# **Community Detection Applied on Big Linked Data**

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**Abstract:** The Linked Open Data (LOD) Cloud has more than tripled its sources in just six years (from 295 sources in 2011 to 1163 datasets in 2017). The actual Web of Data contains more then 150 Billions of triples. We are assisting at a staggering growth in the production and consumption of LOD and the generation of increasingly large datasets. In this scenario, providing researchers, domain experts, but also businessmen and citizens with visual representations and intuitive interactions can significantly aid the exploration and understanding of the domains and knowledge represented by Linked Data.

Various tools and web applications have been developed to enable the navigation, and browsing of the Web of Data. However, these tools lack in producing high level representations for large datasets, and in supporting users in the exploration and querying of these big sources. Following this trend, we devised a new method and a tool called *H-BOLD* (*High level visualizations on Big Open Linked Data*). H-BOLD enables the exploratory search and multilevel analysis of Linked Open Data. It offers different levels of abstraction on Big Linked Data. Through the user interaction and the dynamic adaptation of the graph representing the dataset, it will be possible to perform an effective exploration of the dataset, starting from a set of few classes and adding new ones.

Performance and portability of H-BOLD have been evaluated on the SPARQL endpoint listed on SPARQL ENDPOINT STATUS. The effectiveness of H-BOLD as a visualization tool is described through a user study.

**Key Words:** Linked Open Data, Big Data, Visual Analytics, Exploratory Search, Scalability, Schema Extraction, Aggregation Techniques, High Level Visualization

Category: D.1.7, D.2.2, H.3.3, H.5.2, L.1.3, L.1.4, L.3, M.4, M.7

#### 1 Introduction

The Web of Data have surpass the thousand of datasets<sup>1</sup>, collecting several billion of triples. Many organizations are publishing Linked Open Data in several domain: in the public sector [Höchtl and Reichstädter, 2011, Ding et al., 2012, Beneventano et al., 2015], health [Rubin et al., 2008, Jupp et al., 2014], sensors [Barnaghi et al., 2010], agriculture [Baker and Keizer, 2010], cultural heritage [Hyvönen, 2012], smart cities [Nesi et al., 2017, Colacino and Po, 2017] etc. Several tools for consuming Linked Data have been developed<sup>2</sup>, however, discovering and identifying datasets of interest still remains a complex task for users.

<sup>1</sup> http://lod-cloud.net/

http://linkeddata.org/tools

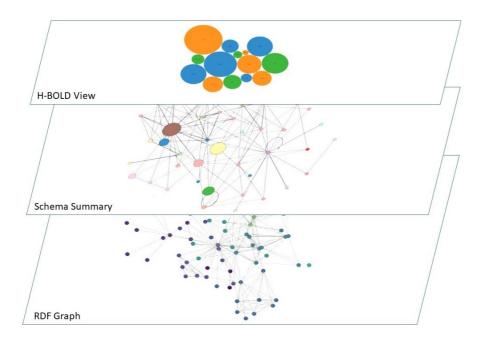


Figure 1: Example of different levels of the visual abstraction of a LOD source.

Data exploration and visualization systems are of great importance in the era of Big Data, where the volume and heterogeneity of the information available makes it difficult for the humans to explore and analyze data manually. Providing tools to view and explore large datasets has become a major research challenge.

From the point of view of the literature, different tools and techniques for navigation and visualization of linked data have been published [Bikakis and Sellis, 2016, Dadzie and Rowe, 2011, Marie and Gandon, 2014]. However, most of traditional LOD visualization systems are limited to accessing small, static datasets that can easily be manipulated using conventional techniques. On the other hand, the current need is dynamic, on-the-fly visualization of large datasets, integrated with efficient exploration techniques, as well as mechanisms for abstraction and summary.

There are several open data catalogs that list datasets available as Linked Data. Some popular examples are DataHub (formerly CKAN)<sup>3</sup>, the main catalog that now move to a commercial service, the EU Open Data Portal<sup>4</sup> that lists open data published by EU institutions and bodies free to use for commercial or non-commercial purposes, DataPortals<sup>5</sup> that provides a comprehensive list of open data portals from around the

<sup>3</sup> http://datahub.io

<sup>4</sup> http://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/home

<sup>5</sup> http://dataportals.org/

world and several national or regional data portals (e.g. data.gov, data.gov.uk, etc.). There is not a single aggregation point. All these portals allow users to perform keyword search over their list of sources but do not provide analytics over the registered datasets and highly depends on the user input. These factors limit the possibility to obtain general insights into the LOD sources. The lack of such perception hinders important data management tasks such as quality and coverage analysis. When a user starts exploring in details an unknown dataset, several issues arise: (1) the difficulty in finding documentation describing the source (often poor and sometimes missing); (2) the complexity of understanding the schema (since there are no fixed modeling rules); (3) the effort to explore a source with an extremely high number of instances; (4) the required skills of writing specific SPARQL queries.

This paper aims to overcome the above problems by providing the users with an incremental and multilevel visualization system to navigate LOD sources (our vision is shown in Figure 1). The H-BOLD tool neither requires a priori knowledge of the dataset nor particular user skills (like SPARQL knowledge). The billions of instances reported in a RDF dataset are grouped within a Schema Summary that shows only the classes of the LOD source. In case of a Big Linked Data, where also the number of classes is high, a clustering phase is add to grouped the classes in clusters, thus rendering a high-level view and enabling a incremental navigation of the dataset.

