Ranking Complex Relationships on the Semantic Web

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Abstract. The focus of contemporary Web information retrieval systems has been to provide efficient support for the querying and retrieval of relevant documents. More recently, information retrieval over semantic metadata extracted from the Web has received an increasing amount of interest in both industry and academia. In particular, discovering complex and meaningful relationships among this metadata is an interesting and challenging research topic. Just as ranking of documents is a critical component of today's search engines, the ranking of complex relationships will be an important component in tomorrow's Semantic Web analytics engines. Building upon our recent work on specifying and discovering complex relationships in RDF data, called Semantic Associations, we present a flexible ranking approach which can be used to identify more interesting and relevant relationships in the Semantic Web. Additionally, we demonstrate our ranking scheme's effectiveness through an empirical evaluation over a real-world dataset.

Keywords. H.3.3 Information Search and Retrieval, H.3.3.d Metadata, H.3.5.f XML/XSL/RDF, Semantic Discovery, Semantic Associations, Relationship Ranking, Semantic Analytics, User-defined Context, Relationship-based Querying, Semantic Web Technology

1 Introduction

The focus of contemporary Web information retrieval systems has been to provide efficient support for the querying and retrieval of documents. There has been significant academic and industrial research in mainstream search engines, such as Google¹, Vivisimo², Teoma³, etc. These systems have made considerable progress in the ability to locate relevant pieces of data among the vast numbers of documents on the Web.

Currently, due to the increasing move from data to knowledge and the rising popularity of the Semantic Web vision, there is significant interest and ongoing research in automatically extracting and representing semantic metadata as

¹ http://www.google.com

² http://www.vivisimo.com

³ http://www.teoma.com

annotations to both documents and services on the Web. Several communities such as the Gene Ontology Consortium, Federal Aviation Administration (Aviation Ontology), Molecular Biology Ontology Working Group, Stanford University's Knowledge Systems Lab, etc. are also effectively conceptualizing domain knowledge and enabling standards for exchanging, managing and integrating data more efficiently. Additionally, research in the Semantic Web has spawned several commercially viable products through companies such as Semagix⁴, Ontoprise⁵, and Network Inference⁶ to name a few.

Due to this ongoing work, large scale repositories of semantic metadata extracted from Web pages have been created and are publicly available. For example, TAP [1] is a fairly broad but not very deep knowledge base annotated in Resource Description Framework (RDF)⁷ that contains information pertaining to authors, sports, companies, etc. Additionally, SWETO⁸ (Semantic Web Technology Evaluation Ontology) is a comparatively narrower but deep knowledge base annotated in RDF populated with over 800,000 entities and 1.5 million explicit relationships between them, extracted from various Web sources.

Given these developments, the stage is now set for the next generation of technologies, which will facilitate getting actionable knowledge and information from semantic metadata extracted from Web documents, the deep Web and large enterprise repositories. Traditionally, many users analyze information by either browsing the Web, or using search engines to locate Web content based on keywords or phrases. Conventional search engines return a ranked list of documents that are expected to contain information corresponding to the keywords used in the search. The user is left with the task of sifting through these results. These approaches therefore do not directly give the end user actionable knowledge, that is, searching the documents is not a goal yet an intermediate step to discover it. The actionable knowledge is usually directed at decision or progress making in business, science etc., and has to be gleaned by the user from the documents. We aim to provide a different type of analysis based on semantic relationships, in which users are given potentially interesting complex relationships between entities, through a sequence of relationships between the metadata (annotations) of Web sources (or documents). We have defined these complex relationships between two entities as Semantic Associations [2]. Arguably, these relationships are at the heart of semantics, lending meaning to information, making it understandable and actionable and providing new and possibly unexpected insights. In our view, Semantic Associations constitute one of most important actionable knowledge.

When querying for Semantic Associations, users are frequently overwhelmed with too many results. For example, a typical Semantic Association query involving two 'Computer Science Researchers' over the SWETO test-bed, results in hundreds or thousands of associations. Their associations vary from co-authorship through their publications, to relationships through the geographic locations they live in. As with

⁴ Semagix Inc., http://www.semagix.com

⁵ Ontoprise GmbH, http://www.ontoprise.com

⁶ Network Inference Ltd., http://www.networkinference.com

⁷ http://www.w3.org/RDF/

⁸ http://lsdis.cs.uga.edu/Projects/SemDis/Sweto/

traditional search engine queries where thousands of documents are returned, a user cannot be expected to sift through this large number of results in search of those that are highly relevant to his/her interest.

