

GENERATING LITERATURE-BASED KNOWLEDGE DISCOVERIES IN LIFE SCIENCES USING RELATIONSHIP ASSOCIATIONS

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Abstract: The life sciences have been a pioneering discipline for the field of knowledge discovery, since the literature-based discoveries by Swanson three decades ago. Existing literature-based knowledge discovery techniques generally try to discover hitherto unknown associations of domain concepts based on associations that can be established from the literature. However, scientific facts are more often expressed as specific relationships between concepts and/or entities that have been established through scientific research. A pair of relationships that predicate the specific way in which one concept relates to another can be associated if one of the concepts from each relationship can be determined to be semantically equivalent; we call this a “relationship association”. Then, by making the same assumption of the transitivity of association used by Swanson and others, we can generate a hypothetical relationship association by combining two relationship associations that have been extracted from a knowledge base. Here we describe an algorithm for generating potential knowledge discoveries in the form of new relationship associations that are implied but not actually stated, and we test the algorithm against a corpus of almost 5000 relationship associations that we have extracted in previous work from 392 semantic graphs representing research articles from MEDLINE.

1 INTRODUCTION

In the 1980's, Don Swanson demonstrated that *bona fide* scientific discoveries can be made just by examining the co-occurrence of scientific concepts in research articles that already exist in the literature (Swanson, 1986). He noted that several research articles mentioned “Raynaud's syndrome”, which results in discoloration of extremities, together with intermediary concepts such as “blood viscosity”. Other articles mentioned the same intermediary concepts together with “fish oil”. However, no articles mentioned “fish oil” and “Raynaud's syndrome” together. This led him to hypothesize that fish oil is effective for treating Raynaud's syndrome, a scientific discovery that was later experimentally verified.

Swanson made several other discoveries from the literature using this technique, which became known as the Swanson ABC model (Swanson, 1990). Swanson's discoveries gave birth to the field of “literature-based knowledge discovery” and led to a widespread belief in the information science community that not only could discoveries be made from the existing literature, but those discoveries could be made entirely automatically. Several attempts to develop computational methods that can automatically discover new scientific knowledge or generate novel hypotheses from the existing literature have been reported (Langley, 2000; Racunas *et al.*, 2004, Srinivasan, 2004, Weeber *et al.*, 2005). However, there have been few reports of actual new discoveries made from the literature since the initial discoveries by Swanson (Natarajan *et al.* (2006) reported

one discovery that was made in part through examination of the literature).

In a clever article entitled “*In silico veritas*”, Allen criticized a predominant attitude in the scientific community that “computers can do our thinking for us” (Allen, 2001). In a follow-up response, Smalheiser, who worked with Swanson on automating some parts of the ABC model (Swanson and Smalheiser, 1997), made it clear that the literature-based knowledge discovery techniques “do not attempt to bypass scientists, but rather help them to integrate knowledge that is retrievable from the scientific literature in order to formulate hypotheses quickly, systematically and comprehensively.” He went on to say that the process would be even more effective “if investigators and funding agencies simply included archiving of samples and data into research projects together with the metadata needed to understand how the data were collected” (Smalheiser, 2002). In other words, although Swanson was able to make interesting scientific discoveries just by examining the standard research deliverables that had been created by researchers in human-readable form, if researchers and disseminators of scientific knowledge were to present scientific knowledge in a form that is directly interpretable by computers, the benefits to increasing the effectiveness of *in silico* methods for scientific discovery would be considerably larger.

The idea of getting the scientific community to create computer-readable descriptors of their research articles, such as structured digital abstracts, has been brought up recently (Gerstein et al., 2007; Ceol et al., 2008; Seringhaus and Gerstein, 2008). The proposed structures for the descriptors make the content of research articles more accessible to search engines, text mining systems and perhaps even human readers (Hartley and Betts, 2007). However, even in structured digital abstracts, the granularity of “cognition” for most of the descriptive information is still at the sentence or paragraph level (Ceol et al., 2008). Consequently, computers still need to make sense of the sentences in the delimited entries in the digital abstracts (Cafarella et al., 2007; O’donnell et al. 2001), which is notoriously difficult due to the complexity and ambiguity of natural language (Natarajan et al., 2005; Hunter & Cohen, 2006).

