

ABSTAT: Ontology-driven Linked Data Summaries with Pattern Minimalization

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Abstract. An increasing number of research and industrial initiatives have focused on publishing Linked Open Data, but little attention has been provided to help consumers to better understand existing data sets. In this paper we discuss how an ontology-driven data abstraction model supports the extraction and the representation of summaries of linked data sets. The proposed summarization model is the backbone of the ABSTAT framework, that aims at helping users understanding big and complex linked data sets. Our framework is evaluated by showing that it is capable of unveiling information that is not explicitly represented in underspecified ontologies and that is valuable to users, e.g., helping them in the formulation of SPARQL queries.

Keywords: data summarization, knowledge patterns, linked data

1 Introduction

As of April 2014, 1014 data sets have been published in the Linked Open Data cloud, a number that is constantly increasing¹. However, understanding the content of large and complex data sets is very challenging for users [10, 21, 6, 18, 14]. If a user wants to evaluate if a data set is useful for her or to formulate some queries, she needs first to understand the content of the data set and its organization, by finding answers to questions such as: what types of resources are described in the data set? What properties are used to describe the resources? What types of resources are linked by a certain property and how frequently? How many resources have a certain type and how frequent is the use of a given property? Remarkably, difficulties in answering those questions result in low adoption of many valuable but unknown data sets [16].

Linked data sets make use of ontologies to describe the semantics of their data. Ontologies may be large and underspecified. At the time of writing DBpedia uses 685 concepts and 2795 properties while the domain and range is not specified for 259 and 187 properties respectively.

Finally, the ontology does not tell how frequently a certain modelling pattern occurs in a data set. The above questions can be answered with explorative

¹ <http://linkeddatacatalog.dws.informatik.uni-mannheim.de/state/>

queries, but at the price of a significant server overload for data publishers and high response time for data consumers.

ABSTAT is an ontology-driven linked data summarization model proposed to mitigate the data set understanding problem. In our view, a summary is aimed at providing a compact but complete representation of a data set. With complete representation we refer to the fact that every relation between concepts that is not in the summary can be inferred. One distinguishing feature of ABSTAT is to adopt a minimalization mechanism based on *minimal type patterns*. A minimal type pattern is a triple (C, P, D) that represents the occurrences of assertions $\langle a, P, b \rangle$ in RDF data, such that C is a minimal type of the subject a and D is a minimal type of the object b . Minimalization is based on a *subtype graph* introduced to represent the data ontology. By considering patterns that are based on minimal types we are able to exclude several redundant patterns from the summary. The ABSTAT² framework supports users to query (via SPARQL), to search and to navigate the summaries through web interfaces. Other related work on data or ontology summarization have focused on complementary aspects of the summarization, such as the identification of *salient subsets* of knowledge bases using different criteria [21, 6, 18, 14], e.g., connectivity. Other approaches do not represent connections between instance types as our model does [7, 1, 8].

In this paper we make the following contributions: (i) we describe in detail the summarization model, focusing on the minimalization approach; (ii) we describe the summary extraction workflow; (iii) we provide an experimental evaluation of our approach from two different perspectives, evaluating the compactness and the informativeness of the summaries.

The paper is organized as follows. The summarization model is presented in Section 2. The implementation of the model in ABSTAT is given in Section 3. Experimental results are presented in Section 4. Related work is discussed in Section 5 while conclusions end the paper in Section 6.

2 Summarization Model

We define a data set as a couple $\Delta = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$, where \mathcal{T} is a set of terminological axioms, and \mathcal{A} is a set of assertions. The domain vocabulary of a data set contains a set \mathbf{N}^C of *types*, where with type we refer to either a named class or a datatype, a set \mathbf{N}^P of named properties, a set of named individuals (resource identifiers) \mathbf{N}^I and a set of literals \mathbf{L} . In this paper we use symbols like C, C', \dots , and D, D', \dots , to denote types, symbols P, Q to denote properties, and symbols a, b to denote named individuals or literals.