In this paper, we describe ranking of complex relationships on the Semantic Web. Specifically, we propose a flexible ranking approach that allows the identification of the most interesting Semantic Associations between two entities. Additionally, we provide details of the current system implementation and demonstrate the effectiveness of the ranking approach through an evaluation over the SWETO test-bed

2 Background

Metadata Extraction Techniques. Ontology driven metadata extraction techniques have been an active research area over the past years. Both semi-automatic [3] and automatic techniques and tools have been developed and significant work continues [4]. Various tools exist, including Cream [3], Semagix Freedom⁴, SemTag [5], etc. Semagix Freedom has typically been used to populate ontologies that average more than one million instances [6]. SemTag, part of IBM's WebFountain project, has used a smaller ontology but has demonstrated Web scale metadata extraction from well over a billion pages. In particular, the Freedom toolkit has been used as the infrastructure technology to create the data set for our evaluations. Essentially, metadata extractors use regular expressions to extract entities from data sources. As the sources are 'scraped' and analyzed by the extractors, the extracted entities are disambiguated and stored in appropriate classes in an ontology.

Data Model Used to Represent Metadata. RDF is a W3C standard used for describing resources using a simple model based on named relationships between resources. Relationships in RDF, known as *Properties*, are binary relationships between resources (or between a resource and a literal) which take on the roles of *Subject* and *Object* respectively. The *Subject*, *Predicate* and *Object* compose an RDF statement. This model can be represented as a directed labeled graph with typed edges and nodes where a labeled edge connects the *Subject* to the *Object*. Let a property sequence be a finite sequence of relationships, that is, a path in the directed graph. A property sequence is therefore a sequence of links between two entities.

Semantic Associations. Semantic Associations are complex relationships between resource entities [2]. These complex relationships are essentially property sequences that link the two entities in the Semantic Association query. This query takes the form $p(e_1, e_n)$. The two entities e_1 and e_n are semantically associated if there exists one or more property sequence e_1 , p_1 , e_2 , p_2 , e_3 ,..., e_{n-1} , p_{n-1} , e_n in an RDF graph where e_i , $1 \le i \le n$, are entities and each p_j , $1 \le j < n$, is a relationship (property) between entities e_j and e_{j+1} . Note that Semantic Associations are complex relationships spanning over heterogeneous schemas (consequently heterogeneous properties and entities), thus having potential importance in domains such as drug discovery or national security.

For example, in the latter, this kind of actionable knowledge may enable analysts to see the connections between different people, places and events.

Algorithms for Semantic Association Discovery. In the context of this work, all Semantic Associations queries were performed over RDF knowledge bases. Due to the directed graph data model of RDF, Semantic Association queries between two entities can be viewed as a graph traversal problem. In this respect, we have implemented and tested various graph traversal algorithms based on k-hops, random walks and iterative deepening. A discussion of these algorithms is out of the scope of this paper.

3 Ranking Semantic Associations

Our goal to rank results of a query involves two entities (e.g., e1:Person and e9:Person in Fig. 1). Due to the small world phenomenon it is conceivable that there are a myriad of paths connecting two entities. Many of these paths are likely to be very trivial short paths or paths that convey very little information to the end user. Ranking these paths in order of relevance is required. Each user will almost certainly have a different notion of relevance and therefore any such ranking scheme needs to be configurable. We identify certain criteria that are likely to influence the rank of an association. A user supplies a context and weights for customizing the ranking criteria. This article is an extension of initial efforts on ranking Semantic Associations [7]. We introduce new criteria and present an empirical evaluation. In general, we classify the ranking criteria into *Semantic* and *Statistical* metrics. Semantic metrics are based on semantic aspects of an ontology. Statistical metrics are based on statistical aspects of the ontology, particularly on number and connectivity aspects of entities and relationships.

Traditional keyword based search engines use either the content of resources (words in a Web page) or the link structure between pages to return a ranked set of resources in response to a query. TF-IDF could also be used to judge the relevance of a document with respect to a query term. Our ranking problem however does not aim to rank documents, yet Semantic Associations, which are essentially sequences of properties linking entities. Therefore, the rank of a specific Semantic Association is determined using each property in the property sequence which corresponds to a single relationship between entities. Hence we believe that conventional ranking mechanisms do not apply to the problem we are faced with.

