

The Role of Ontologies in eCommerce

Y. Ding², D. Fensel², M. Klein¹, B. Omelayenko¹, and E. Schulten¹

¹ Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam VUA, Division of Mathematics and Informatics,
De Boelelaan 1081a, NL-1081 HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands

² Leopold-Franzens Universität Innsbruck, Institut für Informatik,
Technikerstrasse 25, A-6020 Innsbruck, Austria

Abstract. Web technology is starting to penetrate many aspects of our daily life. Its importance as a medium for business transactions will grow significantly during the next few years. In terms of market volume B2B will be the most interesting area and it will also be the area where the new technology will lead to drastic changes in established customer relationships and business models. Simple established one2one trading relationships will be replaced by open and flexible n2m relationships between customers and vendors. However, this new flexibility in electronic trading also generates serious challenges for the parties who want to realize it. The main problem here is the heterogeneity of information descriptions used by vendors and customers. Product descriptions, catalog formats, and business documents are often unstructured and non-standardized. Intelligent solutions that help to mechanize the process of structuring, standardizing, aligning and personalizing are a key requisite to successfully overcome the current bottlenecks of eCommerce enabling its further growth. In this paper, we discuss the main problems in information integration in this area and describe how Ontology technology can help to solve many of them.

1 Introduction

eCommerce in business to business (B2B) is not a new phenomenon. Initiatives to support electronic data exchange in the business processes between different companies already existed in the sixties. In order to exchange business transactions the sender and the receiver have to agree on a common standard (a protocol for transmitting the content and a language for describing the content). In general, the automatization of business transactions has not lived up to the expectations of its propagandists. Establishing a eCommerce relationship requires a serious investment and it is limited to a predefined number of trading partners. It is limited to a specific type of extranet that needs to set up for mechanizing the business relationships.

Web-enabled eCommerce helps its users to contact a large number of potential clients without running into the problem of implementing a large number of communication channels. However, enabling flexible and open eCommerce has to deal with serious problems. One has to deal with the question of heterogeneity in the *product*, *catalogue*, and *document* description standards of the trading partner. Effective and efficient management of different styles of description becomes a key obstacle for this approach.

Web-enabled eCommerce needs to be open to large numbers of suppliers and buyers. Its success is closely related to its ability to mediate a large number of business transactions. Web-enabled eCommerce provides its users with one key advantage: they can communicate with a large number of customers through one communication channel. This open, flexible, and dynamic channel reduces the number of special-purpose communication links for its user community. However, in order to provide this service, there have to be solutions that solve the significant normalization, mapping, and updating problem for the clients. A successful approach has to deal with various aspects. It has to integrate with various hardware and software platforms and provide a common protocol for information exchange. However, the real problem is the openness, heterogeneity and dynamic nature of the exchanged content. There are at least three levels at which this heterogeneity arises: the *content* level, at the level of *product catalogs structures*, and the level of *document structures*.

- The actual **content** of the exchanged information needs to be modelled. Historically, many different ways to categorize and describe products have evolved. Often, vendors have their own way of describing their products. Structuring and standardizing the product descriptions is a significant task in B2B eCommerce, ensuring that then different players can actually communicate with each other, allowing customers to find the products they are looking for.
- E-commerce is about the electronic exchange of business information -in which product descriptions are just one element. The product descriptions are the building blocks of an electronic **catalog**, together with information about the vendor, the manufacturer, the lead time etc. Furthermore, a catalog provider needs to include quality control information, such as the version, date and identification number of the catalog. If two electronic catalogs are involved the structure of these catalogs has to be aligned as well.
- One step further in the process, we come upon the actual use of the catalog. A buyer may want to send a purchase order, after picking up the necessary information from a catalog. The vendor has to reply with a confirmation, and the actual buying process begins. In order for the buyer and the vendor to read and process each other's **business documents**, again a common language is needed. Marketplace software developers like Commerce One developed their structures based on xCBL¹. This provides a large collection of document structures reflecting different aspects of a trading process. Aliening these document structures with other document definitions from, for example, Ariba (cXML²) is not certainly a trivial task.

The first type of mismatch that arises is mainly concerned with the real-world semantics of the exchanged information. People describe the same products in different ways. The second and third types arise more in relation to the syntactical structure of the exchanged information. These problems becomes more serious reflecting the dynamic nature of eCommerce. New players arise, new standards are proposed, and new

1. <http://www.xcbl.org>

2. <http://www.cXML.org>

products and services enter the market place. No static solution can deal with this situation. Given these requirements there is only one IT technology out there that can promise to provide at least a partial solution. This technology and its promises for eCommerce are examined during the remainder of the paper.

Ontology-based solution paths. Ontologies (cf. [Fensel, 2001]) are a key enabling technology for the semantic web. They interweave human understanding of symbols with their machine-processability. Ontologies were developed in Artificial Intelligence to facilitate knowledge sharing and reuse. Since the early nineties, Ontologies have become a popular research topic. They have been studied by several Artificial Intelligence research communities, including Knowledge Engineering, Natural Language Processing and Knowledge Representation. More recently, the concept of Ontology is also becoming widespread in fields, such as intelligent information integration, cooperative information systems, information retrieval, electronic commerce, and knowledge management. The reason ontologies are becoming so popular is largely due to what they promise: a shared and common understanding of a domain that can be communicated between people and application systems. In a nutshell, Ontologies are formal and consensual specifications of conceptualizations that provide a shared and common understanding of a domain, an understanding that can be communicated across people and application systems. Thus, Ontologies glue together two essential aspects that help to bring the web to its full potential:

- Ontologies define formal semantics for information, consequently allowing information processing by a computer.
- Ontologies define real-world semantics, which make it possible to link machine-processable content with meaning for humans based on consensual terminologies.