Starting from the URL of a SPARQL endpoint, H-BOLD exploits the query computation power of the endpoint, without requiring any local materialization of the dataset, then it extracts statistical and structural information that create a Schema Summary of the dataset. After this, it applies community detection algorithms to create a high-level and compact view of the dataset.

**Contributions.** The main contributions of this paper are:

- a model for building, visualizing, and interacting with hierarchically organized Linked Open Data;
- a prototype system which implements the presented model and offers a two-level visual exploration and analysis over Linked Data of medium or big size;
- a test of the prototype on 126 Linked Data sources that expose a reachable SPARQL endpoint;
- a comparison of four community detection approaches for the hierarchical representation of Big Open Linked Data.

**Outline.** The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 shows the architecture of H-BOLD. Here, a formal definition of the Schema Summary and Cluster Graph is introduced. A use case scenario is illustrated in Section 3. In Section 4, the effectiveness of H-BOLD on the LOD listed on DataHub is evaluated. Four algorithms for efficient community detection are presented and evaluated in Section 5. We discuss

related work in Section 6. In the end, Section 7 sketches the conclusion and the future lines of extension for H-BOLD.

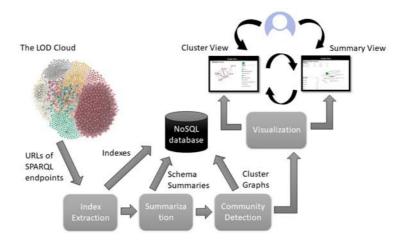


Figure 2: Architecture of H-BOLD.

### 2 H-BOLD

In this section, H-BOLD (High level visualizations on Big Open Linked Data), a tool for visualizing, and interacting with Big Linked Data is introduced.

H-BOLD is defined in the context of hierarchical visual exploration and analysis over LOD. H-BOLD starts from our past experience with the tool LODeX [Benedetti et al., 2015b, Benedetti et al., 2014b, Benedetti et al., 2014a, Benedetti et al., 2015a] and tried to overcome the main limitations arose during its evaluation [Benedetti et al., 2015c]. In particular, we want to avoid the visualization of complex graphs with more then 30 nodes (for an example of complex graph see Figure 5). In these cases, community detection techniques in order to create a high-level visualization on the Schema Summary are applied and an high level graph is computed.

The architecture of H-BOLD is shown in Figure 2. The process of creating a high-level visualizations of BOLD is obtained in four sequential phases:

- Index Extraction;
- Summarization;
- Community Detection;
- Visualization.

After a brief description of the extraction and the summarization, the paper will mainly focus on the community detection and the visualization components that have been heavily modified in H-BOLD. For more details on the Index Extraction please refers to [Benedetti et al., 2014a]. For an easy reuse, all the contents extracted and processed by H-BOLD are stored in MongoDB [Banker, 2011], a NoSQL document database, since it allows a flexible representation of the indexes.

#### 2.1 Index Extraction

In a RDF graph the RDFS/OWL triples used to define a vocabulary or an ontology describe the intensional knowledge of the dataset, while the datatype and object properties and the instances compose the extensional knowledge. In Figure 3 an example of the RDF graph representing a LOD source is displayed. The intensional knowledge is conveyed in the triples shown on the top of the figure, while, on the bottom, we have triples that describe three instances and compose the extensional knowledge. The Index Extraction takes as input the URL of a SPARQL endpoint and generates the set of queries needed to extract structural and statistical information from the LOD source. It is able to deal with the performance issues of the different implementations of SPARQL endpoints by using *pattern strategies*.

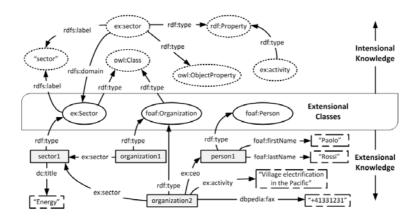


Figure 3: An RDF graph partitioned between intensional and extensional knowledge.

These indexes are composed by statistical information (such as: number of triples, number of instances, number of instantiated classes, number of properties), the list of Classes and a series of couple (c,p), where c is a class and p is a property, defined as in the following:

- SC (Subject Class) contains a list of object properties p and their domain class c;

- SCl (Subject Class to literal) contains a list of datatype properties p and their domain class c;
- OC (Object Class) contains a list of object properties p and their range class c.

Table 1 lists the indexes extracted from the LOD source shown in Figure 3. The indexes are stored in the MongoDB and they are used to generate the Schema Summary [Benedetti et al., 2014a].

Name	Values
Number of triples	12
Number of instances	4
Number of instantiated Classes	3
Number of property	8
Classes	{ ex:Sector, foaf:Person,
Classes	foaf:Organization}
SC	{(foaf:Organization, ex:ceo),
SC	(foaf:Organization, ex:sector) }
	{ (foaf:Person, foaf:firstName),
	(foaf:Person, foaf:lastName),
SCl	(ex:Sector,dc:title),
	(foaf:Organization, ex:activity),
	(foaf:Organization, dbpedia:fax) }
OC	{ (ex:Sector,ex:sector),
OC	(foaf:Person, ex:ceo) }

Table 1: Classes and indexes extracted from the source depicted in Figure 3

### 2.2 Summarization

The Schema Summary of a LOD source is created by exploiting information contained in the indexes described in the previous section. The number of instances of each class and the number of times a index appear in a dataset are exploited in order to discover how the classes are connected in the extensional knowledge; thus, the Schema Summary is inferred from the distribution of the dataset instances. The formal definition is given below.