Our aim is to take the idea of creating computer-readable content in the scientific knowledge dissemination process one step further. Specifically, we hypothesize that by drawing on new techniques and standards for semantic representation of knowledge in a computer-interpretable form, it should be possible for human researchers to create descriptors of their research findings that are not just “computer-

readable” but also “computer-understandable”. By “computer-understandable”, we mean that computers can reason with the semantics of the descriptors in reference to shared mental models or conceptualizations of the knowledge domain and that they can infer new “facts” or “assertions” in the form of relationships between concepts and/or entities that are only implied but not explicitly stated.

Here, we present an algorithm for discovering hypotheses based on associations between specific relationships, called “relationship associations”. The relationship associations are mined from computer-understandable descriptors in the form of semantic graphs. In order to demonstrate the potential effectiveness of this approach, we apply the algorithm to a corpus of semantic graphs that we have created previously. We then describe some of the hypothetical relationship associations that are discovered.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we present previous work that forms the background of our study. In Section 3, we describe our algorithm for generating hypothetical relationship associations that represent new and potentially meaningful associations of specific relationships. In Section 4, we report the results of an experiment applying this algorithm to the corpus of semantic graphs created previously. In Section 5, we review related work.

2 BACKGROUND

Current text mining techniques cannot accurately extract semantic relationships between concepts from natural language text due to the complexity and ambiguity of natural language (Erhardt et al., 2006; Rinaldi et al. 2006). We have developed a system that uses ontologies based on Description Logics (DL) to enable researchers to author semantic graphs that define the relationships described by a research article in a computer understandable form (Kraines et al., 2006). By using DL ontologies as formal knowledge representation languages for authoring the semantic graphs, it is possible to accurately express specific relationships between concepts in a form that can be reasoned with by a computer (Baader et al., 2003). Ontology individuals, which are described as instances of ontology classes, represent entities described in the article and form the nodes of a semantic graph. Ontology properties that describe the specific relationships between those entities form the arcs. A semantic relationship occurs as a segment of a graph containing a domain instance and a range instance linked by a property.

An example of a semantic graph for the article “Over expression of peptidyl-prolyl isomerase-like 1 is associated with the growth of colon cancer cells” (Obama et al., 2006) is shown in figure 1. The semantic relationship “an instance of **Neoplasms** called *colon cancers* has produced agent an instance of **Tissues** called *colon cell tissues*” (class names are shown in bold, instance names in italics, and property names are underlined) that forms one segment in the semantic graph is circled.

In order to test the hypothesis that people can author computer-understandable descriptors and that those descriptors can be used in knowledge-intensive computing services that would otherwise be impossible, we have created a corpus of 392 semantic graphs. Each graph was created manually based on the abstract of a research article from MEDLINE. The 392 research articles were selected to represent the studies of about 200 researchers in life sciences at the University of Tokyo. The graphs were created using the UoT ontology, which was developed to logically structure a subset of the Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) controlled vocabulary (Kraines et al., in preparation). The subset

is made up of more than 1300 MeSH terms chosen to cover the topics in the selected research articles and in an introductory textbook for life sciences used to teach undergraduates at the University of Tokyo. The graphs have 26 classes and 34 properties on average, so the corpus contains 13,283 individual semantic relationships. Most of the graphs were authored by undergraduate and graduate students studying life sciences at the University of Tokyo.

Previously, we reported a technique for extracting associations between specific relationships of concepts (Guo and Kraines, 2009; Guo and Kraines, 2010a; Guo and Kraines, 2010b). A relationship association is analogous to concept association, such as that evidenced by term co-occurrence in article titles, except that instead of being between singleton concepts, the association is between semantic relationships of the form “A has specific directed relationship X with B.” Therefore, a relationship association is a special kind of association rule that states “if concept A has relationship R1 with concept B, then it is likely that concept A has relationship R2 with concept C.”