Especially the later aspect makes Ontology technology that interesting. Ontologies must have a *network architecture* and Ontologies must be *dynamic*. That is, Ontologies deal with heterogeneity in Space and development in time. Ontology are networks of meaning where from the very beginning, heterogeneity is an essential requirement for this Ontology network. Tools for dealing with conflicting definitions and strong support in interweaving local theories are essential in order to make this technology workable and scalable. Ontologies are used as a means of exchanging meaning between different agents. They can only provide this if they reflect an inter-subjectual consensus. By definition, they can only be the result of a social process. For this reason, ontologies cannot be understood as a static model. An ontology is as much required for the exchange of meaning as the exchange of meaning may influence and modify an ontology. Consequently, evolving ontologies describe a process rather than a static model. Evolving over time is an essential requirement for useful ontologies. As the daily practice constantly changes, Ontologies that mediate the information needs of these processes must have strong support in versioning and must be accompanied by process models that help to organize evolving consensus.

Contents of the paper. The structure of the paper reflect the issues we discussed above. In Section 2, we discuss the role of standardization in eCommerce. Openness cannot be achieved without agreements. In Section 3 and 4 we reflect the need for heterogeneity of these descriptions. Section 3 focusses on heterogeneity in space, i.e., on aligning standards, and Section 4 focusses on heterogeneity in time, i.e., on evolving

these standards. Section 5 covers an aspect we have not yet mentioned. Ontologies are structures for describing actual content. This Section describes methods and tools to allow this in a scalable and economic fashion. Finally, conclusions are provided by Section 6.

2 Openness: Harmonization and Standardization in eCommerce

A fundamental premise -and the major economic drive- behind e-commerce is that we can replace labor intensive and time consuming human interactions with (semi-) automated internet enabled processes. Looking at actual e-commerce solutions, we see rather simple applications for the final customers, such as product search and selection without the help of a Sales Representative and slightly more sophisticated solutions between enterprises, such as server-to-server communication for enterprise inventory management. In spite of these solutions, the slower-than-expected adoption of electronic buying and the bankruptcy of many dotcoms point to the complexity of replacing the human element. Of course, this is not difficult to understand. In the human world, dialog is structured by grammatical, semantic, and syntactic rules that are expressed in a shared context of social and cultural conventions. The young e-commerce world is lacking this rich consensual background, and we are still far from achieving the vision of a Universe of Net-work-Accessible Information –as the W3C defines the Web. The need for consensus in a trading community arises on many different levels, which is reflected in the different areas of focus of these harmonization initiatives. Figure 1 illustrates the basis processes and documents exchanged through an e-marketplace based on SAP technology. Depending on the level of sophistication, the Business Connector allows integration with the back-end system of the business partners, and the billing process is also automated through the marketplace. Looking from a business perspective, we first encounter the level of the basic building blocks of any commercial transaction; the descriptions of the products and services themselves. Clearly, without agreement on the name of an item to be bought or sold, any degree of transaction automation becomes quite complex. Then we arrive the level where these descriptions are represented in an electronic catalogue. The catalogue requires certain specific content and an agreed format, because the many to many communication in an electronic marketplace presupposes a shared catalogue. Finally, there is the level where the electronic catalogue is actually used. Here the business processes and the business documents that are involved have to be aligned. When we consider the rather straightforward example of purchasing a non-stock item such as writing paper through an electronic marketplace, the business partners need at a minimum to be able to exchange a Purchase Order and a Purchase Order Confirmation, but in a more sophisticated application, the Billing process, Order Status Tracking and the Goods Receipt Process are included too. Hence, business processes and documents through the whole supply chain are involved in this alignment process.

In the following, we will discuss standardization and harmonization initiatives that have a high impact on the development of electronic business. First, Table 1. provides a

Basic Processes & Document Flow

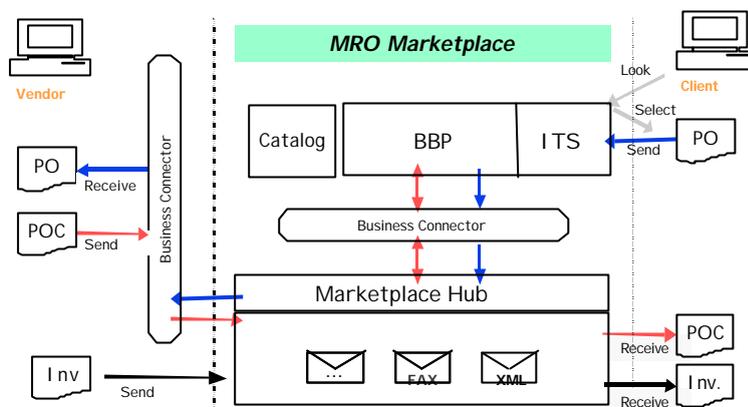


Fig. 1 Basis processes and documents exchanged through an e-marketplace.

summary and classification of the product and service standards.