**Definition 1 (Schema Summary)** A Schema Summary S, derived from a RDF dataset, is a pseudograph:  $S = \langle C, P, s, o, A, m, \Sigma_l, l, count \rangle$ , where:

- C contains a set of c, where c is a Class of the RDF dataset, the elements of C represent the node of the pseudograph;
- P contains the object properties, also called property, between Classes of the RDF dataset, the elements of P represent the edges of the pseudograph;
- s: P → C is a function that assigns to each property  $p \in P$  its source class  $c \in C$ ;

- $o: P \to C$  is a function that assigns to each property  $p \in P$  its object class  $c \in C$ ;
- A contains the datatype properties, also called attribute, of the RDF dataset;
- $m: A \to C$  is a function that map each attribute  $a \in A$  to the class  $c \in C$  to which it refers.
- $\Sigma_l$  is the finite alphabet of the available labels.
- $l: (C \cup P \cup A) \to \Sigma_l$  is function that assigns to each class, property or attribute its label.
- count:  $(C \cup P \cup A) \to \mathbb{N}$  is a function that assigns to each property or attribute the number of times its appear in the LOD dataset, while if the input element is a class the output value represents the number of instances of the class.

The Schema Summary offers several advantages: it can be easily memorized and retrieved on the MongoDB improving data recovery performance and graph visualization. Table 2 reports the Schema Summary create on the previous RDF example of Figure 3, while Figure 4 depicts its graphical representation. Here, the white circles represents classes (C), while the attributes (A) are shown in the gray boxes. The edges represent one or more object properties (P). Each element is equipped with a numerical value representing the number of occurrences (or the number of instances for the classes).



**Figure 4:** Schema Summary generated from the source depicted in Figure 3.

## 2.3 Community Detection

The Schema Summary is a good approach to represent a RDF dataset in a compact way, however when we are dealing with big sources, it happens that the number of classes is high, thus the schema summary contains a high number of nodes and the visualization results complex and confused, as shown in the example of Figure 5. Realistically, the human brain can interpret at most a few dozen nodes in one graph when dealing with detail. Moreover, in a large connected dataset, the number of links increases exponentially with nodes. Eventually, this results in such a densely connected network that its beyond the help of any automated layout.

Name	Values
С	{ ex:Sector, foaf:Person, foaf:Organization}
P	(ex:ceo, ex:sector)
$s: P \to C$	{ (ex:ceo,foaf:Organization),
s. 1 → C	(ex:sector,foaf:Organization) }
o: P → C	{ (ex:ceo,foaf:Person),
0. F → C	(ex:sector,ex:Sector) }
A	(dc:title, ex:activity, dbpedia:fax,
A	foaf:firstName, foaf:lastName)
	{ (dc:title, ex:Sector), (ex:activity, foaf:Organization)
$m: A \to C$	(dbpedia:fax, foaf:Organization),(foaf:firstName, foaf:Person),
	(foaf:lastName,foaf:Person) }
$\Sigma_{l}$	(Sector, Organization, Person, sector, seo,
21	title, fax, activity, firstName, lastName)
	{ (Sector, ex:Sector), (Organization, foaf:Organization),
	(Person,foaf:Person), (sector, ex:sector), (seo, ex:ceo),
1: $(C \cup P \cup A) \rightarrow \Sigma_l$	(title, dc:title), (fax, dbpedia:fax),
	(activity, es:activity), (firstName, foaf:firstName),
	(lastName, foaf:lastName) }
	{ (Sector, 1), (Organization, 2) (Person, 1),
count: $(C \cup P \cup A) \to \mathbb{N}$	(sector, 2), (seo, 1), (title, 1) (fax, 1),
	(activity, 1), (firstName, 1), (lastName, 1) }

**Table 2:** Schema Summary of the source depicted in Figure 3.

By analyzing the schema summaries produced by our previous tool, LODeX, an important feature has emerged: a high concentration of arcs within specific groups of nodes. This feature is called community structure[Girvan and Newman, 2002]. A community structure (or cluster) is a subset of the graph in which the connections between nodes are very dense while the connections among these subsets within the entire graph are loose.

The problem of detecting communities within a network can be handled using community detection algorithms. In the past, community detection applied on graphs has been extensive analyzed [Fortunato, 2010, Malliaros and Vazirgiannis, 2013, Fortunato and Hric, 2016]. There is no a single definition accepted for describing a cluster (sometime called community) in a graph, and the variants used in the literature are numerous. These kinds of algorithms are typically based on the topology information of the graph and each algorithm usually optimizes over a particular function/property which it deems important.

Related to the graph connectivity, each cluster should be connected; it means that there should be several paths connecting each pair of nodes within the cluster. It is generally accepted that a subset of nodes forms a good cluster, if the induced subgraph is dense, and there are few connections from the included nodes to the rest of the graph [Kannan et al., 2004]. Considering both the features of connectivity and density, a possible definition for a graph cluster could be a connected component or a *maximal clique*[Bomze et al., 1999]. This is a sub-graph into which no node could be added without losing the clique property. On the other hand, it is not always clear that a node

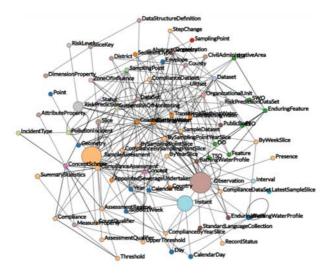


Figure 5: Example of a complex schema summary for a big linked data source.

should be assigned only to a unique cluster. In some domains could be interesting that a node belongs to several clusters. In the clustering of the Schema Summary, the possibility that a node belongs to several clusters is avoided.