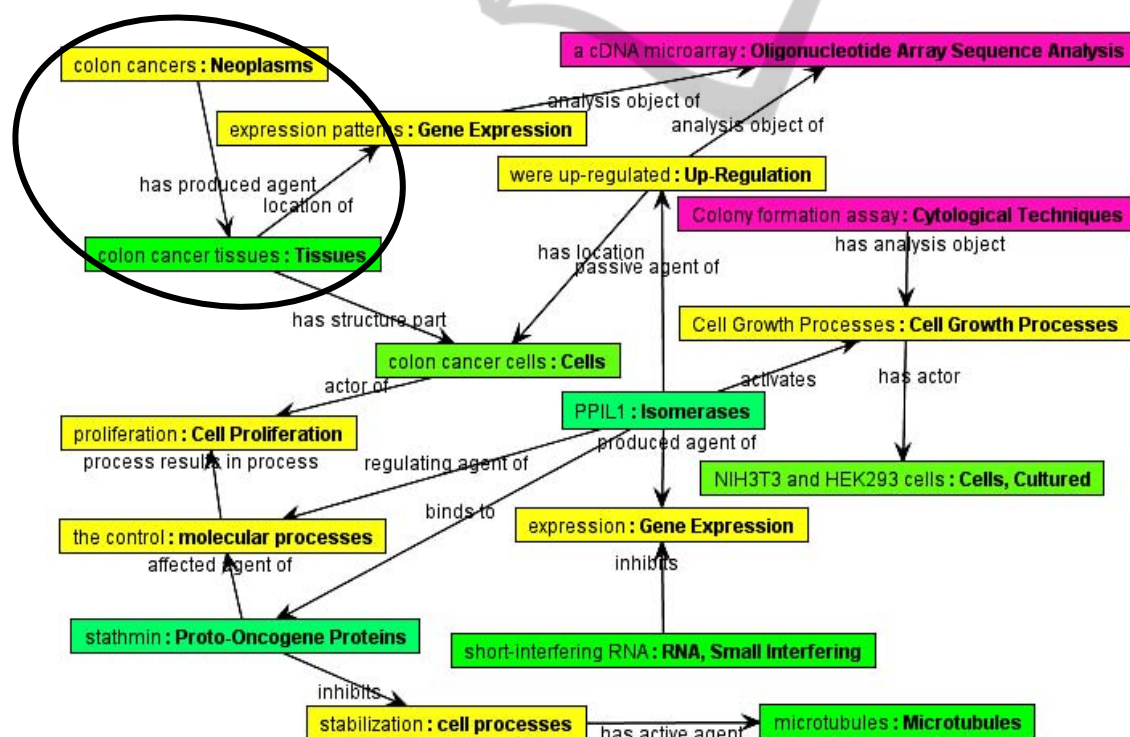


Figure 1: A slightly abridged version of the semantic graph of the article entitled “Over expression of peptidyl-prolyl isomerase-like 1 is associated with the growth of colon cancer cells.” Boxes show instances of classes from the ontology. The colour of the box indicates the subsuming major upper class: yellow instances are processes, green instances are physical entities, pink instances are investigative techniques. The text in each box gives the instance label, followed by a colon, followed by the class name of that instance. Arrows show properties expressing the asserted relationships between instances. The semantic relationship described in the text is circled.

The reason for considering associations between relationships rather than singleton concepts is as follows. It has been observed that much of scientific knowledge actually takes the form of specific relationships between concepts (Weikum et al., 2009). For example, the article represented by the semantic graph in figure 1 describes how specific isomerases activate growth of specific cells. Therefore, a more appropriate “unit” for scientific discovery might be a semantic triple: a specific directed binary relationship between a domain concept and a range concept. Using semantic triples, we can extract relationship associations such as “studies of cells that participate in formation of cancerous tumours often focus on the proliferation processes that those cells undergo.”

In this paper, we describe how relationship associations can be used in a Swanson-type knowledge discovery process. Continuing the example above, if we find another relationship association stating that “several studies examining the proliferation of specific cells have found that small interfering RNA inhibits those cells,” we could combine this new relationship association with the previous one associating cells involved in cancerous tumour formation with those cells participating in cell proliferation processes to generate the hypothesis that small interfering RNA might also inhibit cells involved in tumour formation.