Table 1. Survey of Product and Service Standards

Name	Design perspective	Main classification concept	Major use	Domain
ecl@ss, www.eCl@ss.de	Supply side	Material of construction.	Building blocks for electronic catalogues in B2B marketplaces.	Intending to cover services and products, but current focus on products. The automotive and the electrical industry are strongly represented.
HS: Harmonised System, www.wcoomd.org	Supply side	Material of construction.	Collection of customs duties and international trade statistics.	Intending to cover services and products, but strong focus on products.

Table 1. Survey of Product and Service Standards

Name	Design perspective	Main classification concept	Major use	Domain
NAICS/NAPCS: North American Industry Classification System/ North American Product Classification System, www.census.gov	NAICS: supply side NAPCS: demand side	NAICS: Production process. NAPCS: not yet decided	NAICS & NAPCS: Statistics on a.o. productivity, unit labor.	NAICS: intending to cover services and products, but strong focus on products. NAPCS: intending to cover services and products, first focus will be on services because they have in the past been neglected by classification systems.
RosettaNet, www.rosettanet.org	Supply side	Product category	Building blocks for electronic catalogues in B2B marketplaces	Products in IT industry, automotive industry, consumer electronics and telecommunications industries.
SYMAP/CVP: Système d'Information pour les Marchés Publics / Common Procurement Vocabulary, www.simap.eu.int	Supply side	Industry of origin	Purchasing in public sector.	Intended to cover services and products, but focus on products.
UNSPSC: United Nations Standard Products and Services Codes, www.un-spsc.net	Supply side	Product category	Building blocks for electronic catalogues.	Intending to cover services and products, but currently very shallow.

These content standards are complemented by proposals for the alignment of business processes. Examples are: BizTalk, www.biztalk.org and www.microsoft.com/biztalk/; Commerce XML: cXML, www.cxml.org; Electronic Business XML: ebXML, www.ebxml.org; Open Buying on the Internet Consortium OBI, www.openbuy.org; Open Applications Group Integration Specification: OAGIS, www.openapplications.org; Organization for the Advancement of Structured Information Standards: OASIS, www.oasis-open.org; Rosettanet, www.rosettanet.org; UN/CEFACT, www.unece.org/cefact; and XML Common Business Library: xCBL, www.xcbl.org.

In order to lift electronic business to move beyond the buying and selling of mere commodities such as a desktop or a CD, customers need a generic classification system with a high level of detail. It is clear that the current classification systems are build for

different purposes, with different classification concepts and structures, and cover different domains. Some do not provide the level of detail that is required for an electronic catalogue, other neglect the important area of services, and most are developed from a supply instead of a demand perspective. In short; a universal product and service classification system that is useful for a customer dealing with an electronic catalog does not exist. Therefore, the question of the compatibility between these classification systems is a crucial one. This will be addressed in the following Section.

Sophisticated electronic commerce also presupposes that the business processes of the engaged partners are aligned, and that the related business documents and catalogues are standardized. We can see that the major industry players in this field recognize the importance of consensus and harmonization, and that they increasingly ensure compliance with international independent bodies such as the W3C and ebXML.

In the ideal world, all electronic commerce between businesses would be utilizing one universal standard covering the issues on all the levels that we discussed in this chapter. But for at least two reasons, this does not look feasible in the real world. Firstly, because business requirements and technology possibilities alter in a fast pace, and hence, standards will always be in development. The second reason is that businesses will not wait decades for a global standard to 'arise'. Indeed, notwithstanding the lack of proper standards, many enterprises already engage in electronic business in different ways, utilizing different languages. Multilinguality is not a problem itself, instead, it often allows creativity and refreshing diversity. However, when lacking the means for translation, things get trickier. This is exactly the case in many part of B2B electronic commerce and brings to mind the biblical building of the Tower of Babel.

3 Flexibility: Alignment of Standards

The heterogeneity of eCommerce cannot be captured by one standard and we always need personalized views on them anyway. Therefore, scalable mediation service between different standards is essential. We describe how Ontology mapping methods can contribute to a solution for this problem, focussing on the alignment of business documents and product classifications.

3.1 Alignment of Document Standards

The B2B area operates with a large number of different business documents. There are several non-XML plain text document standards already accepted and widely used by the industries. First is the well-known EDIFACT format, approved by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe.³ An EDIFACT document is presented with complicated formatted text, non-understandable for a non-specialist. Several text wrappers able to translate an EDIFACT catalog into XML are available now, for example the XML-EDIFACT⁴ wrapper that transfers EDIFACT documents into their XML representation and vice versa. Another non-XML standard is ISO 10303 [ISO, 2000] (also known as STEP) that is an International Standard for the computer-interoperable representation and exchange of product data. It contains a rich set of

3. <http://www.unece.org/trade/untdid/welcome.htm>

4. <http://www.xml-edifact.org/>

modeling primitives that allows building hierarchical product specifications. ISO has developed an XML syntax for STEP, that is now being standardized as part 28 of the ISO 10303 specification.

Table 2. A fragment of the xCBL and cXML formats.