Assertions in \mathcal{A} are of two kinds: *typing assertions* of form $C(a)$, and *relational assertions* of form $P(a, b)$, where a is a named individual and b is either a named individual or a literal. We denote the sets of typing and relational assertions by \mathcal{A}^C and \mathcal{A}^P respectively. Assertions can be extracted directly from RDF data (even in absence of an input terminology). *Typing assertions* occur in

² <http://abstat.disco.unimib.it>

a data set as RDF triples $\langle x, \text{rdf:type}, C \rangle$ where x and C are URIs, or can be derived from triples $\langle x, P, y \hat{\wedge} C \rangle$ where y is a literal (in this case y is a typed literal), with C being its datatype. Without loss of generality, we say that x is an instance of a type C , denoted by $C(x)$, either x is a named individual or x is a typed literal. Every resource identifier that has no type is considered to be of type `owl:Thing` and every literal that has no type is considered to be of type `rdfs:Literal`. Observe that a literal occurring in a triple can have at most one type and at most one type assertion can be extracted for each triple. Conversely, an instance can be the subject of several typing assertions. A *relational assertion* $P(x, y)$ is any triple $\langle x, P, y \rangle$ such that $P \neq Q^*$, where Q^* is either `rdf:type`, or one of the properties used to model a terminology (e.g. `rdfs:subClassOf`).

Abstract Knowledge Patterns (AKPs) are abstract representations of Knowledge Patterns, i.e., constraints over a piece of domain knowledge defined by axioms of a logical language, in the vein of Ontology Design Patterns [17]. For sake of clarity, we will use the term *pattern* to refer to an AKP in the rest of the paper. A pattern is a triple (C, P, D) such that C and D are types and P is a property. Intuitively, an AKP states that there are instances of type C that are linked to instances of a type D by a property P . In ABSTAT we represent a set of AKP occurring in the data set, which profiles the usage of the terminology. However, instead of representing every AKP occurring in the data set, ABSTAT summaries include only a base of minimal type patterns, i.e., a subset of the patterns such that every other pattern can be derived using a subtype graph. In the following we better define these concepts and the ABSTAT principles.

Pattern Occurrence. A pattern (C, P, D) *occurs* in a set of assertions \mathcal{A} iff there exist some instances x and y such that $\{C(x), D(y), P(x, y)\} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. Patterns will be also denoted by the symbol π .

For data sets that publish the transitive closure of type inference (e.g., DBpedia), the set of all patterns occurring in an assertion set may be very large and include several redundant patterns. To reduce the number of patterns we use the observation that many patterns can be derived from other patterns if we use a *Subtype Graph* that represents types and their subtypes.

Subtype Graph. A *subtype graph* is a graph $G = (\mathbb{N}^C, \preceq)$, where \mathbb{N}^C is a set of type names (either concept or datatype names) and \preceq is a relation over \mathbb{N}^C .

We always include two type names in \mathbb{N}^C , namely `owl:Thing` and `rdfs:Literal`, such that every concept is subtype of `owl:Thing` and every datatype is subtype of `rdfs:Literal`. One type can be subtype of none, one or more than one type.

Minimal Type Pattern. A pattern (C, P, D) is a *minimal type pattern* for a relational assertion $P(a, b) \in \mathcal{A}$ and a terminology graph G iff (C, P, D) occurs in \mathcal{A} and there does not exist a type C' such that $C'(a) \in \mathcal{A}$ and $C' \prec^G C$ or a type D' such that $D'(b) \in \mathcal{A}$ and $D' \prec^G D$.

Minimal Type Pattern Base. A *minimal type pattern base* for a set of assertions \mathcal{A} under a subtype graph G is a set of patterns $\hat{\Pi}^{\mathcal{A}, G}$ such that $\pi \in \hat{\Pi}^{\mathcal{A}, G}$ iff π is a minimal type pattern for some relation assertion in \mathcal{A} .

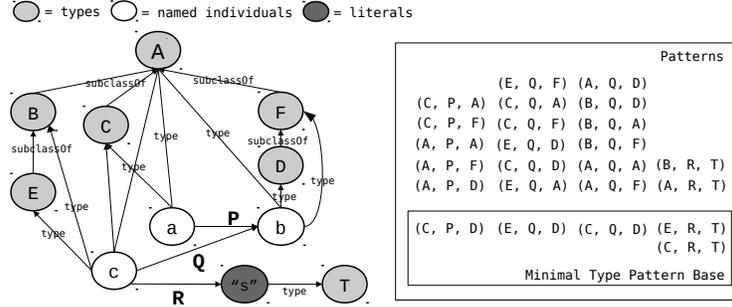


Fig. 1. A small graph representing a data set and the corresponding patterns.