3.1 Semantic Metrics

Context. Consider a scenario in which a user is interested in discovering how two 'Persons' are related to each other in the domain of 'Computer Science Publications'. Concepts such as 'Scientific Publication', 'Computer Science Professor', etc. would be most relevant, whereas concepts such as 'Financial Organization' would not. Thus, to capture the relevance of a (complex) relationship, the notion of a query context captures various ontological regions specified by the user. Since the types of

the entities are described using RDF, we use the class and relationship types to restrict our attention to the entities and relationships of interest (query context). The user interacts with a graphical visualization of the ontology to specify the query context (see Fig. 2). A user interested in different domains can manually assign weights to each *region* of the query context according to his/her interest or preference so that regions of the context can be given more preference than others.

To illustrate our approach, consider three sample associations between two entities as depicted at the top of Fig. 1, where a user has specified a contextual region 1 classes containing 'Scientific Publication' and 'Computer Science Researcher'. Additionally, assume the user specified region 2 containing classes 'Country' and 'State'. The resulting regions, 1 and 2, refer to the computer science research and geographic domains, respectively. For the associations at the top of Fig. 1, (with say, weights 0.8 and 0.2 for regions 1 and 2, respectively), the bottom-most association would have the highest rank because all of its entities and relationships are in the region with highest weight. The second ranked association would be the association at the top of the figure because it has an entity in region 1, but (unlike association in the middle) also has an entity in region 2.

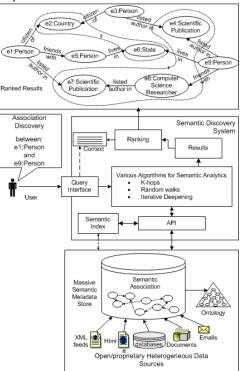


Fig. 1. System architecture and context example

Before formally presenting the ranking criteria, we introduce notation used throughout the paper. Let A represent a Semantic Association, that is, a path sequence consisting of nodes (entities) and edges (relationships) that connects the two entities. Let length(A) be the number of entities and relationships of A. Let R_i represent the $region\ i$, that is, the set of classes and relationships that capture a domain of interest. Given that both entities and relationships contribute to ranking, let c be a component of A (either an entity or a relationship). For example, c_1 and $c_{length(A)}$ correspond to the entities used in a query where A is one of the Semantic Associations results of the query. We define the following sets for convenience, using the notation $c \in R_i$ to represent whether the type (rdf:type) of c belongs to $region\ R_i$:

$$X_i = \{c \mid c \in R_i \land c \in A\} \text{ (1)}, \quad Z = \{c \mid (\forall i \mid 1 \le i \le n) c \notin R_i \land c \in A\}$$
 (2)

where n is the number of *regions* in the query context. Thus, X_i is the set of components of A in the i^{th} region and Z is the set of components of A not in any contextual region. We now define the *Context* weight of a given association A, C_A , such that

$$C_{A} = \frac{1}{length(A)} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (W_{R_{i}} \times |X_{i}|) \right) \times \left(1 - \frac{|Z|}{length(A)} \right) , \tag{3}$$

where n is the number of regions, W_{R_i} is the weight for the i^{th} region.

Subsumption. Classes in an ontology that are lower in the hierarchy can be considered to be more specialized instances of those further up in the hierarchy. That is, they convey more detailed information and have more specific meaning. For example, an entity of type "*Professor*" conveys more meaning than an entity of type "*Person*". Hence, the intuition is to assign higher relevance based on *subsumption*. For example, in Fig. 1, entity 'e8' will be given higher relevance than entity 'e5'.