<pre> CatalogSchema SchemaVersion> 1.0 SchemaStandard> UNSPSC SchemaCategory CategoryID> C43171801 ParentCategoryRef> C43170000 CategoryName> Computers CategoryAttribut AttributeName> Processor Speed CatalogData Product SchemaCategoryRef> C43171801 ProductID> 140141-002 Manufacturer> Compaq CountryOfOrigin> US ShortDescription> COMPAQ Armada AM700PIII 700 LongDescription> This light, ... ObjectAttribute AttributeID> Warranty, years AttributeValue> 1 ProductVendorData PartnerRef> Acme_Laptops VendorPartNumber> 12345 ProductPrice Amount> 1250 Currency> USD </pre>	<pre> PunchOutOrderMessage BuyerCookie> 342342ADF ItemIn quantity> 1 ItemID SupplierPartID> 1234 ItemDetail UnitPrice Money currency> USD Money> 1250 Description> Armada M700 PIII 700 UnitOfMeasure> EA Classification domain> SPSC Classification> 43171801 ManufacturerPartID> 140141-002 ManufacturerName> Compaq </pre>
(a) xCBL	(b) cXML

In addition to legacy standards there exist a number of XML standards being recently proposed. Besides common serialization language of XML they significantly differ the underlying document models.

One typical example of these differences would be different ways to represent a list of products in a purchase order when the products are grouped per transaction and in delivery order where the products are grouped per container. Document integration requires regrouping of the records.

Conceptually equivalent properties can be named and re-grouped in different ways. For example consider the fragments of the document structures represented in Table 2. for (a) xCBL⁵ and (b) cXML⁶ standards. The tags in the figure represent the elements of the structure and roughly correspond to the XML tags, which describe the instance documents. The values of the tags are given in the italic font as an example to illustrate the intended meaning of the tags. Graphical tags nesting represent the part-of relation.

5. <http://www.commerceone.com/solutions/business/content.html>

6. <http://www.ariba.com/>

We see that the structures provide slightly different representations for very similar content. Both standards introduce internal product IDs, import the manufacturers' product IDs and names; they contain pricing information, product descriptions and a reference to a certain content standard.

Finally, the documents tend to be really different in capturing and representing is-a relations. For example, the fact that an address is either a physical address or a legal address (both are subclasses from a generic address) can be represented as tag nesting (making a tag sequence `<!ELEMENT Address (PhysicalAddress | LegalAddress)>`) explicitly capturing the is-a relationship at the schema level or with a certain attribute value assigned to element (`<!ATTLIST Address type (Physical | Legal) #REQUIRED>`) where value "Physical" being assigned to attribute type would specify that the address is a physical one. The second way encodes the is-a relation with attribute values at the level of values. The ontology-mediated business integration framework [Omelayenko, 2002(b)] specifically addresses these issues by performing three steps of document integration.

First, document conceptual models are extracted from document DTDs, explicitly representing objects with string (#PCDATA) properties. This can be done in automatic way following existing work [Mello and Heuser, 2001]. Important to mention that element and especially attribute names tend to be reused in DTDs with different associated meaning. For example, tag value may represent several completely different values if being assigned to different elements (price value and document revision value). These specific cases should be separated during the model extraction.

Second, these document models are mapped to mediating unified conceptual model. This is done by means of RDFT mapping meta-ontology that specifies maps between conceptual models in RDF Schema consisting of bridges. Each bridge represents a certain relation between the concepts being mapped and this relation is then interpreted by inference engine that uses these bridges. The bridges link (several) source and (several) target roles, where each role stands for either a class, a property being attached to a specific class, or property value. Such bridge structure allows dealing with the heterogeneity in modeling described above.

The conceptual models and RDFT maps can be then easily converted to Prolog (see Figure 2 for a sample) to perform different reasoning tasks like validation checking for the maps.

To summarize, the document need to be integrated stepwise via a mediating conceptual model to overcome the tremendous heterogeneity in underlying document models. The maps linking these models need to be capable of dealing with these differences, and inference can be used to analyze the maps.

3.2 Alignment of Content Standards

Different ECommerce applications naturally use different content standards (for example, the mentioned earlier UNSPSC standard is primarily targeted at vendor's needs, while the ecl@ss standard largely represents buyer's needs). Therefore, different content standards need to be aligned and mapped in a scalable and efficient way [Fensel, 2001].

Mapping the content standards by specifying pairs of equivalent categories is not always possible due to different principles used to aggregate the products into categories of the same abstraction level. For this reason, for example, mapping UNSPSC to ecl@ss includes creation many-to-many bridges regrouping the products to categories.

From another side there are prominent examples of aligning specific content standards to more generic ones. These mappings are manually created and verified, and sometimes have normative status. We can point to the UNSPSC crosswalk files linking it to NAICS and several other standards used for reporting and statistical purposes. Another example is mapping RosettaNet standard that specifies 445 categories and 2660 attributes for the electronic components to UNSPSC. Rosetta Net is quite specific in describing these components but it is also quite focused and does not cover the concepts left beyond the main focus. The mapping links only 136 UNSPSC elements out of more than 17,000, most of which belong to the bottom level in the UNSPSC hierarchy and thus expanding these 136 categories with all the Rosetta Net classes and attributes. The specific standards are very precise in describing the items they are focused. The same time they are even shallower than the generic standards in describing the things, which lay beyond their focus.