There are two major conditions for producing interesting knowledge discoveries using relationship associations. First, the classes and properties in the ontology must be sufficiently detailed to be able to express meaningful relationship associations. Second, the corpus of semantic graphs must be large enough to check that a potential discovery has not already been reported in the literature. Unfortunately, we only have 392 semantic graphs to work with, which is insufficient to satisfy the second condition. The EKOSS system is based on the idea that if the task of authoring the semantic graphs could be distributed over the entire scientific community, the problem of scalability would be solved (Pico et al., 2008; Ceol et al., 2008). However, here we have a typical “chicken and egg” problem: in order to convince scientists to make the effort to create the semantic graphs, we must show their utility, but in order to show the utility of the semantic graphs, we need a certain minimum number of graphs to work with. Still, we hope that our corpus of 392 semantic graphs will be sufficient to indicate the kind of discovery process that might be possible with a larger corpus of graphs, thereby helping to “jump-start” a virtuous cycle of creating and applying semantic graphs representing research articles. We are also working to

incorporate natural language processing and machine learning algorithms into the semantic graph authoring tools in order to reduce the work load and cognitive overhead of the human authors.

3 GENERATING NEW HYPOTHETICAL RELATIONSHIP ASSOCIATIONS

Our method for generating new relationship associations that are potential knowledge discoveries follows the basic process proposed by Swanson for the ABC open discovery (A to B and B to C) model (Swanson, 1990; Srinivasan, 2004). We pick up where we left off in the previous paper with a short list of five relationship associations that meet the relevance criteria for “interestingness” of the association (Guo and Kraines, 2010a). These relationship associations, shown in Table 1, form the A-B set. We then use all of the relationship associations, irrespective of the “interestingness” criteria, as the B-C set, and we create all A-C relationship associations from the (A-B, B-C) pairs where the B triples match. This gives us a set of potential knowledge discoveries. To check that they are indeed “new” discoveries, we match the A-C relationship associations with each of the semantic graphs in the corpus. The A-C relationship associations that do not match with any of the semantic graphs are potential discoveries that could merit further scrutiny.

Table 1: The five relationship associations we extracted previously (Guo and Kraines, 2010a). Each triple is shown in the form “domain class | property | range class”. The conditional triple is separated from the consequent triple using “>”. The connecting class is shown in bold type.

No.	Relationship association
1	Flagella has structure part Cytoplasmic Structures > physical objects interacts with Cytoplasmic Structures
2	Cytoplasmic Structures has structure part Microtubules > Chlamydomonas has structure part Cytoplasmic Structures
3	Cells passive agent of Neoplasms > Cell Proliferation has active agent Cells
4	Gene Expression has passive agent Receptors, Cell Surface > Gene Expression has location Neurons
5	organism parts structure part of Drosophila > Growth and Development has passive agent organism parts

We divide the overall process of generating hypothetical relationship associations that are potential knowledge discoveries into three steps: 1) matching the B triples of A-B and B-C relationship associations, 2) generating A-C relationship associations, and 3) matching the A-C relationship associations to the full set of semantic graphs in the corpus. We give details for each step in the following subsections.

3.1 Matching B Triples

In the Swanson ABC model, the hypothesis is that associations between concepts are transitive, so that if there is an association between concept A and B and between concept B and C, we can infer that there may be an association between concept A and C via the intermediary concept B. Associations are usually predicted based on co-occurrence of the concepts, e.g. in the title of a research article.

The situation with relationship associations is slightly different. Here we have specific relationships expressed between concepts, some of which are transitive and others which are not (they may also be reflexive or symmetric). Two relationships, of the form (**domain class** has specific relationship with **range class**) are linked via a shared class, which we call the “connecting class”. As in the previous section, classes are shown in bold and properties are underlined. Thus the relationship association is a co-occurrence of two specific relationships involving a common class. Furthermore, because the classes in the ontology are arranged in a subsumption hierarchy, the actual classes of the instances of the connecting class do not need to be the same, as long as they are sufficiently closely related via subsumption.