Observe that different minimal type patterns (C, P, D) can be defined for an assertion $P(a, b)$ if a and/or b have more than one minimal type. However, the minimal type pattern base excludes many patterns that can be inferred following the subtype relations and that are not minimal type for any assertion. In the graph represented in Figure 1 considering the assertion set $\mathcal{A} = \{P(a, b), C(a), A(a), F(b), D(b), A(b)\}$, there are six patterns occurring in \mathcal{A} , i.e., (C, P, D) , (C, P, F) , (C, P, A) , (A, P, D) , (A, P, F) , (A, P, A) . The minimal type pattern base for the data set includes the patterns (E, Q, D) , (E, R, T) , (C, Q, D) , (C, R, T) and (C, P, D) since E and C are minimal types of the instance c , while excluding patterns like (B, Q, D) or even (A, Q, A) since not B nor A are minimal types of any instance.

Data Summary. A *summary* of a data set $\Delta = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T})$ is a triple $\Sigma^{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}} = (G, \Pi, S)$ such that: G is *Subtype Graph*, $\widehat{\Pi}^{\mathcal{A}, G}$ is a *Minimal Type Pattern Base* for \mathcal{A} under G , and S is a set of *statistics* about the elements of G and Π .

Statistics describe the occurrences of types, properties and patterns. They show how many instances have C as minimal type, how many relational assertions use a property P and how many instances that have C as minimal type are linked to instances that have D as minimal type by a property P .

3 Summary Extraction

Our summarization process, depicted in Figure 2, takes in input an assertion set \mathcal{A} and a terminology \mathcal{T} and produces a summary $\Sigma^{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}}$. First, the typing assertion set \mathcal{A}^C is isolated from the relational assertion set \mathcal{A}^P , while the subtype graph G is extracted from \mathcal{T} . Then, \mathcal{A}^C is processed and the set of minimal types for each named individual is computed. Finally, \mathcal{A}^P is processed in order to compute the minimal type patterns that will form the minimal pattern base $\widehat{\Pi}^{\mathcal{A}, G}$. During each phase we keep track of the occurrence of types, properties and patterns, which will be included as statistics in the summary.

Summary Extraction. The subtype graph G is extracted by traversing all the subproperty and subtype relations in \mathcal{T} . The subtype graph will be further

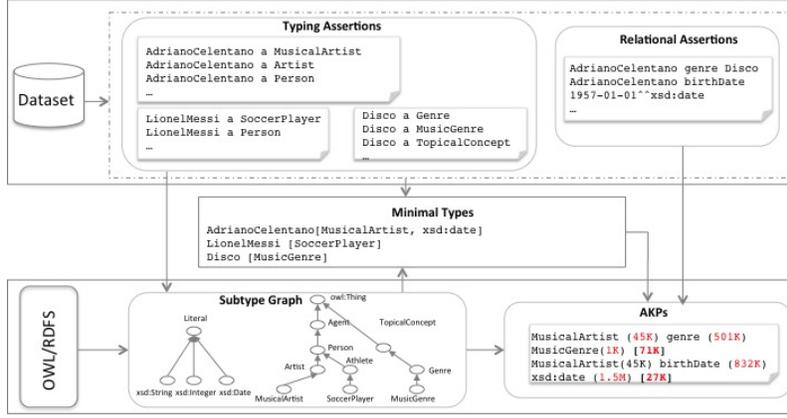


Fig. 2. The summarization workflow.

enriched with types from external ontologies asserted in \mathcal{A}^C while we compute minimal types of named individuals (i.e., *external types*).