Essentially the content standards can be seen as lightweight ontologies containing hierarchies of classes with (possibly) several attributes attached to each class. They still have quite limited expressiveness to be regarded as logical theories and thus form a simple playground for ontology mapping and integration techniques. There exist several approaches for representing the maps between different ontologies ranging from UML-based representations like CWM [CWM, 2001] to those based on mapping ontologies represented in RDF Schema like RDFT [Omelayenko, 2002(b)] or MAFRA [Maedche et al., 2002]. However, the standards represent a little of formal semantics with no explicitly represented axioms nor formal relations. As a result it is difficult to perform inference over the standard and maps between them, as well as to specify formal interpretation of the maps. The categories are mainly interpreted in terms of product

```
:- export([ l_triple/3, o_triple/3, namespace_def/2 ]).
namespace_def('rdf', 'http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#').
namespace_def('rdfs', 'http://www.w3.org/TR/1999/PR-rdf-schema-19990303#').
namespace_def('rdfit', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#').
namespace_def('myns', 'http://cs.vu.nl/~borys/mediator#').
o_triple('Bridge_001', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#SourceClass', 'Role_002').
o_triple('Bridge_001', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#SourceClass', 'Role_003').
o_triple('Bridge_001', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#TargetClass', 'Role_001').
o_triple('Bridge_001', 'http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#type',
        'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#Class2Class').
o_triple('Role_001', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#Class', 'http://cs.vu.nl/~borys/mediator#Requestor').
o_triple('Role_001', 'http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#type', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#Roles').
o_triple('Role_002', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#Class', ext:).
o_triple('Role_002', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#Property', 'OAGI004#at_000_value').
o_triple('Role_002', 'http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#type', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#Roles').
o_triple('Role_003', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#Class', ext:).
o_triple('Role_003', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#Property', 'OAGI004#at_001_value').
o_triple('Role_003', 'http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#type', 'http://www.cs.vu.nl/~borys/RDFT#Roles').
```

Fig. 2 RDFT Map in Prolog.

descriptions being classified to each specific category, and the categories possess mostly extensional information and are interpreted in terms of instance data. Hence, any formal way of mapping the standards should be augmented with instance processing techniques linking the maps to actual product descriptions. A case study described in [Omelayenko, 2002(a)] presents a use of two Naïve-Bayes classifiers trained on two datasets that employs instance information for this problem.

To summarize, manual mapping of content standards is possible in some cases leaving quite a demand for automated mapping techniques. The categories are primarily interpreted in terms of instance product descriptions; the standards are lacking formal relations and axioms, and as a result ontology-based mapping approaches should be improved by machine learning algorithms.

4 Dynamics: Versioning of Standards

The dynamic and open character of eCommerce requires that classification standards, as described in Section 2, are extended or adapted when new products or services arise. However, this gives new problems: how to manage classification hierarchies that change over time, in such a way that the old and new versions can be used intermixed. If no special arrangements are taken, the evolution of standards might cause operability problems, which will seriously hamper eCommerce applications. Solutions are required to allow changes to classification standards without making their present use invalid. In this section, we will first look at what typical changes in the UNSPSC classification system. Then, we will describe requirements for a change management system, and describe some methods and tools for versioning of ontologies.

4.1 Changes in UNSPSC

The high change rate of the classification hierarchies and the way in which those changes are handled is a serious threat for electronic commerce. For example, when we take a look at UNSPSC, we see the following:

- there were 16 updates between 31 January 2001 and 14 September 2001;
- each update contained between 50 and 600 changes;
- in 7,5 month, more than 20% of the current standard is changed!

Although some parts of the UNSPSC schema might be more stable than other parts, it is clear that this amount of changes cannot be ignored. Such a high change rate can quickly invalidate a lot of the actual classifications of products. For example, the product “Binding elements” in version 8.0 is removed from the standard and three new products are added in version 8.1 (“Binding spines or snaps”, “Binding coils or wire loops”, and “Binding combs or strips”). This means that all products that were classified as “Binding elements” are unclassified under the new version. This is a serious problem because of the high costs for producing the right classifications for products. Moreover, if companies use local extensions of the standard, they have to adapt these extensions to new versions, too. A versioning mechanism that allows partly automatic transformation of data between content standard versions is essential.

An effective versioning methodology should take care of the different types of changes in ontologies, as those might have different effects on the compatibility of data

that is described by them [Klein & Fensel, 2001]. An analysis of differences between several version of content standards has yielded the following list of typical changes: class-title changes, additions of classes, relocations of classes in the hierarchy (by moving them up or down in the hierarchy, or horizontally), relocations of a whole subtree in the hierarchy, merges of two classes (in two variants: two classes become one new class, or one class is appended to the other class), splits of a classes, and pure deletions. However, current versioning techniques for content standards are often quite simple. In UNSPSC, for example, all changes are encoded as either additions, deletions or edits (title changes). This means that the relocation of a subtree is specified as a sequence of “delete a list of classes” and “add a list of classes”.

4.2 Requirements for content standard versioning

The need to cope with changing data structures is not new in computer science. Much of the research in database technology has focused on the topic of database schema evolution. However, while there are quite a few similarities between ontology versioning and database schema evolution, there are also many differences. For a detailed discussion, see: [Noy & Klein, 2002]. An important difference is the fact that with ontologies, the distinction between data and schema is not as clear as it is in databases. Ontologies themselves - and not just the data - are often used in applications, e.g. as controlled vocabularies, or navigation structures. The UNSPSC standard, for example, might be used in an application to structure the website of sales company. In addition, ontologies are even more distributed by nature than are databases. Often with distributed databases, we have a clear picture of the locations where changes might have effect. With content standards like UNSPSC, however, the author of the ontology has absolutely no clue as to which applications use the ontology. It is not possible to synchronize changes with all users.