We now define the *component subsumption weight* (csw) of the i^{th} component, c_i , in an association A such that

$$csw_i = \frac{H_{c_i}}{H_{depth}} , (4)$$

where H_{c_i} is the position of *component* c_i in hierarchy H (the topmost class has a value of 1) and H_{depth} is the total height of the class/relationships hierarchy of the current branch. We now define the overall *Subsumption* weight of an association A such that

$$S_A = \prod_{i=1}^{length(A)} csw_i$$
 (5)

Trust. Various entities and their relationships in a Semantic Association originate from different sources. Some of these sources may be more trusted than others (e.g., Reuters could be regarded as a more trusted source on international news than some other news organization). Thus, trust values need to be assigned to the meta-data extracted depending on its source. For the dataset we used, trust values were empirically assigned. When computing *Trust* weights of a Semantic Association, we follow this intuition: the strength of an association is only as strong as its weakest link. This approach has been commonly used in various security models and scenarios [8]. Let t_{c_i} represent the assigned trust value (depending on its data source) of a *component* c_i . We define the *Trust* weight of an overall association A as

$$T_A = \min(t_{c_i}).$$
(6)

3.2 Statistical Metrics

Rarity. Given the size of current Semantic Web test-beds (i.e., SWETO, TAP KB), many relationships and entities of the same type exist. We believe that in some queries, rarely occurring entities and relationships can be considered more interesting. This is similar to the ideas presented in [9], where infrequently occurring relationships (i.e., rare events) are considered to be more interesting than commonly occurring ones. In some queries however, the opposite may be true. For example, in the context of money laundering, often individuals engage in common case transactions as to avoid detection. In this case, common looking (not rare) transactions are used to launder funds so that the financial movements will go overlooked [10]. Thus the user should determine, depending upon the query, which *Rarity* weight preference s/he has.

We define the *Rarity* rank of an association A, in terms of the rarity of the *components* within A. First, let K represent the knowledge base (all entities and relationships). Now, we define the *component rarity* of the i^{th} component, c_i , in A as rar_i such that

$$rar_i = \frac{|M| - |N|}{|M|}, where$$
 (7)

$$M = \{res \mid res \in K\}$$
 (all entities and relationships in K), and (8)

$$N = \{res_j \mid res_j \in K \land typeOf(res_j) = typeOf(c_i)\},$$
(9)

with the restriction that in the case res_j and c_i are both of type rdf:Property, the subject and object of c_i and res_j must have the same rdf:type. Thus rar_i captures the frequency of occurrence of $component\ c_i$, with respect to the entire knowledge base. We can now define the overall Rarity weight, R, of an association, A, as a function of all the components in A, such that

$$R_A = \frac{1}{length(A)} \times \sum_{i=1}^{length(A)} rar_i \quad (\mathbf{a}); \qquad R_A = 1 - \frac{1}{length(A)} \times \sum_{i=1}^{length(A)} rar_i \quad (\mathbf{b}) , \quad (\mathbf{10})$$

where length(A) is the number of *components* in A. If a user wants to favor rare associations, (10a) is used; in contrast, if a user wants to favor more common associations (10b) is used. Thus, R_A is essentially the average Rarity (or commonality) of all components in A.

Popularity. When investigating the entities in an association, it is apparent that some entities have more incoming and outgoing relationships than others. Somewhat similar to Kleinberg's Web page ranking algorithm [11], as well as the PageRank [12] algorithm used by Google, our approach takes into consideration the number incoming and outgoing relationships of entities. In our approach, we view the number of incoming and outgoing edges of an entity as its *Popularity*. In some queries, associations with entities that have a high *Popularity* may be more relevant. These

entities can be thought of as *hotspots* in the knowledge base. For example, authors with many publications would have high popularity. In certain queries, associations that pass through these *hotspots* could be considered very relevant. Yet, in other queries, one may want to rank very popular entities lower. For example, entities of type 'Country' may have an extremely high number of incoming and outgoing relationships.

Similar to our assessment of *Rarity*, we define the *Popularity* of an association in terms of the popularity of its entities. We now define the *entity popularity*, p_i , of the i^{th} entity, e_i , in association A as:

$$p_i = \frac{|pop_{e_i}|}{\max_{1 \le j \le n} (|pop_{e_j}|)} \text{ where } typeOf(e_i) = typeOf(e_j)$$
(11)

where n is the total number of entities in the knowledge base. Thus, pop_{e_i} is the set of incoming and outgoing relationships of e_i and $\max_{1 \le j \le n} (|pop_{e_j}|)$ represents the size

of the largest such set among all entities in the knowledge base of the same class as e_i . Thus p_i captures the *Popularity* of e_i , with respect to the all other entities of its same type in the knowledge base. We now define the overall *Popularity* weight, P, of an association A, such that

$$P_A = \frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i$$
 (a); $P_A = 1 - \frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i$ (b), (12)

where n is the number of entities (nodes) in A and p_i is the *entity popularity* of the i^{th} entity in A. If a user wants to favor popular associations, is used; in contrast, if a user wants to favor less popular associations (12b) is used. Thus, P_A is essentially the average *Popularity* or *non-Popularity* of all entities in A.

