RESLVE: Leveraging User Interest to Improve Entity Disambiguation on Short Text

Elizabeth L. Murnane
Cornell University
Information Science
elm236@cornell.edu

Bernhard Haslhofer
Cornell University
Information Science
bh392@cornell.edu

Carl Lagoze
University of Michigan
School of Information
clagoze@umich.edu

ABSTRACT

We address the Named Entity Disambiguation (NED) problem for short, user-generated texts on the social Web. In such settings, the lack of linguistic features and sparse lexical context result in a high degree of ambiguity and sharp performance drops of nearly 50% in the accuracy of conventional NED systems. We handle these challenges by developing a model of user-interest with respect to a personal knowledge context; and Wikipedia, a particularly well-established and reliable knowledge base, is used to instantiate the procedure. We conduct systematic evaluations using individuals' posts from Twitter, YouTube, and Flickr and demonstrate that our novel technique is able to achieve substantial performance gains beyond state-of-the-art NED methods.

Categories and Subject Descriptors

H.3.3 [**Information Storage and Retrieval**]: Information Search and Retrieval; I.2.7 [**Artificial Intelligence**]: Natural Language Processing

General Terms

Algorithms, Design, Experimentation, Human Factors

Keywords

Entity Resolution; Social Web; Semantic Knowledge Graph; User Interest Modeling; Personalized IR

1. INTRODUCTION

Named Entity Recognition (NER) refers to the systematic process of identifying mentions of *entities* such as people, places, concepts, or ideas in unstructured text. The Named Entity Disambiguation (NED) problem arises when an entity has multiple *candidate* meanings, and it is particularly challenging when texts are short, linguistic features are unreliable, and local lexical context is sparse. This kind of scenario is epitomized by the highly individualized text-based utterances found in online social media platforms, where the amount of such content is continually expanding and the need to extract information and knowledge from it grows.

The following examples illustrate the difficulty in determining the unique, intended sense of an ambiguous entity.

A tweet, posted on Twitter, the fastest growing micro-blogging service, where the amount of tweets produced in a day is equivalent to a 10 million page book[1]:

> *aaahh one more day until* **finn!!!** *#cantwait*

A video title posted on YouTube, a video sharing website with over 800 million visitors each month[2]:

> *the* **office** *holiday party*

A photo tag on Flickr, which hosts over 7 billion images, a figure nearly double the amount from just 4 years ago[3]:

> ***Beetle***

According to their corresponding Wikipedia Disambiguation pages, these entities have dozens of candidate meanings. For instance, "finn" is both a popular TV character or a travel destination; "office" might refer to the concept of a workplace, an American television show, or a British television show; and "Beetle" could mean the animal, one of several vehicle models, a botanist, or a simple dice game.

In each of these cases, the lexical context in which the ambiguous entity is contained does not help to definitively determine the user's intended meaning or is absent completely. Attempting to utilize prior tweets, videos, or photos posted by the user in the same social Web platform as a source of background knowledge is not an effective approach either, both because users do not generally post a large enough volume and because the ambiguity in those posts is often equally as high, offering no informative context [26].

Thus even though NED is a well-established problem with much extant research devoted to it, this short text written on social media is fundamentally different than the long and formal text on which traditional approaches are trained [13]; and consequently, unique identification of entity concepts is severely degraded for even state-of-the-art conventional methods [24]. For instance, the F1 score of the Stanford NER, which is trained on the CoNLL-03[4] news article dataset, drops from over 90% to just under 46% when applied to a Twitter dataset [21].

With researchers beginning to recognize this, the area of entity recognition within social media has begun to draw some recent attention. Several strategies use crowd-sourcing techniques for linking entities, but these methods require a large number of reliable human workers [9, 10]. Automated approaches to NER have emerged, but they also face limi-

---

[1] http://blog.twitter.com/2011/06/
[2] http://www.youtube.com/t/press_statistics
[3] http://blog.flickr.net/en
[4] http://www.cnts.ua.ac.be/conll2003

tations. Namely, most only handle entity extraction without addressing the disambiguation problem, and nearly all have only been trained to handle tweets, making it unclear whether results are generalizable to personal utterances outside of Twitter [8, 18, 21, 31].