Due to these differences, the traditional distinctions [Roddick, 1995] between evolution (new schemas that are backward compatible) and versioning (multiple views of the data via different versions), and between reading and updating compatibility are not very relevant to ontology versioning. Changes to ontologies will occur and some are likely to cause incompatibilities. Versioning methodologies for ontologies cannot, therefore guarantee prevention of any information loss. However, it should make the effects of changes explicit. The management of changes is thus the key issue in support for evolving ontologies.

The mechanisms and techniques to manage those changes to ontologies should aim at achieving maximal interoperability with existing data and applications. This means that it should retain as much information and knowledge as possible, without deriving incorrect information. This methodology should feature the following:

- an **identification mechanism**: for every use of a concept or a relation, a versioning framework should provide an unambiguous reference to the intended definition;
- a **change specification mechanism**: the relation of one version of a concept or relation to other versions of that construct should be made explicit, both by specifying the ontological relation (e.g. subclass of) and the intention of the change (e.g. replacement);
- **transparent access**: methods for rendering a valid interpretation to as much data

as possible, i.e. automatically translating and relating the versions and data sources to the maximum possible extent.

Ontology comparisons techniques can help companies to find and describe the differences between new versions of the standards and the old versions that were used to classify data. Descriptions of the semantics of discovered changes can facilitate the transformation of data classification. For example, in the most trivial case it can specify that a new version is a combination of two other classes; all products that were classified under the old classes can then be classified under the new class. More complicated specifications of the logical consequences, possibly with approximations, will further decrease the negative effects of the evolution of content standards.

4.3 Tools for ontology versioning

OntoView [Klein et al., 2002] is a change management tool for ontologies. The main function of OntoView is to provide a transparent interface to arbitrary versions of ontologies. To achieve this, it maintains an internal specification of the relation between the different variants of ontologies. This specification consists of three aspects: the meta-data about changes (author, date, time etc.), the conceptual relations between versions of definitions in the ontologies, and the transformations between them. This specification is partly derived from the versions of ontologies themselves, but also uses additional human input about the meta-data and the conceptual effects of changes.

To help the user to specify this information, OntoView provides the utility to compare versions of ontologies and highlight the differences. This helps in finding changes in ontologies, even if those have occurred in an uncontrolled way, i.e., possibly by different people in an unknown order. The comparison function is inspired by UNIX diff, but the implementation is quite different. Standard diff compares file version at line-level, highlighting the lines that textually differ in two versions. OntoView, in contrast, compares version of ontologies at a structural level, showing which definitions of ontological concepts or properties are changed.

- The comparison function distinguishes between the following types of change:
- Non-logical change, e.g. in a natural language description. This are changes in the label of an concept or property, or in comment inside definitions.
- Logical definition change. This are changes in the definition of a concept that affects its formal semantics. Examples of such changes are alterations of subclass statements, or changes in the domain or range of properties. Additions or deletions of local property restrictions in a class are also logical changes.
- Identifier change. This is the case when a concept or property is given a new identifier, i.e. a renaming.
- Addition of definitions.
- Deletion of definitions.

Each type of change is highlighted in a different color, and the actually changed lines are printed in boldface. An example of the visual representation of the result of a comparison is shown in Figure 3. For this picture, a subset of the two versions of the UNSPSC classification was used, i.e. segment 40 till 49 of UNSPSC version 8.0 and 8.4. The figure shows two classes that are added to the new version, two that are moved

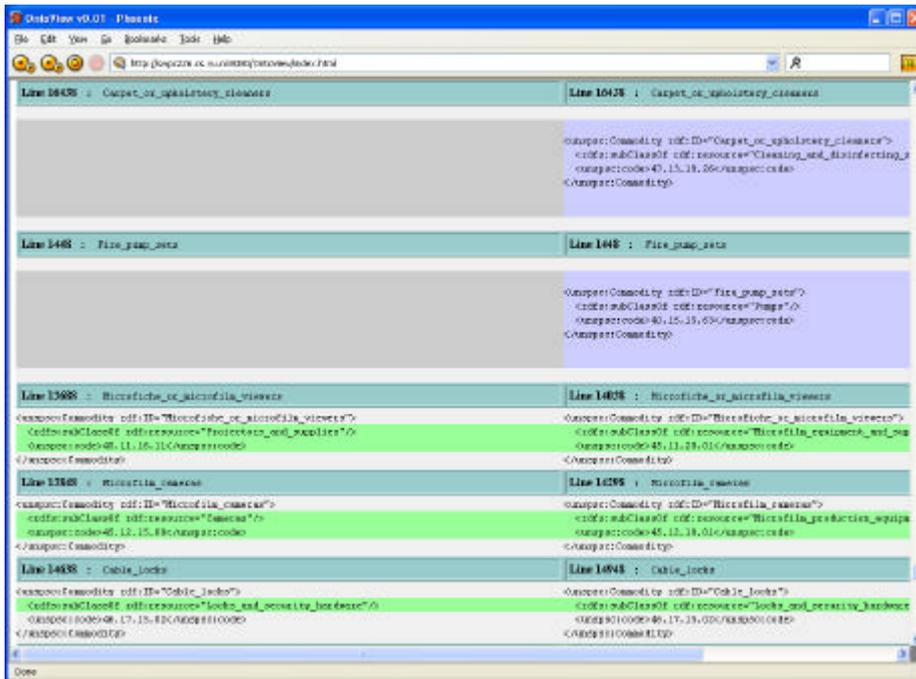


Fig. 3 The result of a comparison of two version of the UNSPSC hierarchy in OntoView.

in the hierarchy (with another superclass and a different code), and one of which the superclass has changed.