Given a named individual x , we compute the set M_x of minimal types with respect to G . We first select all the typing assertions $C(x) \in \mathcal{A}^C$ and form the set \mathcal{A}_x^C of typing assertions about x . We then iteratively process \mathcal{A}_x^C . At each iteration we select a type C and remove from M_x all the supertypes of C according to G . Then, if M_x does not contain any C' such that $C' \prec^G C$, we add C to M_x . Notice that one preliminary step of the algorithm is to include C in G if it was not included during the subtype graph extraction phase. If a type C is not defined in the input terminology, is automatically considered as a minimal type for the individual x . This approach allows us to handle the types of individuals that are not included in the original terminology.

For each relational assertion $P(x, y) \in \mathcal{A}^P$, we get the minimal types sets M_x and M_y . For all $C, D \in M_x, M_y$ we add a pattern (C, P, D) to the minimal type pattern base. If y is a literal value we consider its explicit type if present, `rdfs:Literal` otherwise.

Summary Storage and Presentation. Every summary is stored, indexed and made accessible through two user interfaces, i.e., ABSTATBrowse and ABSTATSearch, and a SPARQL endpoint. SPARQL based access and ABSTAT-Browse³ are described in our previous demo paper [11]. ABSTATSearch⁴ is a novel interface that implements a full-text search functionality over a set of summaries. Types, properties and patterns are represented by means of their local names (e.g., `Person`, `birthPlace` or `Person birthPlace Country`), conveniently tokenized, stemmed and indexed, and retrieved using Lucene Score as ranking model.

³ <http://abstat.disco.unimib.it> and <http://abstat.disco.unimib.it/sparql>

⁴ <http://abstat.disco.unimib.it/search>

Table 1. Data sets and summaries statistics.

	Relational	Typing	Assertions	Types (Ext.)	Properties (Ext.)	Patterns
db2014-core	~ 40.5M	~ 29.7M	~ 70.1M	869 (85)	1439 (15)	171340
db3.9-infobox	~ 96.3M	~ 19.7M	~ 116.4M	821 (58)	62572 (14)	732418
lb	~ 180.1M	~ 39.6M	~ 221.7M	21 (9)	33 (0)	161

4 Experimental Evaluation

We evaluate our summaries from different, orthogonal perspectives. We measure the *compactness* of ABSTAT summaries and compare the number of their patterns to the number of patterns extracted by Loupe [10], an approach similar to ours that does not use minimalization. The *informativeness* of our summaries are evaluated with two experiments. In the first experiment we show that our summaries provide useful insights about the semantics of properties, based on their usage within a data set. In the second experiment, we conduct a preliminary user study to evaluate if the exploration of the summaries can help users in query formulation tasks. In our evaluation we use the summaries extracted from three linked data sets: DBpedia Core 2014 (**db2014-core**)⁵, DBpedia 3.9 (**db3.9-infobox**)⁶ and Linked Brainz (**lb**). **db2014-core** and **db3.9-infobox** data sets are based on the DBpedia ontology while the **lb** data set is based on the Music Ontology. DBpedia and LinkedBrainz have complementary features and contain real and large data. For this reason they have been used, for example, in the evaluation of QA systems [9].

4.1 Compactness

Table 1 provides a quantitative overview of data sets and their summaries. To evaluate compactness of a summary we measure the *reduction rate*, defined as the ratio between the number of patterns in a summary and the number of assertions from which the summary has been extracted.

Our model achieves a *reduction rate* of ~ 0.002 for **db2014-core**, ~ 0.006 for **db3.9-infobox**, and $\sim 6.72 \times 10^{-7}$ for **lb**. Comparing the reduction rate obtained by our model with the one obtained by Loupe (~ 0.01 for DBpedia and $\sim 7.1 \times 10^{-7}$ for Linked Brainz) we observe that the summaries computed by our model are more compact, as we only include minimal type patterns. Loupe instead, does not apply any minimalization technique thus its summaries are less compact. The effect of minimalization is more observable on DBpedia data sets, since the DBpedia terminology specifies a richer subtype graph and has more typing assertions. We observe also that 85 external types were added to the **db2014-core** subtype graph and 58 to **db3.9-infobox** subtype graph during the minimal types computation phase as they were not part of the original terminology, and thus are considered by default as minimal types.

⁵ The DBpedia 2014 version with mapping based property only

⁶ The DBpedia Core 3.9 version plus automatically extracted properties

Table 2. Total number of properties with unspecified domain and range in each data set.