In the following, the formal definition of Cluster Graph is outlined.

**Definition 2 (Cluster Graph)** A Cluster Graph G, derived from a Schema Summary S, is a pseudograph:  $G = \langle L, K, s, \Sigma_b, b, S \rangle$ , where:

- L contains a set of l, where l is a Cluster of Classes of S, the elements of L represent the node of the pseudograph;
- K contains the links between the clusters, the elements of K represent the edges of the pseudograph;
- s: L→ C is a function that assigns to each cluster l∈ L its source class c∈ C where
  C is the set of classes of the RDF dataset contained in S; a cluster might be mapped
  to several classes;
- $\Sigma_b$  is the finite alphabet of the available labels.
- $b: (L) \to \Sigma_b$  is function that assigns to each cluster l its label.

The label in the Cluster Graph are assigned based on the degree (the sum of indegree and out-degree) of the classes (nodes) in the Schema Summary.

Table 3 reports the Cluster Graph that could be generated starting from the Schema Summary of Table 2/ Figure 4. Figure 6 depicts the graphical representation of the Cluster Graph. Here, it is possible to notice that the class "Person" is not grouped together



Figure 6: The Cluster Graph generated from the Schema Summary of Figure 4.

Table 3: Cluster Graph of the Schema Summary in Table 2. Name Cluster1, Cluster2

K (Cluster1, Cluster2) { (Cluster1, foaf:Organization), (Cluster1, ex:Sector)  $s: L \rightarrow C$ (Cluster2, foaf:Person) (Organization, Person) { (Cluster1, Organization), (Cluster2, Person) b:  $(L) \to \Sigma$ 

with other classes, while "Organization" and "Sector" are grouped in a unique cluster. This last cluster takes the name of "Organization" since it is the class with the higher degree in the cluster. The white circles represents clusters (L). The edges represent the connection between clusters (K).

#### 2.4 Visualization

The visualization is organized in two levels:

- the higher level shows the Cluster View: here the clusters and their interconnections are displayed in an interactive graph; by selecting a cluster a list of the contained classes is shown, the selection of a set of classes is the pre-requisite to proceed to the next level of the visualization process;
- the second level shows a portion of the Schema Summary of the LOD source, here the classes that have been selected on the previous level are shown together with their properties and attributes. Iteratively, the graph can be expanded by adding new classes.

The visualization is performed by a web application through which the user can interact for browsing the Cluster View and the Schema View.

On the Schema View, the user might also define a visual query by selecting classes, properties and attribute. The process of the composition of a visual query has been extensively detailed in [Benedetti et al., 2015c].

The visualization module uses a MongoDb/Python backend. The GUI interface uses Data Driven Documents<sup>6</sup>[Bostock et al., 2011] and the Polymer library<sup>7</sup> to display and

<sup>6</sup> http://d3js.org/

<sup>7</sup> https://www.polymer-project.org/

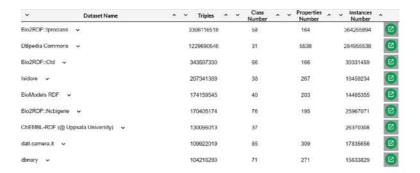


Figure 7: The overview panel of H-BOLD.

create the interactivity functions in the Cluster and Schema View.

#### 3 A Use Case Scenario

An hypothetical use-case involving a lexical dataset, Dbnary, has been selected. Dbnary<sup>8</sup> provides multilingual lexical data extracted from wiktionary<sup>9</sup>. The extracted data is made available as Linguistic Linked Open Data. Linguistic data currently includes Bulgarian, Dutch, English, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Serbo-Croat, Spanish, Swedish and Turkish.

In the overview panel of H-BOLD [Po, 2018] (see Figure 7), we the SPARQL Endpoints are listed, the user can have, at a glance, the intuition of the dimension of the dataset. This dataset is composed of 140 millions of triples and contains around 33 millions of instances. From the overview panel, the user selects to proceed to the Cluster View by clicking on the green button.

The Cluster View (see Figure 8) is a panel that represents the Cluster Graph as a network of nodes (clusters) link to each other by edges. By exploring this view, the user acquires the preliminary knowledge to undertake the navigation of the dataset. Indeed, the graph conveys the main topics of the source. In this case, the dataset is grouped in 5 clusters.

By selecting a node in the Cluster View, the list of classes that the cluster represents is shown on the left side (see Figure 9). The user is asked to select some classes in order to proceed to the next level of the visualization by clicking on the green button on the top right of the panel. In this particular case, we selected the cluster "Vocable" and then, the classes "Word" and "Translation".

The next visualization level shows a portion of the Schema Summary (see Figure 10) that contains only the classes selected in the previous level and the directly con-

<sup>8</sup> http://kaiko.getalp.org/about-dbnary/

<sup>9</sup> https://www.wiktionary.org/

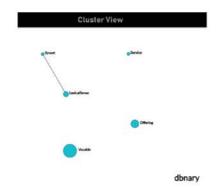


Figure 8: The Cluster View of the Dbnary dataset.

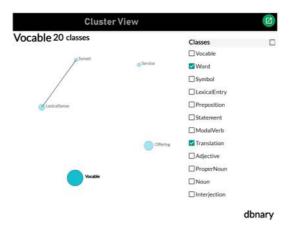


Figure 9: The Cluster View of the Dbnary dataset with the "Vocable" node selected.

nected classes (other classes that are linked through an object property to the selected classes). In this case, starting from the selection of two classes ("Word" and "Translation"), the displayed graph contains 11 nodes (classes). As shown on the bottom right of the panel, only a portion of the global Schema Summary is represented in the graph. In this case, it is the 30%. The user is now aware that he is navigating a portion of the classes of the dataset, he perceives the influence of each class by looking at its dimension (that is proportional to the number of instances of the class) and its provenance (since the color of the nodes express to which vocabulary the class belongs to). In this case, "Translation" and "Vocable" are defined in the Dbnary vocabulary, while "Word" and "LexicalEntry" belongs to the Lemon vocabulary.