We also use class and property subsumption in matching the B triples, so that for example the triple “**cell** participates in **cell process**” would match with the triple “**blood cell** is actor of **cell proliferation**”, where **blood cell** is a subclass of **cell**, actor of is a subproperty of participates in, and **cell process** is a superclass of **cell proliferation**. Note that unlike the original Swanson ABC model, the relationship associations that meet the relevance criteria proposed by (Guo and Kraines 2010a) do support directionality in the form of “if Triple 1 occurs in a semantic graph, then it is likely that Triple 2 will occur.” In order to convey this directionality to the generated A-C relationship association, we also need to include the inverses of the relationship associations in the B-C set, which doubles the size of the B-C set. Furthermore, we also look at pairs where the B-C relationship as-

sociation is first and the A-B relationship association is second, in effect matching the A and C triples.

3.2 Generating A-C Relationship Associations

Once we find a B-C relationship association that has a matching triple with one of the A-B relationship associations, we use the two relationship associations to create a new A-C relationship association. There are several ways that we can generate the new relationship association. In the work presented here, we connect the non-matching triples in the two relationship associations, the A and C triples, via the connecting class in each relationship association. This means that in addition to having a matching B triple, the A-B and B-C relationship associations must also have matching connecting classes.

The rationale for using this approach is as follows. A relationship association can be thought of as an association of two typed relationships that apply to one entity, the entity represented by the connecting class. Therefore, we would interpret the A-B relationship association “if a **neoplasm process** involves a **cell** then the **cell** is likely to be the actor of a **cell proliferation process**” as saying that cells involved in neoplasm processes often are actors of cell proliferation.

The association of relationship associations is also interpreted through a shared class. Therefore, the A-B relationship association shown above could only associate with a B-C relationship association that also has **cell** (or a class subsuming or subsumed by **cell**) as the connecting class. For example, the relationship association “if a **bone marrow cell** is involved in a **neoplasm process**, then the **bone marrow cell** is likely to contain an **oncogene protein**” has **bone marrow cell** as the connecting class, which is a subclass of **cell**, so it can be associated with the A-B relationship association. However, the relationship association “if a **bone marrow cell** is involved in a **neoplasm process**, then the **neoplasm process** is likely to involve an **oncogene protein**” has **cell proliferation** as the connecting class. Because **cell proliferation** is a process, which is a branch of the ontology subsumption hierarchy that is orthogonal to the branch containing **cell**, this relationship association cannot be associated with the A-B relationship association.

Following this line of reasoning, we create new association relationships from pairs of relationship associations that both have a matching B triple and a matching connecting class. Furthermore, if the actual connecting class is different in the two relationship

associations (as is the case in the example above), we create two new relationship associations using each class. Therefore, the result of the example above with the B-C association relationship having **bone marrow cell** as the connecting class would be the two relationship associations “if a **bone marrow cell** is the actor of a **cell proliferation process**, then the **bone marrow cell** is likely to contain an **oncogene protein**” and “if a **cell** is the actor of a **cell proliferation process**, then the **cell** is likely to contain an **oncogene protein**.” Of course, the second, more general relationship association is more likely to match with a semantic graph in the corpus and thereby be discounted as a discovery candidate.

3.3 Matching A-C Relationship Associations to the Semantic Graph Corpus

We use the description logics reasoner software, RacerPro (www.racer-systems.com), to determine whether or not a newly generated association relationship occurs in any of the existing semantic graphs. For each semantic graph in the corpus, we first add that graph to the reasoner’s knowledge base together with the ontology used to create the graph (here the UoT ontology). Then we submit the relationship association to RacerPro as a query and ask RacerPro to find instances in the target graph that can bind to each of the three class variables in the query subject to the two specified relationships. If an independent set of binding instances can be found, we say that the relationship association occurs in the target graph and is therefore not a new discovery.

The process of matching relationship associations and semantic graphs uses both logic and rule-based inference. The logic is built into the ontology using formalisms provided by the description logic that is supported by the ontology specification we used (OWL-DL). The rules are pre-defined for a particular ontology by domain experts. By using logic and rules, we can find matches to relationship associations that are only implied at a semantic level because the reasoner can infer relationships between instances that are implied but not explicitly stated in the semantic graph.