	Domain (%)	Range (%)	Domain-Range (%)
db2014-core	259 (~18%)	187 (~13%)	48 (~3.3%)
db3.9-infobox	61368 (~98%)	61309 (~98%)	61161 (~97%)
lb	13 (~39%)	15 (~45%)	13 (~39%)

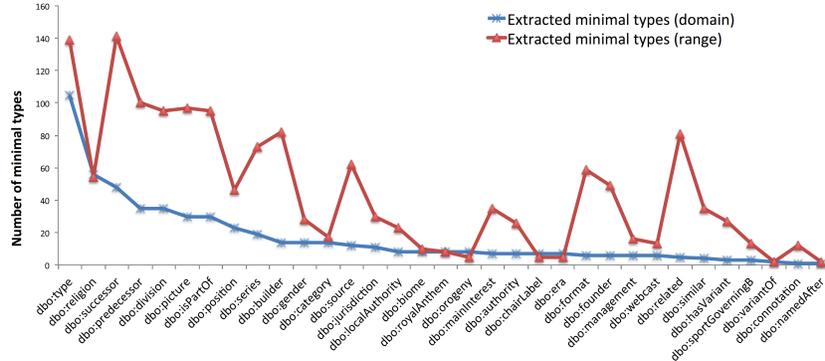


Fig. 3. Distribution of the number of minimal types from the domain and range extracted for not specified properties of the **db2014-core** data set.

4.2 Informativeness

Insights about the semantics of the properties. Our summaries convey valuable information on the semantics of properties for which the terminology does not provide any domain and/or range restrictions. Table 2 provides an overview of the total number of unspecified properties from the data sets. For example, around 18% of properties from **db2014-core** data set have no domain restrictions while 13% have no range restrictions. Observe that this data set is the most curated subset of DBpedia as it includes only triples generated by user validated mappings to Wikipedia templates. In contrast for **db3.9-infobox** data set which includes also triples generated by information extraction algorithms, most of the properties (i.e., the ones from the dbpedia.org/property namespace) are not specified within the terminology.

In general, underspecification may be the result of precise modelling choices, e.g., the property `dc:date` from the **lb** data set. This property is intentionally not specified in order to favor its reuse, being the Dublin Core Elements (i.e., `dc`) a general purpose vocabulary. Another example is the `dbo:timeInSpace` property from the **db2014-core** data set, whose domain is not specified in the corresponding terminology. However, this property is used in a specific way as demonstrated by patterns (`dbo:Astronaut`, `dbo:timeInSpace`, `xsd:double`) and (`dbo:SpaceShuttle` `dbo:timeInSpace`, `xsd:double`). Gaining such understanding of the semantics of the `dbo:timeInSpace` property by looking only at the terminology axioms is not possible.

We can push our analysis further to a more fine grained level. Figure 3 provides an overview of the number of different minimal types that constitute the domain and range of unspecified properties extracted from the summary of the **db2014-core** data set. The left part of the plot shows those properties whose semantics is less “clear”, in the sense that their domain and range cover a higher number of different minimal types e.g., the `dbo:type` property. Surprisingly, the `dbo:religion` property is among them: its semantics is not as clear as one might think, as its range covers 54 disparate minimal types, such as `dbo:Organization`, `dbo:Sport` or `dbo:EthnicGroup`. Conversely, the property `dbo:variantOf`, whose semantics is intuitively harder to guess, is used within the data set with a very specific meaning, as its domain and range covers only 2 minimal types: `dbo:Automobile` and `dbo:Colour`.