The user might iteratively expand the portion of the Schema Summary that is visualized by selecting additional classes. In the example, by double clicking on "Vocable",



Figure 10: The Schema View of the 30% of the Dbnary dataset.

the graph is expanded with the classes directly connected to this node and a bigger graph is then displayed (see Figure 11).

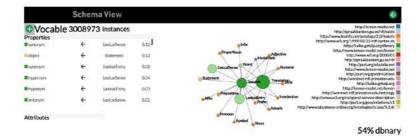


Figure 11: The selection of the "Vocable" node in the Schema View.

#### 4 Performance Evaluation

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of H-BOLD, the tool has been used to create the Schema Summary and the Cluster Graph of the LOD sources listed on DataHub. First, the effectiveness of the Indexes Extraction is assessed. After that, the performances of the generation of the Schema Summary and Cluster Graph has been analyzed, in order to consider the portability of the H-BOLD approach.

We make use of the SPARQL endpoint list available on the SPARQL ENDPOINTS STATUS<sup>10</sup>. Based on this list, the 45% (255/565) of the SPARQL Endpoints listed on DataHub.io were available. The 71% of them were compliant with all SPARQL 1.0 features and the 39% of them with all SPARQL 1.1 features. As depicted in Table 4, a

 $<sup>\</sup>overline{^{10}}\,\rm http://sparqles.ai.wu.ac.at/interoperability (last update performed on 29th July 2017)$ 

lowest number of endpoints was reachable when we performed the test (on 26th February 2018). After a careful analysis, we have assessed that this result is ascribable to the fact that the list provided by SPARQL ENDPOINTS STATUS has not been updated in the last 7 months and that the information currently available on Datahub are also limited, since the website has been transformed to a commercial service. The H-BOLD prototype has been evaluated on the entire set of the reachable SPARQL endpoints, i.e. 126 linked data sources. The Schema Summary has been created on 92 out of 126 sources. On 34 endpoints some problems arose such as transaction timed out, Endpoint internal error or service temporarily unavailable. Examining the 92 Schema Summary, not all these graphs have a complex and rich structure that necessitate applying community detection algorithm. Only 32 datasets resulted to be represented by a Schema Summary of more than 30 nodes, for these datasets the community detection algorithm has been applied and the Cluster Graph has been created. The community detection encountered no problems on the 32 big datasets: all 32 were grouped and the cluster graph displayed.

Table 4: Sparql Endpoint test comparison on 2014 and 2018

Test	2014	
Dataset URLs	559	565
Reachable datasets	302	126
Index Extraction completed	185	92
Schema Summary created	185	92
Schema Summary with more then 30 nodes	-	32
Cluster Summary created	-	32

Table 5: Comparison of four datasets

	KEGG GENES	Dbnary	DBLP in	DBpedia
			RDF (L3S)	Commons
Triples number	7,253,775,779	140,069,679	Error	137,427,503
Instance number	758,529,915	33,312,624	54939	34,174,539
Class number	21	70	6	62
Property number	110	207	25	5,455
Extraction Time	35 minutes	2 minutes	Error	2 minutes
Number of nodes				
in the Schema Summary	1	41	Error	34
Number of nodes				
Cluster Graph	-	5	Error	5

The heterogeneity on the implementation of the SPARQL endpoints is one of the most critical aspects and it dramatically affects the performances of the Indexes Extraction process. To highlight this issue, in Table 5, we compared the characteristics

of four datasets<sup>11</sup>: KEGG GENE (knowledge on the molecular interaction and reaction networks), Dbnary (wikitionary data for several languages), DBLP in RDF (L3S) and DBpedia Commons (Wikimedia Commons). In terms of size and complexity the datasets are very similar, but the extraction time on the first dataset takes more than 10 times compared to the second and the forth. DBLP is a borderline case; although it is less complex than the other datasets, the extraction process has not been completed.

### 5 Community detection algorithm comparison

The following four algorithms for Community Detection has been compared and tested within the H-BOLD infrastructure:

- *Edge betweenness* proposed by Newman and Girvan in [Newman and Girvan, 2004a]
- Leading eigenvector proposed by Newman in [Newman, 2006]
- Louvain defined by Blondel et al. [Blondel et al., 2008]
- Walktrap introduced by Pons and Latapy [Pons and Latapy, 2005]

We make use of the library IGRAPH [Csardi and Nepusz, 2006] for the implementation of the algorithms. In the following, we introduce a short description for each of the algorithms and then we focus on the comparison performed on 32 Big Linked Data.

### 5.1 Edge Betweenness

The Edge-Betweenness [Newman and Girvan, 2004a] algorithm is a divisive hierarchical algorithm that makes use of a top-down approach for the partition of the community graph. The algorithm starts from the assumption that, if two communities are united only by a few edges, all the paths that link the nodes of one community to another must necessarily pass for one of these edges. The algorithm then calculates the shortest paths, i.e. the shortest paths between all the vertex pairs and counts how many of these they cross each arch, consequently, the arch that will be crossed by the shortest path will also have the highest betweenness and will, therefore, be removed. The betweenness is recalculated with each removal of a single arc. In this way, better results are obtained at the expense of a greater computational cost.