The comparison function also allows the user to characterize the conceptual implication of the changes. For the first three types of changes, the user is given the option to label them either as “identical” (i.e., the change is an explication change), or as “conceptual change”. In the latter case, the user can specify the conceptual relation between the two versions of the concept, for example, by stating that the property “*Stamp_pads*” in version 8.4 is a subset of “*Ink_or_stamp_pads*” in version 8.0.

Another function is the possibility to analysis effects of changes. Changes in ontologies do not only affect the data and applications that use them, but they can also have unintended, unexpected and unforeseeable consequences in the ontology itself. The system provides some basic support for the analysis of these effects. First, on request it can also highlight the places in the ontology where conceptually changed concepts or properties are used. For example, if a property “*hasChild*” is changed, it will highlight the definition of the class “*Mother*”, which uses the property “*hasChild*”. This function can also exploit the transitivity of properties to show the propagation of possible changes through the ontology. A foreseen second effect analysis feature is the connection to FaCT, which allows checking the formal consistency of the suggested conceptual relations between different versions of definitions.

When an ontology does not have persistent identifiers for concepts, there is another

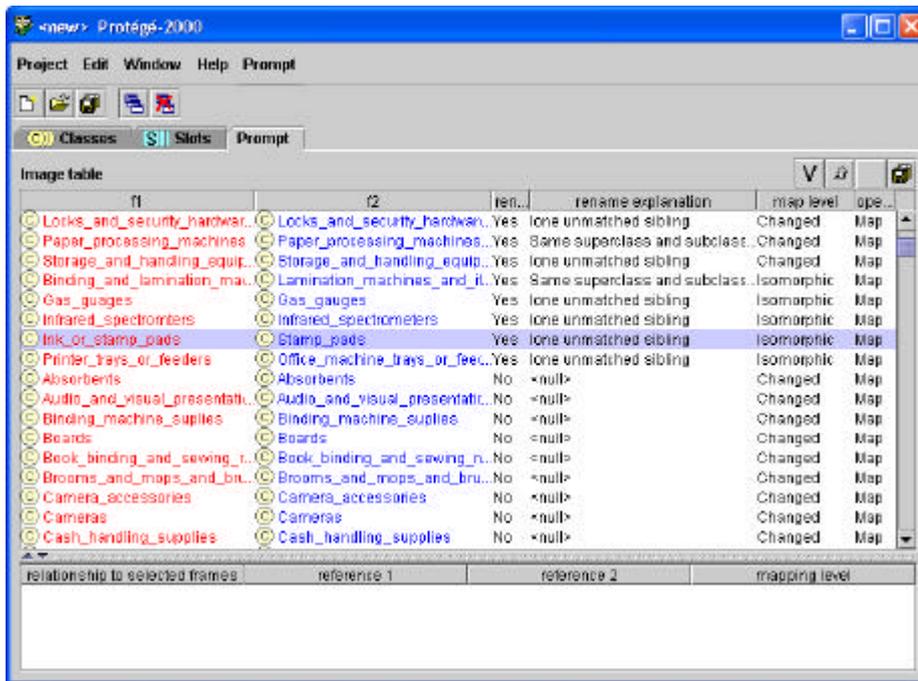


Fig. 4 The result of a comparison of two version of the UNSPSC hierarchy in PromptDiff.

task involved in comparing two versions: finding the mappings between concepts in the two versions. This task is closely related to the task of ontology alignment in general. PromptDiff [Noy & Musen, 2002] is a tool that integrates different heuristics for comparing ontology versions. PromptDiff use heuristics that are similar to the ones that are used to provide suggestions for ontology merging in Prompt [Noy & Musen, 2000]. Figure 4 shows the differences that are detected between version 8.0 and 8.4 of the UNSPSC classification (ignoring the persistent EGCI code). The tool lists the concept names in the two versions, whether their name is changed (and the reason behind this conclusion) and whether the structure is changed.

5 Grounding of Standards

eCommerce is about buying and selling actual products and services. These goods need to be classified and described in terms of standardized categorizations for reasons of reporting and searching. In this section, we portray the prototype of automatic classification of product description on B2B market place (called GoldenBullet) so as to realize a semi-automatic way to populate Ontologies in eCommerce.

5.1 GoldenBullet: Automatic classification of product description

Finding the right place for a product description in a standard classification system such as UNSPSC is not at all a trivial task. Each product must be mapped to the

corresponding product category in UNSPSC to create the product catalog. Product classification schemes contain huge number of categories with far from sufficient definitions (e.g. over 15,000 classes for UNSPSC) and millions of products must be classified according to them. This requires tremendous labor effort and the product classification stage takes altogether up to 25% of the time spent for content management [Fensel et al., 2002(a)].