For example, consider the segment of the semantic graph in figure 1 spanning two arcs between the instance of **Neoplasms** called *colon cancers* and the instance of **Cell** called *colon cancer cells*. The query “find some instance of **Cell** that is a passive participant of some instance of **Neoplasms**” does not actually occur in the graph because there is no property between *colon cancer cells* and *colon cancers*. How-

ever, as shown in figure 2, the reasoner can identify the match between the query and the semantic graph because the relationship is a passive participant of is implied by the has structure part relationship stated between the *colon cancer cells* and the *colon cancer tissues* and the has produced agent relationship stated between the *colon cancers* and the *colon cancer tissues*. This match uses the rule “If A is produced by C and A has structure part B, then B is produced by C” together with the subsumption relationship between is produced by and is a passive participant of and the inverse relationship between has produced agent and is produced by. More details on the semantic matching process are given in (Kraines et al., 2006; Guo and Kraines, 2008; Guo and Kraines, 2010b).

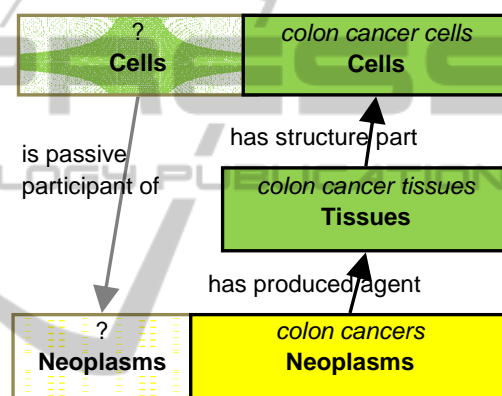


Figure 2: An example of semantic matching. Boxes represent instances: the first line of text gives the instance name and the second line of text gives the instance class. Directed arrows represent properties. The part outlined in black is from the semantic graph. The part outlined in gray is the query. Colours are the same as in Figure 1.

4 EXPERIMENTS

Using the process described above, we have conducted experiments to create new relationship associations that are potential discoveries from the relationship associations that were extracted from a set of 392 research articles retrieved from MEDLINE (Guo and Kraines, 2010a). In this section, we report the results of this experiment.

4.1 Selecting the A-B Set

We hand-selected five of the 984 relationship associations that met the relevance criteria that we specified in our previous work: the first criterion is that the first triple must occur in no more than 40 seman-

tic graphs, and second criterion is that the probability that the association query occurs when the first triple occurs must be twice the probability that the second triple occurs when the connecting class occurs (Guo and Kraines, 2010a). These relationship associations, shown in table 1, make up the A-B set of relationship associations in this experiment.

4.2 Creating the B-C Set

For the B-C set, we wanted to use as many relationship associations as possible, irrespective of their “interestingness”. This is because the obvious relationship associations will be eliminated in the step where we match the newly created A-C relationship associations with the corpus of semantic graphs. Therefore, we used all 4821 of the relationship associations extracted from the corpus of semantic graphs. Furthermore, as discussed earlier, the relationship associations can be considered to have directionality, so we also generated inverses of all of the extracted relationship associations and added them to the B-C set. Thus, we had a total of 9642 B-C relationship associations to match with the five A-B relationship associations shown in table 1.

4.3 Creating the Candidate A-C Set

The numbers of A-C relationship associations, which are candidates for knowledge discoveries, that result from matching the 9642 B-C relationship associations with each of the five A-B relationship associations are shown in table 2. The A-C relationship associations are generated both from pairs where the A-B relationship association is first and from pairs where the B-C relationship association is first. The number of A-C relationship associations generated for each A-B varies from 18 to 29, with an average of 24. Therefore, on average, just 0.25 percent of the B-C relationship associations match with each A-B relationship association. The small number of B-C relationship associations matching with each A-B relationship association together with the relatively small variance in the matches for each A-B relationship association is indicative of the diversity of the triples making up the B-C relationship associations.