The cost refers to an implementation on a portable machine (Operative System: Windows 7 - 64 bit, RAM: 6 GB, number of processors: 1, number of cores: 2).

Table 6: Evaluation of Community Detection algorithms on 32 Big Linked Data.

			ED	EDGE BETWEENESS	WE	ENESS	-	EIGENVECTOR	WEC	TOF	_		TOO	LOUVAIN			WAI	WALKTRAP	AP	
Dataset Name (listed in DataHub)	ر ا	z	CM	CM CM>3	Qty	ET	CM	( CM>3 Qty	Qty	Sim	ET	_	CM CM>3	3 Qty	ET	$\overline{C}$	CM CM>3	Qty	Sim	ET
Semantic Web Conference Corpus	142	127	34	3	0,5	0,966	5 5	2	0,26	,26 0,78	0,02	9	S	0,32	0,001	19	7	0,24	0,77	0,003
education.data.gov.uk	66	88	10	7	0,0		 	3	0,4	0,99	0.99 0.02	ω	3	0,4	0,4 0,001	4	7	0,39	,39 0,93 0,007	0,007
Linked Logainm	96	9/	7	_	0,02	$\overline{}$	4	3	0,25	0,83	,83 0,008	<u>8</u>	S	0,33	0	9	4	0,3	0,87	0,87 0,002
Alpine Ski Racers of Austria	8	79	6	S	0,55	6 0,18	10	S	0,54	0,79	79 0,027	7 11	_	0,55	0,001	=	9	0,62	0,74	0,74 0,003
Environment Agency Bathing Water Quality	93	81	4	S	6, 4,	_	=	7	0,42	0,65	0,0	8	9	0,45	0,49 0,001	10	7	0,42	0,69	,42 0,69 0,002
kdata	8	73	37	5	0,25	_	=	∞	0,28	0,71	9,0	9 9	5	0,35	1,39 0,001	9	4	0,3	0,71	0,003
Statistics Fatal Traffic Accidents Greek roads	88	48	7	S	0,5	0,00	7	9	0,57	0,98	0,98 0,008	7	9	0,58	0,58 0,001	6	9	0,56	),56 0,96	0
Linked Open Financial Data	88	62	4	4	0,5	0,087	9 /	S	0,51	0,86	0,03	4	4	0,52	0	9	4	0,49	,49 0,78 0,001	0,001
Open Data Thesaurus	98	80	∞	4	0,54	0,12	10	9	0,61	0,81	0,026	6 11	_	0,63	0,63 0,001	Ξ	9	0,62	0,87	0,87 0,002
Bio2RDF::Wormbase	98	49	S	4	0,39	0,016	4	т	0,34	0,76	,76 0,008	8	4	0,39	0	4	m	0,39	39 0,94 0,00	0,001
data-artium-org	98	4	•	Er	ror		7	S	0,63	-	0,014	7	S	0,63	1,63 0,001	9	4	0,61	0,95	0
dati.camera.it	85	54	23	2	0,25	0,29 0,036	2	7	0,37		0,02	?	9	0,45	0	9	4	0,37	0,71 0,00	0,001
World War 1 as Linked Open Data	84	70	7	9	0,47	0,001	1 7	S	0,4			1 7	_	0,5	0,001	∞	S	0,45	0,79	,45 0,79 0,002
data-szepmuveszeti-hu	83	4	6	4	0,58	900,008	7	2	9,0	0,0	0,00	8	4	0,65	0,65 0,001	S	ĸ	0,57	0,9	0,001
Bio2RDF::Affymetrix	78	99	56	7	0,05	5 0,03		3	0,26	0,96	,26 0,96 0,000	6	n	0,27	0,27 0,001	S	n	0,26	,26 0,97 0,001	0,001
Bio2RDF::Ncbigene	9/	48	56	7	0,1	0,06	5	4	0,31	0,88	0.88 0.02	4	n	0,33	33 0,001	7	4	0,27	0,81	0,81 0,002
Bio2RDF::Omim	75	46	$\varepsilon$	7	0,11	0,032	7	3	0,19	0,76	0,76 0,01	2	3	0,26	0	6	4	0,2	0,0092	0,001
Bio2RDF::Sabiork	7	53	n	7	0,1		7	3	0,35	0,73	,35 0,73 0,01	5	9	0,4	0,001	_	4	0,35	,35 0,75 0,00	0,001
Transparency International Linked Data	73	51	_	9	0,5	0,028	8	S	0,5	$\circ$	,72 0,04	3	9	0,51	0	∞	9	0,45	0,45 0,83 0,00	0,001
Linked Sensor Data (Kno.e.sis)	72	49	S	4	0,62	0,005	9	4	9,0		0,99 0,01	9	4	0,62	0	S	4	0,62		0,001
dbnary	71	37	'	Er	ror -		S	3	9,0	_	0,005	5	3	0,0	0	4	ю	0,55	66'0 55'	0
Bio2RDF::Interpro	70	48	15	-	0,15	0,19 0,022	4	3	0,29	0,76	0,76 0,009	9	4	0,35	0,001	S	n	0,28	0,28 0,83	0
Bio2RDF::Orphanet	69	38	4	ж	0,52	0,005	9	ĸ	0,49	0,83	,83 0,007	7	4	0,54	10,001	4	ĸ	0,52	0,91	0.52 0.91 0
UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)	29	63	S	S	0,5	0,082	9 2	4	0,49	0,84	,49 0,84 0,03	5 6	9	0,51	0,001	7	S	0,49	0,88	0,001
Bio2RDF::Ctd	99	38	S	4	0,38	3 0,015	9	S	0,36	0,76	0,76 0,01	9	4	0,35	0	∞	S	0,34	34 0,79 0,00	0,001
webnmasunotraveler	99	35	S	8	0,28	800,00	2	S	0,32	0,8	0,8 0,01	7 5	4	0,35	0	S	4	0,35	35 0,83 0,00	0,001
ECLAP	63	4	9	7	0,05		9	4	0,45	0,93	,45 0,93 0,02	6	4	0,48	0,48 0	∞	5	0,4	0,8	0,001
Reactome RDF	62	39	12	3	0,5	0,028	5	3	0,28	0,83	,28 0,83 0,009	9 6	4	0,33 0,	0,001	9	n	0,28	0,73	0
Bio2RDF::Hgnc	61	32	m	7	0,33	3 0,003	4	3	0,39	1,39 0,91		4	m	0,4		m	7	0,33	33 0,83	0
Senato Italiano	54	32	9	4	0,59		7	4	0,56	0,8		9	4	9,0	0,001	∞	4	0,57	,57 0,88 0,00	0,001
reference.data.gov.uk	20	4	16	4	0,34	0,052	2 5	4	0,38	38 0,8	_	2 5	4	0,4	0	9	e	0,33	,33 0,75 0,001	0,001
statistics.data.gov.uk	38	34	7	7	0,14	1 0,04	4	æ	0,23	0,63	0,02	5	4	0.25	0	∞	7	0,19	0,69	,19 0,69 0,002