Small-scale user study. Formulating SPARQL queries is a task that requires prior knowledge about the data set. ABSTAT could support users that lack such knowledge by providing valuable information about the content of the data set. We designed a user study based on the assignment of cognitive tasks related to query formulation. We selected a set of queries from the *Questions and Answering in Linked Open Data* benchmark⁷ [19] to the **db3.9-infobox** data set. The selected queries were taken from logs of the PowerAqua QA system and are believed to be representative of realistic information needs [9], although we cannot guarantee that they cover every possible information need. We provided the participants the query in natural language and a “template” of the corresponding SPARQL query, with spaces intentionally left blank for properties and/or concepts. For example, given the natural language specification *Give me all people that were born in Vienna and died in Berlin*, we asked participants to fill in the blank spaces:

```
SELECT DISTINCT ?uri WHERE { ?uri ... <Vienna> . ?uri ... <Berlin> . }
```

We selected five queries of increasing length, defined in terms of the number of triple patterns within the `WHERE` clause; one query of length one, two of length two and two of length three. Intuitively, the higher the query length, the more difficult it is to be completed. We could use a limited number of queries because the tasks are time-consuming and fatigue-bias should be reduced [13]. Overall 20 participants with no prior knowledge about the ABSTAT framework were selected and split into 2 groups: **abstat** and **control**. We profiled all the participants in terms of knowledge about SPARQL, data modelling, DBpedia dataset and ontology, so as to create two homogeneous groups. We trained for about 20 minutes on how to use ABSTAT only the participants from the first group. Both groups execute SPARQL queries against the **db3.9-infobox** data set through the same interface and were asked to submit the results they considered correct for each query. We measured the time spent to complete each query and the correctness of the answers. The correctness of the answers is calculated as the ratio between the number of correct answers to the given query against the total number of answers. Table 3 provides the results of the performance of the

⁷ <http://greententacle.techfak.uni-bielefeld.de/~cunger/qald/>

Table 3. Results of the user study.

Group	Avg. Completion Time (s)	Accuracy
query 1 - <i>How many employees does Google have?</i> - length 1		
abstat	358.9	0.9
control	380.6	0.8
query 2 - <i>Give me all people that were born in Vienna and died in Berlin</i> - length 2		
abstat	356.3	1
control	346.9	0.8
query 3 - <i>Which professional surfers were born in Australia?</i> - length 2		
abstat	476.6	0.6
control	234.24	0.7
query 4 - <i>In which films directed by Gary Marshall was Julia Roberts starring?</i> - length 3		
abstat	333.4	0.9
control	445.6	0.9
query 5 - <i>Give me all books by William Goldman with more than 300 pages</i> - length 3		
abstat	233.4	1
control	569.8	0.7

users on the query completion task⁸. The time needed to perform the 5 queries from all participants in average is 38.6m, while the minimum and the maximum time is 18.4m and 59.2m respectively. The independent *t-test*, showed that the time needed to correctly answer Q5, the most difficult query, was statistically significant for two groups. There was a significant effect between two groups, $t(16) = 10.32$, $p < .005$, with mean time for answering correctly to Q5 being significantly higher (+336s) for the control group than for abstat group. Using 5 queries is coherent with other related work which suggest that the user study would have 20-60 participants, who are given 10-30 minutes of training, followed by all participants doing the same 2-20 tasks, during a 1-3 hour session [13].

Observe that the two used strategies to answer the queries by participants from the **control** group were: to directly access the public web page describing the DBpedia named individuals mentioned in the query and very few of them submitted explorative SPARQL queries to the endpoint. Most of the users searched on Google for some entity in the query, then consulted DBpedia web pages to find the correct answer. DBpedia is arguably the best searchable dataset, which is why this explorative approach was successful for relatively simple queries. However, this explorative approach does not work with other non-indexed datasets (e.g., LinkedBrainz) and for complex queries. Instead, participants of the **abstat** group took advantage of the summary, obtaining huge benefits in terms of average completion time, accuracy, or both. Moreover, they achieved increasing accuracy over queries at increasing difficulty, still performing the tasks faster. We interpret the latter trend as a classical cognitive pattern, as the participants became more familiar with ABSTATBrowse and ABSTAT-

⁸ The raw data can be found at <http://abstat.disco.unimib.it/downloads/user-study>

Search web interfaces. The noticeable exception is query 3. In particular, participants from the **abstat** group completed the query in about twice the time of participants from **control** group. This is due to the fact that the individual **Surfing** (which is used as object of the property `dbo:occupation`) is classified with no type other than `owl:Thing`. As a consequence, participants from the **abstat** group went through a more time consuming trial and error process in order to guess the right type and property. Participants from the **abstat** group finally came to the right answer, but after a longer time. This issue might be solved by applying state-of-the-art approaches for type inference on source RDF data [12] and suggest possible improvements of ABSTAT for example including values for concepts that are defined by closed and relatively small instance sets.