Our work moves beyond these strategies and establishes individual-centric procedures to automatically disambiguate the short yet personally relevant text-based utterances a user makes on a variety of platforms. Our solution compensates for sparse lexical context with *personal context*, building a model of user interest from external structured semantic data. Essentially, we propose that an ambiguous entity's intended meaning is the candidate concept most similar to a user's core set of personal interests.

We introduce a novel system called RESLVE (**R**esolving **E**ntity **S**ense by **L**e**V**eraging **E**dits) that augments traditional disambiguation techniques by implementing this personalized approach. RESLVE relies on state-of-the-art services such as Wikipedia Miner [28] and DBPedia Spotlight [25] for extraction of entities and candidate meanings, and our improvements to the disambiguation phase can increase the overall effectiveness of such tools. The central contributions of this paper are:

- A model for representing user interest with respect to a knowledge base and its categorical organization scheme.

- A ranking technique that takes as input a user interest model along with an ambiguous entity's set of candidate topics and outputs with improved accuracy the topic most likely intended.

- An annotated dataset of disambiguated entities from Twitter, YouTube, and Flickr along with the results of an empirical evaluation of our system.

The dataset and system implementation are publicly available at `https://github.com/emurnane/RESLVE`.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the theoretical underpinnings of our approach to model user interest according to the text-based traces people leave on the Web. Section 3 details our implementation of the model as well as our ranking technique that measures the relevance of an ambiguous entity's candidate topics with respect to this model. Section 4 describes the experiment we performed to evaluate the method, offering insights and statistics about our datasets and details of data preparation. Section 5 presents results, comparing our performance to baseline methods and NED services and identifying cases of efficacy and error. Finally, Section 6 offers concluding remarks and directions for future research.

2. MODELING USER INTEREST

2.1 Intuitions and Illustrations

The underlying assumptions of our approach are that a user possesses a core set of interests, a user is more likely to mention an entity about a topic drawn from a domain of personal interest than from a domain of non-interest, and these interests can be formally modeled as a personal knowledge context. Thus by bridging user identity between social media (e.g., Twitter, YouTube, or Flickr) and a knowledge base (e.g., Wikipedia), we propose to resolve the intended meaning of ambiguous entities encountered in the former by leveraging the power of structured information relevant to personal interests available in the latter.

To aid understanding of these ideas, we present qualitative examples based on the Web traces of users in our dataset. Earlier, we gave an example of an ambiguous YouTube title: "*the **office** holiday party*". Without seeing the video, even a human is unable to determine from title alone whether the video contains footage of a workplace, TV episode, or some other office-related subject matter; and extra detail like "episode 4" still does not aid manual disambiguation between the US and UK shows. Inspecting the user's YouTube profile, we find other video titles mentioning this entity, such as "*the **office**, december 3*", but that information does not help in figuring out the meaning of the entity in question either. Examining the user's log of recent Wikipedia edits, however, allows us to resolve at once that the likely meaning is the US TV show: *<item userid=xx user=xx pageid=31841130 title=**The Office (U.S. season 8)**/>*

Next, a key assumption is that the interests expressed by a user on various Web platforms do not wander considerably among an incoherently diverse set of topics but rather are relatively consistent. To quantify this extent to which user interests overlap across platforms, we evaluate the coverage that Wikipedia categories[5] provide for topics mentioned in users' social Web utterances. We find that on average within our dataset, 54.2% of the entities a user mentions in social media (e.g., "Java") have one or more of their candidate meanings covered by a direct category of an article that same user edited on Wikipedia (e.g., "Programming_language"). Figure 1 provides an illustrative example of a representative user's overlap of topics mentioned on both Twitter and Wikipedia. Each circle represents a topic with size proportional to the number of times the user uttered or edited that topic; and topics are grouped according to their proximity in Wikipedia's category hierarchy. For instance, a majority of this user's tweets and edited articles deal with information technology concepts, frequently overlapping on topics of programming languages, internet browsers, and security vulnerabilities. In fact, of the 178 entities this user mentions in tweets, 74.7% of them have a candidate meaning belonging to a direct category of an article she contributed to in Wikipedia (i.e., a category 1 edge away in the category hierarchy), 90.4% belong to a category 2 edges away, 98.9% to a category 3 edges away, and all 100% of the entities mentioned in tweets are covered by moving only 4 edges up the category hierarchy starting at some article the user edited.
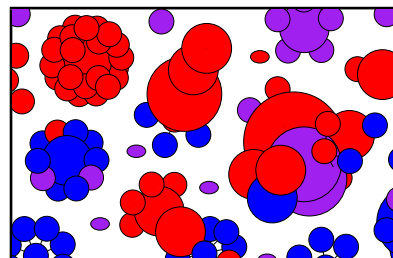

Figure 1: Example of the overlap in topics a user utters on Twitter (blue), on Wikipedia (purple), and on both platforms (red)

---

[5] `http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Special:Categories`

1276

We now buttress these intuitions by looking both to theory and validated experimental results from prior research.