#### 5.2 Leading eigenvector

This algorithm was theorized by Newman in 2006 [Newman, 2006], it is a top-down algorithm that makes use of the eigenvalues of a matrix called the modularity matrix. Initially, the partitioning of the graph is carried out in only two communities. The goal of the algorithm is to maximize the quality measure through the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix. The algorithm looks for a set of autovectors of the matrix to which the highest positive eigenvalue corresponds, by assigning the various nodes to the two communities according to the elements of the autovector. The procedure is repeated recursively until an increase in the quality of the partitioning is no longer possible.

#### 5.3 Louvain

The Louvain approach [Blondel et al., 2008], also known as Multilevel, is a bottom-up hierarchical algorithm whose main objective is to maximize the quality of the community partition in a short time. The algorithm operates in two phases, first assigning each node to a different community, creating as many communities as nodes in the graph, after that, a node is chosen randomly and moved to the neighboring communities measuring the variation of quality from time to time. The node will then be assigned to the community for which the gain in quality is maximum or, if no gain is possible, the node will remain in its initial community. This procedure is repeated for all the nodes until the increase in quality is no longer possible. The second step is to consider the newly found communities as nodes of a new graph and proceed as in the first part. This algorithm has the advantage of being extremely simple and easy to be implemented. It also works quickly as the number of communities decreases at each iteration by concentrating the maximum workload only in the initial steps.

## 5.4 Walktrap

The Walktrap [Pons and Latapy, 2005] is an algorithm that exploits the concept of *random walks* to form communities. Random walks tend to stay within a certain range community because the density of the internal edges is much greater of that of the edges that lead to the outside. The algorithm operates hierarchically from bottom to top, establishing an initial measure of distance to the nodes and then building a dendrogram based on the aforementioned measure. The algorithm works by posing each node into a different community, it calculates the distances between all the adjacent nodes and, in the end, aggregates two communities who have at least one edge that connects them. This procedure is repeated *n-1* times, with *n* number of nodes, obtaining a hierarchical community in the form of a dendrogram. The communities to be merged are decided based on a methodology theorized by Ward in [Ward, 1963].

#### 5.5 Evaluation

The lack of reliable gold-standard communities has made community detection a very challenging task [Yang and Leskovec, 2012], thus the evaluation of how good a set of community is it is difficult to score. In the running experiments (see Table 6), we have reported, for each of the four algorithms, the number of communities (CM), the number of communities with more then 3 elements (CM $_{\dot{c}}$ 3), the quality of the communities (Qty) [Newman and Girvan, 2004b], the similarity within the communities (Sim) and the execution time in milliseconds (ET). The quality measure (Qty)<sup>12</sup> is a value assigned to each partition of the graph; the higher the value the better the partition.

The comparison has been execute on the Big Linked Data that have more then 30 classes, thus based on the numbers reported in table 4, on 32 datasets. The results of the evaluations are shown in Figure 6. The datasets can be retrieved by searching their names in Datahub<sup>13</sup>.

The Edge-Betweenness algorithm, the "older" one, has a high computational complexity of  $O(nm^2)$  where m is the number of edges and n the number of nodes, till  $O(n^3)$  in case of a very little connected graph; this implies that the algorithm is suitable only for graphs of small dimensions, around the thousand of nodes. In our case, on the 32 examined graphs, the number of nodes is not so high. By applying this algorithm, we obtained a good average quality but the trend is not constant; in fact, for some graphs the results are good, while others have a quality that is close to 0. The number of communities found, in the case of graphs with more than 50 nodes, is higher then ten. All these problems lead to discard the algorithm of Girvan and Newman avoiding further analysis.

The Leading Eigenvector algorithm, although it has a high complexity equal to O((m+n)n) gave better results compared to the previous one, managing to maintain a constant quality on all the graphs and a number of community always around ten or less, behaving good on medium-large size graph (30 to 50 nodes) and, also, on graph of larger sizes (more than 50 nodes), proving to be well adapted to the various graphs produced by H-BOLD.