Association Length. In some queries, a user may be interested in more direct associations (i.e., shorter associations). Yet in other cases a user may wish to find indirect or longer associations. For example, money laundering involves deliberate innocuous looking transactions that may change several hands. Hence, the user can determine which *Association Length* influence, if any, should be used.

We define the *Association Length* weight, L, of an association A. If a user wants to favor shorter associations, (13a) is used, otherwise (13b) is used.

$$L_A = \frac{1}{length(A)}$$
 (a);
$$L_A = 1 - \frac{1}{length(A)}$$
 (b). (13)

3.3 Overall Ranking Criterion

In the above sections, we have defined various association ranking criteria. We will now define the overall association *Rank*, using these criteria as

$$W_A = k_1 \times C_A + k_2 \times S_A + k_3 \times T_A + k_4 \times R_A + k_5 \times P_A + k_6 \times L_A , \qquad (14)$$

where k_i ($1 \le i \le 6$) add up to 1.0 and is intended to allow fine-tuning of the ranking criteria (e.g., *popularity* can be given more weight than *association length*). This provides a flexible, query dependant ranking approach to assess the overall relevance of associations.

4 Experimental Results

The ranking approach presented in this work has been implemented and tested within SemDIS (Semantic DIScovery: Discovering Complex Relationships in the Semantic Web) project. The main components are illustrated in Fig. 1. The ranking prototype⁹ utilized a modified version of TouchGraph¹⁰ (applet for visual interaction with a graph) to define a query context. Prior to a query, a user can define contextual regions of the visualized ontology, with their associated weights using this graphical interface (see Fig. 2). Unranked associations are passed from the query processor to the ranking module. The associations are then ranked according to the ranking criteria defined by the user. The Web-based user interface allows the user to specify entities on which Semantic Association queries are performed. Optionally, the user can customize the ranking criteria by assigning weights to each individual ranking criterion. The version of SWETO used for the evaluation contains a majority of instances including cities, countries, airports, events (such as terrorist events), companies, banks, persons, researchers, organizations, and scientific publications, among others.

⁹ http://lsdis.cs.uga.edu/Demos/

¹⁰ TouchGraph, LLC http://www.touchgraph.com

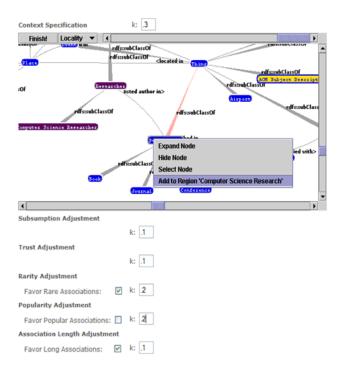


Fig. 2. User interface for context specification

4.1 Ranking Evaluation

Due to the various ways to interpret Semantic Associations, we evaluated our ranked results with respect to those obtained by a panel of five human subjects, graduate students in computer science and not familiar with the research presented here. The human subjects were given query results (randomly sorted) from different Semantic Association queries (each consisting of approximately 50 results where the longest associations were of length 12). Together with the results, all subjects were provided with the ranking criteria for each query (i.e., context, whether to favor short/long, rare/common associations, etc.). The human subjects were also provided with the type(s) of the entities and relationships in the associations, thus allowing them to judge whether an association was relevant to the provided context. They then ranked the associations based on this modeled interest and emphasized criterion. Given that the human subjects assigned different ranks to the same association, their average rank was used as a reference (target match).

Due to the large number of ways in which the criteria can be customized (e.g., favor long and rare vs. short and popular associations), we have evaluated five combinations. This is a small set, yet we feel it is a representative sample of these combinations. In each of the test queries, we have emphasized (highly weighted) two

of the criteria. The following list presents the ranking criteria and broader impact of each query.