2.2 Theoretical Motivations

Firstly, our work builds on social psychology theories that say a user possesses intrinsic interest in a key set of topics. Expressing these interests is personally fulfilling, motivating consumption and contribution of content about those topics to online communities [15, 17, 23], especially compared to random topics; for instance, people are more likely to read and respond to posts mentioning movies of personal interest than to random posts [11, 20]. In addition, prior research shows that a user's online contributions in social media and knowledge production communities are representative of that individual's main topics of interest, and this research further establishes that these interests can be modeled according to lexical features of her text-based contributions [5, 6, 29]. The next section describes how we represent user interest with respect to a general knowledge base.

2.3 Modeling a Knowledge Context

Put simply, a *knowledge base* is a semantic network used to organize entities, their types, and the relations among them. Modeling topics with respect to this structured information allows us to formally represent the topics in which a user is interested and the topics corresponding to an ambiguous entity's candidate meanings. In Section 3, we instantiate our devised model using Wikipedia.

We begin with some definitions. First, we define a knowledge base K as a directed graph $K = (N, E)$, consisting of sets of nodes N and edges E, as illustrated in Figure 2. We distinguish between two types of nodes:

Category nodes. $N_{Category} \subset N$ with each $c \in N_{Category}$ having a unique identifier $i \in I$ and a set of semantic relationships r with other nodes, so that $c = \{i, R\}$. As an example, a category Car has a $rel : broader$ relationship to category Vehicle, and both category Vehicle and category Elephant have $rel : broader$ relationships to category Thing.

Topic nodes. $N_{Topic} \subset N$ with each $t \in N_{Topic}$ also having a unique identifier $i \in I$, belonging to one or more categories, and carrying a textual description d so that $t = \{i, d, C\}$ with $C \subseteq N_{Category}$. For example, Volkswagen Beetle is a topic belonging to category Car and having an associated descriptive document, which in the case of Wikipedia could be the text on the Volkswagen Beetle article page.

With this definition of a knowledge graph in hand, we can build the interest model of a user u. To begin, we treat the user's text-based contributions to the description of a
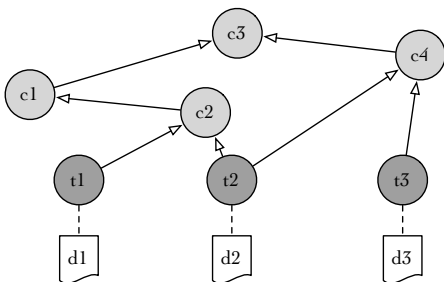
topic t as a signal of interest in that topic. For each such topic $t_i \in T_u$, where $T_u \subseteq N_{Topic}$ is the set of all topics a user has contributed to the description of, we construct a topic-interest graph rooted at node t_i and consisting of all categories $C_u \subseteq N_{Category}$ that are reachable from t_i by following outgoing edges to parent categories in the knowledge graph K. (Note that we represent a candidate meaning of an ambiguous entity in the same way; the only difference is that a candidate is associated with the single topic that captures its meaning, while the representation of a user contains each topic to which that user has contributed). Formally, we represent user interest I in topic t_i as:

$$I_{t_i} = (N_u, E_u), \text{ where } N_{u_i} = t_i \cup C_u \text{ and } E_{u_i} \subseteq E$$

We ensure each U_{t_i} is a bipartite graph by applying the following straightforward transformation. We initialize all edge weights in U_{t_i} to 1. Then, starting at node t_i, we traverse each outgoing edge $e_{(i,j)} = (n_i, n_j)$ until we encounter an edge between two categories, that is an edge where both $n_i, n_j \in C_u$, at which point we apply the transformation:

a. Compute $p =$ shortest path length between t_i and n_j

b. Remove the edge $e_{(i,j)}$ and replace it with an edge from t_i to n_j that has an edge weight equal to $\frac{1}{p}$. If such an edge $e_{(t_i,n_j)}$ already exists, assign it a new weight equal to the greater of its current weight and $\frac{1}{p}$. Thus the interest model of user u is simply an aggregated set of all topic-interest graphs built from each topic the user has shown direct or indirect interest in, formally defined as $u = \{I_{t_1}, I_{t_2}, \ldots, I_{t_n}\}$.