4.4 Matching the A-C Relationship Associations to Semantic Graphs

The numbers of A-C relationship associations that were found to match with semantic graphs in the corpus using only logic-based inference and using both rule and logic-based inference are also shown in

table 2. By using rule-based inference in addition to inference based on the logical properties of the classes and properties in the DL ontology, we were able to find matches for 1 to 3 additional A-C discovery candidates. Although this is only a 10 to 20 percent increase, it indicates the value that is added by supporting different kinds of inference in the matching process.

On average, 53% of the A-C relationship associations were found to already exist in the initial set of semantic graphs, which disqualifies them as knowledge discovery candidates. The remainder of the A-C relationship associations are potential “discoveries”. However, as we noted earlier, the number of semantic graphs is far too small to cover all of the semantic relationships that have been reported in the literature. We expect that with a larger corpus of semantic graphs, many more of the A-C candidate relationship associations will be found to occur in the existing literature.

Table 2: The number of A-C relationship associations that result from matching the 9642 B-C relationship associations with the five A-B relationship associations, and the number of those A-C relationship associations that were found to match with semantic graphs in the corpus with and without the application of rule-based inference.

No.	Number of A-C relationship associations	Number of A-C relationship associations matching without rules	Number of A-C relationship associations matching with rules
1	22	13	16
2	29	17	18
3	18	7	8
4	24	9	11
5	28	10	11

One example of an A-C relationship association generated by the third A-B relationship association:

Cells | passive agent of | Neoplasms
 > Cell Proliferation | has active agent | **Cells**

that did not appear in any of the graphs is:

Cells, Cultured | passive agent of | Neoplasms
 > Cell Differentiation | has passive agent | **Cells, Cultured**

Here we express the relationship associations with the notation used in Table 1: “triple1 > triple2”, where each triple is expressed as “domain class | property | range class” and the connecting class is shown in bold type. The B-C relationship association is:

Cell Proliferation | has active agent |
Cells, Cultured
 > Cell Differentiation | has passive agent |
Cells, Cultured

We can interpret this relationship association to mean that if a researcher happens to be studying cells involved in neoplasm processes, then it might be interesting for that researcher to look at the cell differentiation processes of those cells.

An example resulting from the fourth A-B relationship association:

Gene Expression | has passive agent |
 Receptors, Cell Surface
 > **Gene Expression** | has location | Neurons

combined with the B-C relationship association:

Gene Expression | has location | Neurons
 > **Gene Expression** | has passive agent |
 Carboxy-Lyases

is the hypothetical relationship association:

Gene Expression | has passive agent |
 Receptors, Cell Surface
 > **Gene Expression** | has passive agent |
 Carboxy-Lyases

The hypothesis generated here is that if a researcher is studying gene expression involving cell surface receptors, it might be interesting to look for carboxy-lyase enzymes also involved in the gene expression.

An example resulting from the fifth A-B relationship association:

organism parts | structure part of | *Drosophila*
 > Growth and Development | has passive agent |
organism parts

combined with the B-C relationship association:

Growth and Development | has passive agent |
Synapses
 > Gene Expression | has location | **Synapses**

is the hypothetical relationship association:

Synapses | structure part of | *Drosophila*
 > Gene Expression | has location | **Synapses**

The resulting hypothesis is that if a researcher is studying the synapses of *Drosophila*, it might be interesting to look at the gene expression located at those synapses.

We hope that these three examples have provided a clear demonstration of the type of scientific hypotheses that can be generated using the approach of literature-based knowledge discovery from relationship associations. With a larger corpus of semantic

graphs, it should be possible to extract more interesting potential discoveries of new relationship associations and to check more thoroughly that those relationship associations do not already occur in the published literature. We are currently exploring ways to increase the size of the semantic graph corpus, e.g. by integrating the graph authoring tools into the scientific paper publication process.

5 RELATED WORK

The goal of the work presented in this paper is to discover new knowledge or hypotheses from the literature. Several previous research studies have attempted to attain this goal as we mentioned in Section 1. However, there are only a few studies that look at knowledge discovery about specific relationships between concepts.