Query	Query Details Between two entities of type 'Person', with context	Impact Illustrates how the ranking approach can capture a
1	of collegiate departments ('University', 'Academic Department', etc.); favors rare components.	user's interest in rare associations within a specific domain.
2	Between two entities of type 'Person'. Favors short associations in the context of computer science research.	Demonstrates the ability to capture the user interest in finding more direct connections (i.e., collaboration in a research project/area).
3	Between a 'Person' and a 'University', where common (not rare) associations are highly weighted and in the context of mathematics (departments and professors).	Shows the systems flexibility to highlight common relationships. This may be relevant, when trying to model the way a person relates to entities in a similar manner as the common public.
4	Between a 'Person' and a 'Financial Organization'; long associations and the financial domain context are favored. Between two 'Persons'; unpopular entities and the	Generally relevant for semantic analytics applications, such as those involving money laundering detection [13]. Demonstrates the system's capability to filter non
5	context of geographic locations are favored.	relevant results which pass through highly connected entities, such as countries.

In order to demonstrate the effectiveness of the ranking scheme, we illustrate in Fig. 3 (a), the number of Semantic Associations in the intersection of the top k system and human-ranked results. This shows the general relationship between the system and human-ranked associations. Note that the plot titled 'Ideal Rank' demonstrates the ideal relationship, in which the intersection equals k (e.g., all of the top five system-ranked associations are included within the top five human-ranked associations). Additionally, Fig. 3 (b) illustrates disagreement between human-ranked results. The x-axis represents Semantic Associations which are ranked first, second, etc. according to average rank scores of human subjects. Note that the x-axis does not contain their actual rank scores, but instead their corresponding ordering. On the other hand, the y-axis represents rank scores given by the system and human subjects. It is evident in the figure that there are varying levels of disagreement in human subjects ranking. Note that the system rank falls in its majority within the range of ranking disagreement of human subjects (the *Spearman's Footrule distance* measure of the system rankings with respect to average users' rankings of 0.23).

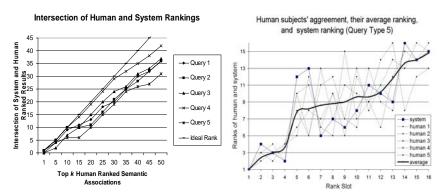


Fig. 3. (a) Measure of rank intersections; (b) disagreement among human-ranked results

Discussion. In three out of the five queries, the top human-ranked association directly matched the system assigned rank. Additionally, the top human-ranked association fell within the top five system-ranked associations in all five queries. The results are promising, given that out of the top ten human-ranked results, the system averaged 8.4 matches. It is also interesting to note that the minimum average distance of the system assigned ranks from that of the human subject's for a query (considered in relative order) was 0.55, while the maximum never exceeded 4. Furthermore, there exists disagreement in the ranking of human subjects themselves. While this is a limited, initial evaluation, we conclude that these results demonstrate the potential of the ranking algorithm and suggest that the approach is flexible enough to capture a user's preference and relevantly rank these complex relationships.

5 Related Work

Ranking semantic relationships is fundamentally different from ranking of documents in search results as those addressed in contemporary information retrieval approaches. In general, contemporary ranking approaches focus on finding relevance with respect to keywords for which there is no formal semantics and primarily rely on statistical/IR, link analysis, social networking and lexical techniques.

Research in the area of Semantic Web ranking techniques includes [14, 15], where the notion of "semantic ranking" is presented to rank queries returned within portals. Their technique reinterprets query results as "query knowledge-bases", whose similarity to the original knowledge-base provides the basis for ranking. In our approach, the relevance of results depends on the criteria defined by a user. Other relevant work for semantic ranking allows users to vary the ranking from conventional mode to discovery mode [16].

6 Conclusions

Next generation technologies that facilitate getting actionable knowledge and information from semantic metadata extracted from Web documents, the deep Web and large enterprise repositories are emerging. Through our past and ongoing work in metadata extraction, as well as the definition and discovering for complex relationships on the Semantic Web, which we call Semantic Associations, we see the need for new ranking techniques to assess the relevance of these associations due to the large number of results from queries.

Since Semantic Associations are based on metadata extracted from heterogeneous documents and a set of potentially complex relationships between these metadata, we have discovered that there is no one way to measure their relevance. Thus, we have defined a flexible, query dependant approach for automatically analyzing and relevantly ranking the resulting associations. Additionally, through empirical evaluation of the ranking scheme, we have found our ranking scheme to be promising in capturing the user's interest and rank results in a relevant fashion.

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