To summarize, we now have a consolidated user-interest graph consisting of all topic nodes a user has contributed to, connected to category nodes by edges weighted with a value $w, 0 < w \leq 1$. As this aggregation of multiple topic-interest graphs may result in a graph with duplicate categories, we can eliminate duplicates by simply first removing any category node c' having the same identifier as another category c in the graph and then taking any edge originally between a topic and c' and redrawing it to c instead. To illustrate this process, let a user's set of contributions correspond to $\{t_1, t_2, t_3\}$ as shown in Figure 2. Applying the steps to transform the graph into a bipartite graph and removing duplicate category nodes results in Figure 3.

It is also possible at this point to represent the user interest graph as a topic-category matrix, which is the analogue of a term-document matrix that represents documents in a vector space model. Figure 4 illustrates such a matrix built from the topic-interest graph shown in Figure 3. Each row corresponds to a vector for topic t_i, each column corresponds to a category $c \in C_u$, and each topic-category entry equals the weight of the edge between those two nodes in the user's interest graph or 0 if no such edge exists.

Having provided a walkthrough of our theoretical motivations and a method for constructing a model of user interest,

Figure 2: Knowledge graph of categories, topics, and descriptions
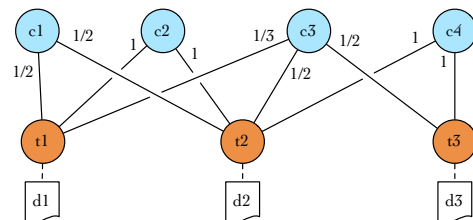

Figure 3: User topic-interest graph

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1 & 1/3 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1 & 1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Figure 4: Edge-weight matrix of user interest graph

we next describe the full details of our implemented system. We could instantiate our model on any knowledge base with the above structure such as Wikipedia, DBPedia, and Freebase, which are all high coverage knowledge bases employed as sources of entity and concept representations for Twitter [16], YouTube [2], and Flickr [32]. For this paper, we implement on Wikipedia for reasons described in Section 3.1.

3. THE RESLVE SYSTEM

To determine the intended meaning of an ambiguous entity detected in a user's short text, we compute the relevance of each candidate topic to which an entity could refer to the user's interest model, which is based on the topics that user contributed to in a knowledge base, for example Wikipedia.

3.1 Wikipedia as a Knowledge Context

Wikipedia is both popular and powerful, capable of facilitating entity recognition, linking, and disambiguation [3, 7, 24, 27, 28]. For this paper, we implement our model using Wikipedia both because it has been well established as a rich source of external information and because it offers additional advantages particularly relevant for our task.

First, Wikipedia has been shown effective in modeling user interests since editing behavior on the site serves as an indicator of interest and because the site's organizational structure provides a way to formally represent those interests. Specifically, Wikipedia editors seek out articles about topics of personal interest, revision histories catalog these topics along with valuable metadata, and resources like article pages and category graphs effectively represent the topics [6, 19, 33, 34, 36]. In addition, research analyzing social media shows that users frequently mention topics of personal interest in tweets and that Wikipedia's category structure can be used to represent those topics [26]. Also, Wikipedia provides broad coverage of domain-independent named entity concepts and rare word senses [18, 37], which is key given the diversity of topics users talk about on the social Web.

Finally, article-editing behavior lends itself well to formulating the strength of a user's interest in a given topic. Table 1 summarizes contribution characteristics that are in-

Table 1: Editing behaviors indicative of user interest

Editing Behavior	Intuition
Number of times user edits article	Repeated editing implies greater investment and interest
Type of edit	Trivial edits (see Table 2) are weaker signal of interest
Article's global edit activity and number of editors	Generally popular articles are less discriminative of individual interest and personal relevance
Editing time span	Long-term interests are stronger than fleeting ones
Edit quality w.r.t. Info. Qual. metrics	Substantiveness and quality indicate concern in topic

Table 2: Edits and text that are not concept-bearing

Edits Ignored:	Patterns Cleaned:
• Trivial (typo fixes, vandalism reverts)	• Stopwords, punct. removed
• Articles with under 100 non-stopwords	• Article maintenance info in Wiki Markup removed
	• Stem, tokenize, lowercase

dicative of interest and can be incorporated into a weighting formula, along with underlying intuitions as to why such behavior is meaningful. For this experiment, we factor in only the number of edits and the edit type.

