ConceptualDataset} \). The technical feature specifying \( d \) as well as the attributes \( \text{void:objectTarget} \) and \( \text{void:linkPredicate} \) that are already reserved for other purposes can again be replaced by new, dedicated attributes.

4. Conclusion

We have presented a scalable approach for segmenting, annotating, and enriching large corpora of Linked Data, as present in the Billion Triple Challenge 2010 dataset. For this purpose, we have administered the current version of the Vocabulary of Interlinked Data as well as introduced new ideas extending the current scope of voiD. Specifically, we propose semantic datasets, which can be formed either by connectivity of the graph or according to semantic types of resources. Note that for these novel dataset partitioning means, most voiD metainformation generation algorithms as described in Sec. 2.3 can still be applied and thus provide further insight into the contents of the connected or conceptual datasets. Furthermore, crisp and fuzzy linksets also yield connectivity information of semantic components. We believe that the techniques introduced in this article simplify the annotation process for Web-scale datasets and therefore encourage providers of such datasets to adopt voiD.

For detailed findings and an analysis of the complete BTC 2010 dataset as presented at the International Semantic Web Conference 2010, we kindly invite the reader to visit our project website: https://www.hpi.uni-potsdam.de/naumann/sites/btc2010. On this website we also offer our tool voiDgen including its source code and documentation for download. The tool allows users to compute the various voiD information and statistics on dumps of Linked Open Data as illustrated in this article. Additionally, the tool facilitates the proposed extensions, such as connected and conceptual partitioning.

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References