The Walktrap algorithm has a complexity proportional to the height H of the created dendrogram, equal to O(mnH), thus bringing the theoretical worst case to  $O(mn^2)$  or  $O(n^3)$  if m=n which does not allow scalability. However, according to the authors, most real networks are not highly connected and their dendrogram is balanced with a small height. In this ideal condition, the general complexity becomes  $O(n^2 logn)$ , which still remains quite high. Nevertheless in the tests carried out, the execution times were excellent, clearly outclassing from the Edge-Betweenness algorithm with which it shares a similar complexity. The Walktrap manages to obtain a fairly constant quality.

This measure is based on the hypothesis that a random graph, that is a graph where the edges connecting the nodes are randomly chosen, do not have a community structure. The quality measure compares the number of edges present in a certain cluster with that expected if the graph did not have a community structure.

<sup>13</sup> https://old.datahub.io

The Louvain algorithm is probably the simplest from the implementation point of view among all the others. It has a linear computational complexity, which makes it extremely scalable as also evidenced in [Blondel et al., 2008]. In [Yang et al., 2015], the Louvain algorithm was compared to all the algorithms here analyzed, demonstrating how this manages to process large amounts of data in far less time than competitors, while maintaining high levels of accuracy. In the tests carried out on H-BOLD, the algorithm managed to obtain an average quality around 0,45, creating a very low number of communities in every type of graph in which it has been applied, which makes it the candidate ideal for the community partition for H-BOLD graphs.

#### 6 Related Work

H-BOLD aims to produce a synthetic multilevel view of an RDF dataset to support users in the exploration of LOD, therefore his algorithms and techniques overlap with different research topics in the field of semantic web. These topics encompass: visualization and documentation of LOD sources, semantic index extraction and schema summarization.

Most exploration and visualization systems that deal with LOD do not handle performance and scalability problems, but use traditional techniques to manage small data sets. In LOD, visualization systems can be divided into generic systems and graphoriented systems. Generic display systems (such as Rhizomer [Brunetti et al., 2012], LODWheel[Stuhr et al., 2011], SemLens [Heim et al., 2011], Payola [Klímek et al., 2013], LDVizWiz [Atemezing and Troncy, 2014], VisWizard [Tschinkel et al., 2014], LinkDaViz [Thellmann et al., 2015], ViCoMap [Ristoski and Paulheim, 2015]) support different types of data (for example, numbers, temporal, graphical, spatial) and provide different types of visualization. Some systems offer recommendation mechanisms suggesting the most suitable form of visualization depending on the input data (Link-DaViz, VisWizard, LDVizWiz). Graph-oriented system (such as FlexViz web applications [Falconer et al., 2010], RelFinder [Heim et al., 2010], Lodlive [Camarda et al., 2012], VOWL 2 [Lohmann et al., 2016], graphVizdb [Bikakis et al., 2016]) are of great importance due to the graphical structure of the RDF data model. Although several systems offer sampling or aggregation mechanisms, most of these load the entire graph into central memory. Because graph layout algorithms require a lot of memory to draw large graphs, current systems are limited to handling small graphs. With regard to visual scalability, most systems do not adopt approximation techniques such as sampling, filtering or aggregation. Existing approaches assume that all objects can be presented on the screen and managed through traditional visualization techniques, thus limiting their applicability to data sets of limited size. Exceptions in this scenario are the cases of SynopsViz<sup>14</sup> [Bikakis et al., 2017] and VizBoard [Voigt et al., 2012] which exploit external memory at runtime. And also GrouseFlocks [Archambault et al., 2008] is a

<sup>14</sup> http://www.synopsviz.com/

system for the exploration of a graph hierarchy space. By allowing users to see several different possible hierarchies on the same graph, the system helps users investigate graph hierarchy space instead of a single fixed hierarchy.

In order to handle large graphs, modern systems should adopt more sophisticated techniques such as:

- use hierarchical aggregation approaches in which the graph is recursively decomposed into smaller subgroups (using clustering and partitioning techniques), forming a hierarchy of levels of abstraction [Archambault et al., 2008, Auber, 2004, Rodrigues et al., 2013, Li et al., 2015];
- adopt edge grouping techniques that aggregate the edges of the graph into bundles [Cui et al., 2008, Gansner et al., 2011];
- consider scalability and performance as key requirements and deepen disk-based implementations, as in [Rodrigues et al., 2006, Sundara et al., 2010].

### 7 Conclusion & Future Works

In this paper, a tool for multilevel visual exploration of Big Linked Data has been presented.

H-BOLD extends our previous tool LODeX and provides users with an interactive GUI that makes possible the exploration of billions of instances reported in a RDF dataset. The application of community detection algorithms allows to explore Big datasets. By selecting a set of classes from one of the clusters that represent the LOD, it is possible to explore the classes, attributes and properties and incrementally adding new ones enabling a incremental navigation of the dataset. This tool facilitates users' interaction with LOD sources, making more pleasant the consumption of Linked Data without requiring any a priori knowledge of the dataset nor any SPARQL skills. H-BOLD has been tested on 32 Big Linked Data showing good performances.

In the next future, we hope to evaluate the effectiveness of H-BOLD as a visualization tool through a user study involving different kind of LOD consumers (practitioners, unskilled users, domain experts). It may also be interesting to experiment with hierarchical clustering algorithms such as the agglomerative algorithms (bottom-up approach) and the divisive algorithms (top-down approach).

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