Some work that Wikipedia users perform, however, is not indicative of personal interest [6] and is therefore filtered out when constructing the interest model. The left column of Table 2 summarizes such irrelevant edits, and the table's right column lists the further processing we perform to clean all article text.

To reiterate, our approach simply takes each Wikipedia article a user has made non-trivial contributions to and constructs an interest model according to the specification described in Section 2.3. That is, we treat articles as the **topics** comprising N_{Topic}, use Wikipedia "Category:" resources to represent the **categories** in $N_{Category}$, and consider the text content on an article page to be that topic's unique **description**.

We now move on to describe the modules in our system framework, RESLVE, that addresses the disambiguation problem by (I) connecting a user's social Web identity and Wikipedia editor identity, (II) modeling that user's personal interests using her articles edited on Wikipedia, and (III) ranking entity candidates by measuring how similar each candidate's associated topic is to the most salient topics in the user's interest model. Throughout our discussion, we refer to Figure 5, which illustrates each of those phases.

3.2 Phase I: Bridging Web Identities

The first step is bridging the user's social Web identity with that same user's identity in the context of a knowledge base. Given an ambiguous text on social media, we detect the Wikipedia account that belongs to the same person to leverage its record of contributions as structured personal context that can be used to formally model interests. Our current approach is simple string matching of account usernames since prior research demonstrates feasibility [14, 30]. See Section 4 for validation of the technique.

3.3 Phase II: Representing Users and Entities

RESLVE next ranks an ambiguous entity's candidate topics by measuring how relevant each one is to the user's interest model built from the bridged account. RESLVE takes advantage of both a topic's description (Section 3.3.1) as well as its semantic relationships in the knowledge-graph (Section 3.3.2) in order to get an overall measure of relatedness (Section 3.4) between the user's interests and each candidate meaning. We represent the user u and the candidate meaning m as weighted vectors in order to use classic information-retrieval techniques to measure their similarity.

3.3.1 Content-Based Similarity

To measure content-based similarity, we use a bag-of-words approach, building both for u and for m a TF-IDF weighted term vector from the titles of the articles a user has edited,
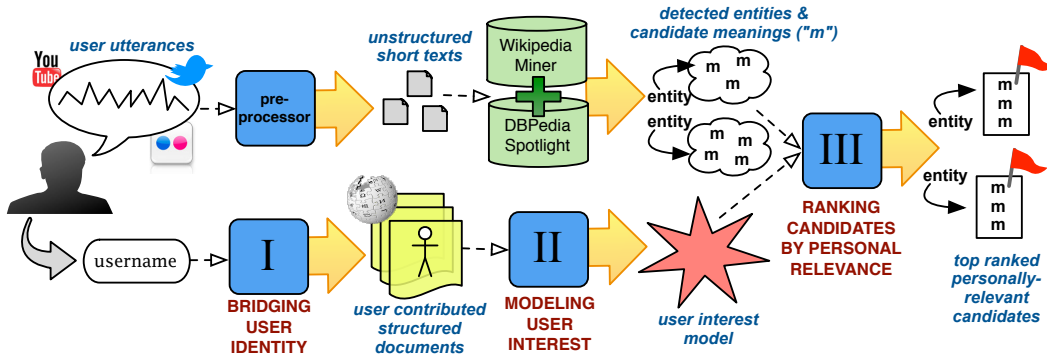
Figure 5: The RESLVE system performs disambiguation by (I) connecting a user's social web identity and Wikipedia editor identity, (II) modeling personal interests in terms of topics associated with the articles the user edited on Wikipedia, and (III) ranking entity candidates by measuring how similar each candidate's topic is to the user's interest model

the candidate's article title, the tokenized words from all those articles' pages, and the titles of those articles' categories. $sim_{content}$ is the cosine-similarity measurement between the user vector $V_{content,u}$ and the candidate meaning vector $V_{content,m}$. Given a total of γ terms extracted from articles' titles, descriptions, and categories, we have:

$$V_{content,u} = \{tfidf(u,t_1),\ldots,tfidf(u,t_\gamma)\}$$
$$V_{content,m} = \{tfidf(m,t_1),\ldots,tfidf(m,t_\gamma)\}$$
$$sim_{content}(u,m) = cossim(V_{content,u},V_{content,m})$$