5 Related Work

We compare our work to approaches explicitly proposed to summarize Linked Data and ontologies, and to extract statistics about the data set.

A first body of work has focused on summarization models aimed at identifying subsets of data sets or ontologies that are considered to be more relevant. Authors in [21] rank the axioms of an ontology based on their salience to present to the user a view about the ontology. RDF Digest [18] identifies the most salient subset of a knowledge base including the distribution of instances in order to efficiently create summaries. Differently from these approaches, ours aims at providing a complete summary with respect to the data set.

A second body of work has focused on approaches to describe linked data sets by reporting statistics about the usage of the vocabulary in the data. The most similar approach to ABSTAT is Loupe [10], a framework to summarize and inspect Linked Data sets. Loupe extracts types, properties and namespaces, along with a rich set of statistics. Similarly to ABSTAT, Loupe offers a triple inspection functionality, which provides information about *triple patterns* that appear in the data set and their frequency. Triple patterns have the form $\langle \textit{subjectType}, \textit{property}, \textit{objectType} \rangle$ and are equivalent to our patterns. However, Loupe does not apply any minimalization technique: as shown in Section 4.1, summaries computed by our model are significantly more compact.

In [2], authors consider vocabulary usage in the summarization process of an RDF graph and use information similar to patterns. A similar approach is also used in MashQL [4], a system proposed to query graph-based data (e.g., RDF) without prior knowledge about the structure of a data set. Our model excludes several redundant patterns from the summary through minimalization, thus producing more compact summaries. Knowledge pattern extraction from RDF data is also discussed in [15], but in the context of domain specific experiments and not with the purpose of defining a general linked data summarization framework. Our summarization model can be applied to any data set that uses a reference ontology and focuses on the representation of the summary.

Other approaches proposed to describe data sets do not extract connections between types but provide several statistics. SchemeEx extracts interesting the-

oretic measures for large data sets, by considering the co-occurrence of types and properties [7]. A data analysis approach on RDF data based on an warehouse-style analytic is proposed in [3]. This approach focuses on the efficiency of processing analytical queries which poses additional challenges due to their special characteristics such as complexity, evaluated on typically very large data sets, and long runtime. However, this approach differently from ours requires the design of a data warehouse specially for a graph-structured RDF data. Linked Open Vocabularies⁹, RDFStats [8] and LODStats [1] provide several statistics about the usage of vocabularies, types and properties but they do not represent the connections between types.

The approach in [20] induces a schema from data and their axioms represent stronger patterns compared to the patterns extracted by our approach. ABSTAT aims to represent every possible connections existing among types while EL axioms aims to mine stronger constraints.

The authors in [5] have a goal even more different than ours. They provide lossless compression of RDF data using inference obtaining thus a reduction rate of 0.5 in best cases. Our approach loses information about instances because aims at representing schema-level patterns, but achieves a reduction rate of 0.002.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

Getting an understanding of the shape and nature of the data from large Linked Data sets is a complex and a challenging task. In this paper, we proposed a minimalization-based summarization model to support data set understanding. Based on the experimentation we show that our summarization framework is able to provide both *compact* and *informative* summaries for a given data set. We showed that using ABSTAT framework the summaries are more compact than the ones generated from other models and they also help the user to gain insights about the semantics of underspecified properties in the ontology. The results of our preliminary experiment showed that ABSTAT help users formulating SPARQL queries both in terms of time and accuracy.

We plan to run the experiment in large scale, thus including more users with different background characteristics in order to analyse in details which is the target group of users for which ABSTAT is more useful. Several are the future research directions. We plan to complement our coverage-oriented approach with relevance-oriented summarization methods based on connectivity analysis. Another interesting direction was highlighted by our user study, that is the inference of specific types for untyped instances found in the data set. We are also planning to consider the inheritance of properties to produce even more compact summaries. Finally, we envision a complete analysis of the most important data set available in the LOD cloud.

⁹ <http://lov.okfn.org/>

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