Natarajan et al. (2006) used a combination of microarray experiments and NLP methods for extracting specific gene and protein relationships, such as inhibits and phosphorylates, from full-text research articles, in order to discover gene interactions linked to the protein SIP and the invasivity phenotype. However, their sentence-based text mining results had to be manually checked, and the problem of gene name polysemy was noted as being particularly difficult to resolve. They also did not appear to use any kind of inference.

Hristovski et al. (2006) used the natural language processing tool, BioMedLEE, to extract relationships between genotypic and phenotypic concepts in research articles, expressed in the form of “associated with change”. They also used another NLP system, SemRep, to extract semantic relationships in the form of “treats”. They then used the extracted relationships to construct a “discovery pattern”, which they defined as a “set of conditions to be satisfied for the discovery of new relations between concepts.” The conditions are given by combinations of relations between concepts that were automatically extracted from articles on MEDLINE. Finally, they conducted a novelty check to find discovery patterns that actually do not occur in the medical literature. However, their approach suffers from the low accuracy of automatically extracted semantic relationships and the limited number of relationship types that could be handled.

Another technique for extracting and interconnecting knowledge at the relationship level is automatic text summarization based on relationship extraction. The CLEF (clinical e-sciences framework) project aims to generate summaries or “chronicles”

of patient medical histories based on relationships that are extracted from individual medical records (Taweel et al., 2006). The authors indicate that inference is used in assembling individual events into chronicles, but it is not clear if the inference is done at the level of specific relationships between events and entities in the records. MIAKT (Medical Imaging and Advanced Knowledge Technologies) is another system for automatically summarizing knowledge in medical examination reports that focuses on image annotations (Bontcheva and Wilks, 2004).

6 CONCLUSIONS

Given the tremendous rate at which the scientific literature is increasing, new techniques are needed for helping researchers make scientific hypotheses that are well-based in the existing literature but have not been reported by any previous articles. Literature-based knowledge discovery is a well-studied approach for generating “discoveries” in the form of potentially interesting hypotheses by finding associations between concepts that have not actually been reported in the literature but that are implied by previously reported associations with intermediary concepts. However, most existing techniques only consider associations between singleton concepts.

We suggest that potentially more interesting and meaningful hypotheses could be generated if we considered the implied associations of specific typed relationships between pairs of concepts or entities. In previous work, we have developed an algorithm to extract associations of pairs of specified relationships, called relationship associations, from semantic graphs that represent the knowledge contained in research articles using formal “heavy-weight” ontologies that are based on description logics, and we used the algorithm to extract a set of relationship associations from a corpus of semantic graphs that we authored for 392 articles selected from MEDLINE.

Here, we describe an algorithm that we have developed for generating potential discoveries in the form of relationship associations that are implied by the extracted relationship associations but that do not appear in any of the semantic graphs in the corpus. We also report the results of an experiment to apply the algorithm to the relationship associations that we extracted previously from the 392 semantic graphs created based on MEDLINE articles. Because each semantic graph contains an average of 34 properties, the corpus contains more than 13,000 semantic triples, which is comparable to the size of other major

corpora used for testing knowledge discovery applications. In fact, the number of triples that are logically entailed is easily more than 100,000. However, even this relatively large corpus is too small to provide a good guarantee that a new relationship association has not actually been reported in the literature. Still, we were able to find several new relationship associations that at least appear to be somewhat novel and of interest in life sciences.

The aim of this experiment using a relatively small corpus of semantic graphs has been to provide a demonstration of the kind of knowledge discoveries that could be possible if more semantic graphs become available. In future work, we will continue to develop the algorithm for generating knowledge discoveries in the form of relationship associations that are implied but not expressed in a corpus of semantic graphs, and in particular we will work on establishing additional measures of “interestingness” for the generated relationship associations that mirror the measures that we developed in our previous work. In addition, we will continue our efforts to realize a larger corpus of semantic graphs by developing semi-automatic methods for creating semantic graphs and also by investigating the possibility for integrating the semantic graph authoring approach into the research article publication process in order to leverage the potential for network effects in the scientific community (Pico et al., 2008; Ceol et al., 2008; Berners-Lee and Hendler, 2001).

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