3.3.2 Knowledge-Context Based Similarity

To measure relevance based on semantic relationships from the knowledge graph, we build vectors now using articles' category IDs. $V_{category} = \{w_{graph}(category_i) \mid category_i \in (C_u \cup C_m), C_u, C_m \subseteq N\}$, where each $category_i$ is a category with an edge to an interest topic or a candidate topic. To consider not only occurrence but position of a category in the knowledge graph, the function w_{graph} measures a category's "semantic relevance" to a topic, denoted $dist(c)$, as the edge weight between the topic and category (the shortest path length as explained in Section 2.3). This scheme assigns more weight to a close and directly relevant category of a topic such as "American Television Series" than to a category far away and too general such as "Broadcasting". We also do factor in the occurrence of a category, denoted $freq(c)$, which is the number of user- or candidate-relevant articles the category has an edge with in the knowledge graph. For a candidate, this value is either 0 or 1 depending on whether the category is present or absent in the hierarchy of categories originating from the candidate's corresponding article. Formally the weighting formula is defined as:

$$w_{graph}(c_i,u) = \begin{cases} dist(c_i)*freq(c_i), & c_i \in C_u \\ 0 & c_i \notin C_u \end{cases}$$
$$w_{graph}(c_i,m) = \begin{cases} dist(c_i)*freq(c_i), & c_i \in C_m \\ 0 & c_i \notin C_m \end{cases}$$
$$\text{where } C_u, C_m \subseteq N$$

The semantic relevance between u and m is then:

$$sim_{category}(u,m) = cossim(V_{category,u},V_{category,m})$$

3.4 Phase III: Ranking by Personal Relevance

All candidate meanings for an ambiguous entity are scored using the composite formula $sim(u,m) = \alpha*sim_{content}(u,m) + (1-\alpha)*sim_{category}(u,m)$ where α is a weighting pa-

rameter determined experimentally. RESLVE outputs the highest scoring candidate as the user's intended meaning.

Given that Wikipedia has millions of articles and hundreds of thousands of categories, it is necessary to avoid vector dimensionalities that make computation impractical. For the future we will explore a pruning strategy that requires new vector components to meet a "relatedness" threshold to the current vector in addition to using standard strategies that remove very high and low frequency terms.

4. EXPERIMENTS

4.1 Data Collection and Preparation

We collected tweets posted on Twitter, videos posted on YouTube, and photos posted on Flickr. After eliminating users whose content was not written in English and the accounts that had since been deleted or had public permissions removed, the remaining usernames were fed to the identity module (Module I in Figure 5), which output usernames that existed on Wikipedia too. We then employed annotators to confirm each bridged account belonged to one individual person in order to both assess the effectiveness of our string-matching approach (see Section 3.2) and to ensure that the accounts used in the experiment were not false positives that would pollute results. Section 5.4.2 summarizes the annotator judgments in Table 8 and offers solutions to overcome any low username-reuse encountered.

Next, guided by thresholds used in recent research [12, 22, 38], accounts with less than 100 social Web utterances or 100 lifetime Wikipedia edits were removed as inactive. We downloaded the remaining users' most recent 100 short text utterances on each social Web platform - specifically, their tweets, YouTube video titles and descriptions, and Flickr photo tags, titles, and descriptions. We also collected the ID, title, page content, and categories for every article the user edited on Wikipedia in order to build a comprehensive personal context. We did not consider interest drift here, but we have future plans to investigate whether temporal attributes of a user's utterances and edits affect the observable interest overlap.