GoldenBullet is a software environment targeted to support product classification according to certain content standards. It is currently designed to automatically classify the products based on their original descriptions and existent classification standards (such as UNSPSC). It integrates different classification algorithms from the information retrieval and machine learning, and some natural language processing techniques to pre-process data and index UNSPSC so as to improve the classification accuracy. The system helps to mechanize an important and labor-intensive task of content management for B2B E-commerce.

We will first mention the main components of it. A *wrapper factory* gathers various wrappers to convert raw data description from external formats (Database, Excel, XML-like, formatted plain text,...) into internal formats, and furthermore to convert final results to preferable output formats (Database, Excel, XML-like, plain text,...) or user-designed formats. No matter how the data are imported manually or automatically, before they are passed to be pre-processed, they are *validated* by the GoldenBullet data validator. Basic validation is checked, for instance, a description is too long or too short, or the Product ID is missing or incorrect. The validated product data will be pre-processed before the automatic classification has been performed. Some of the *Natural Language Processing* algorithms have been implemented into GoldenBullet. The product data will be stemmed (grouping different words with the same stems) and tagged (extracting noun-phrases). Furthermore, UNSPSC is also being pre-processed (stemmed and tagged) to make sure that noisy words or information have been screened out. A stop word list has been generated, updated and extended during the whole process. The *learning algorithm* has been embedded in GoldenBullet, therefore the learned classification rules and instances during either online or offline learning procedure are stored in the system to enrich UNSPSC and classification rule base. So the loop of the entire system has been formed and the system can be self-improved. The more data it processes, the more intelligence it gains. Currently, GoldenBullet can handle English and French product data.

The essence of GoldenBullet is its ability to automatically classify product descriptions. Basically this requires two important properties: (1) Intelligence in classification: We implemented and evaluated various classification strategies; (2) Knowledge in the domain: We acquired and used ten thousands of manually classified product data to learn from it. To satisfy the above two requirements, the following algorithms have been implemented in GoldenBullet:

- The standard Vector space model (VSM, [Salton et al., 1975]) has been applied here to represent document (in our case product description) and existing categories (e.g. in our case UNSPSC). Then the category (UNSPSC) can be assigned to a document (product) when the cosine similarity between them exceeds a certain threshold.

- Another algorithm we implemented here is based on the k-Nearest Neighbor method (KNN). The algorithm uses the set of pre-classified examples directly to classify an example, passes the whole set of training examples, searches for the most similar one, and then assigns the class to the new example which equals to the class of the most similar one.
- We also employed Naïve-Bayes classifier (NB, [Mitchell, 1997]) to learn and train our pre-classified data and ten thousands of manually classified product data from the vendors

VSM is adopted by us to find the match between UNSPSC commodities and product descriptions. We have implemented two strategies. Both treat an unclassified product description as a query, however, differ in what they use as a document collection:

- The first takes each commodity as a document. The examples are used to enrich the commodity description. Basically we extract words from pre-classified product data and add them to the word list describing the commodity.
- The second takes each pre-classified product description as a document. We use VSM to retrieve the instance fitting best to a newly product description and infer the UNSPSC code of the latter from the known UNSPSC code of the former.

Content management has to structure, classify, re-classify, and personalize large volumes of data to make product descriptions automatically accessible via B2B market places. GoldenBullet applies the information retrieval and machine learning metaphor to the problem of automatically classifying product description according to the existent product classification standards. Furthermore, GoldenBullet will challenge other existing severe problems in B2B marketplace, such as mapping and reclassifying product descriptions according to different product classification standards; personalizing the marketplace view to divergent customers; and offering flexible input and output services.

6 Conclusions

No technology can be survive without convincing application areas. However, the reader should also be aware about the time span of innovation. For example, it took the Internet 30 years before it was hidden by its killer application, the World Wide Web. Lets hope we need less than a generation for the next killer. Ontology technology has promising potential in areas such as knowledge management, Enterprise-Application Integration, and eCommerce.

eCommerce in business to business (B2B) is not a new phenomenon, however, internet-based electronic commerce provides a much higher level of *openness*, *flexibility* and *dynamics* that will help to optimize business relationships. This type of eCommerce technology may change the way business relationships are established and performed. In a nutshell, web-enabled eCommerce helps its users to contact a large number of potential clients without running into the problem of implementing a large number of communication channels. This enables virtual enterprises that are form in reaction to demands from the market and vica versa it enables to brake large enterprises up into smaller pieces that mediate their eWork relationship based on eCommerce relationships. In consequence, flexible and open eCommerce has to deal with serious

problems (cf. [Fensel et al., 2002(a)]).

- 1) **Openness** of eCommerce cannot be achieved without standardization. Such a lesson can be learnt from the success of the web, however, the requirements on standardization are much higher here. We also require standardization of the actual content that is exchanged which goes far beyond the requirement of standardizing protocols and document layouts, i.e., we require Ontologies.
- 2) **Flexibility** of eCommerce cannot be achieved without multi-standard approaches. It is neither likely that there will arise a standard that covers all aspect of eCommerce that is acceptable for all vertical markets and cultural contexts nor would such a standard free us from the need to provide user-specific views on it and the content it represents.
- 3) **Dynamic** of eCommerce requires standards that act as living entities. Products, services, and trading modes are subject of high change rates. An electronic trading device must reflect the dynamic nature of the process it is supposed to support.

Given these requirements there is only Ontology technology out there that can promise to provide at least a partial solution.

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