We passed the short texts to the pre-processing module of Figure 5 to be cleaned and filtered in the ways listed in Table 3. RESLVE then extracted entities from the short texts using Wikipedia Miner and DBPedia Spotlight with

Table 3: Short text pre-processing and normalization

Tweets:	• Normalize @name to MENTION • Remove RT (retweet) tag • Remove leading "#" but keep hash tag's target concept if English word
YouTube, Flickr:	• Bypass auto-generated file names like IMG_336.jpg or MOV_02.AVI • Remove file type suffix, e.g. ".png", but leave file name if an English word • Ignore auto-generated tags, e.g., "hidden:filter=Boost" machine-tag on Flickr
All utterances:	• Remove URLs • Remove non-English

Figure 6: Freq (y) of chars (x) in various corpora

disambiguation threshold parameters set to 0 in order to retrieve all potential candidate meanings. The filters in Table 4 removed invalid entities, and we gave the remaining 1545 valid entities to Mechanical Turkers tasked with labeling whether each candidate provided by the NER services was the correct meaning or not. Three different annotators labeled each candidate, and we required workers to be Categorization Masters[6] or have at least 95% approved hits in prior tasks. We removed entities for which Turkers did not unanimously select a correct sense, leaving 918 labeled ambiguous entities. In the final step, ambiguous entities were passed to module III (see Figure 5), which ranks candidates according to their similarity with the user interest model and outputs the most likely intended meaning. We give descriptive statistics about the texts and entities in Section 4.2, and we present RESLVE's ranking precision in Section 5.

4.2 Dataset Characteristics

Here we report on interesting attributes and general trends found in our dataset. Figure 6 shows the distributions of text length (number of characters) for utterances on Twitter, YouTube, and Flickr as well as for content in Reuters-21578[7] and Brown-Corpus[8] collections. The last two are corpora on which standard NED tools are trained and tested. Apparent is the very short nature of social Web posts, especially photo tags, photo titles, and video titles; and the longest texts a user writes on the social Web are still generally shorter than even the shortest texts from traditional NER task corpora. The character limits imposed on these social platforms also stand out as peaks in the graph. Tweets can be at most 140 characters; Flickr has a 500-character limit; and YouTube

Table 4: Filters applied to entities

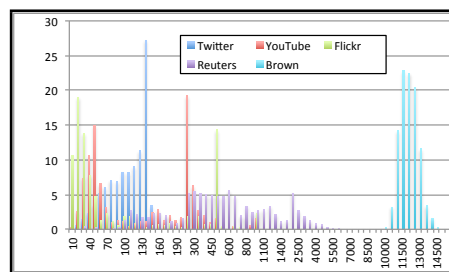| Language based:	• Non-English • Single characters and parse errors
Entity based:	• Non-entities, i.e., detected terms that are not a Noun class (NN, NNS, NNP, NP) or Named Entity class (e.g., location, person, organization) according to named entity corpora IEER, ACE, or CoNLL • Non-ambiguous entities (0 or 1 meaning)

[6]https://www.mturk.com/mturk/help?helpPage=worker
[7]http://kdd.ics.uci.edu/databases/reuters21578/reuters21578.html
[8]http://www.hit.uib.no/icame/brown/bcm.html

allows 1000 characters for video descriptions but only 250 show in a preview area, so users' self-limiting causes a noticeable peak there.

Furthermore, we see the occurrence of entities with multiple meanings is high. Table 5 summarizes the proportions of tweets, titles, descriptions, and tags that contain at least one ambiguous entity as well as the percentage of detected entities that are ambiguous. Across all 3 social Web sites, 91% of users' content contain one or multiple ambiguous entities; nearly two-thirds of all detected entities on these sites are ambiguous; and very few entity-containing short texts contain only non-ambiguous entities.

Table 5: Ambiguity on social Web. (a): texts containing ambiguous entities; (b): entities with ambiguous sense

	Twitter	YouTube		Flickr		
	Tweet	*Title*	*Desc*	*Title*	*Desc*	*Tag*
(a)	93%	88%	98%	92%	97%	77%
(b)	64%	55%	46%	66%	44%	73%

A final observation is that not only do ambiguous entities appear frequently, but the degree of their ambiguity is high as well. Wikipedia Miner and DBPedia Spotlight assign each candidate meaning a probability score indicative of the likelihood it is the correct sense. Figure 7 shows the distribution of this score for each top ranked candidate. We see the confidence the services are able to assign their selected candidates is very low, signaling that unreliable knowledge underlies the ranking. The confidence scores of many correct candidates actually fall below the default threshold and would erroneously not even be retrieved. Also, not only do established techniques have difficulty selecting a candidate with high probability, but there are often many candidates from which to choose (in our dataset, this number ranges from 2 to 163 with an average of 5-6 and median of 4). All together, this makes the NER services' candidate selection
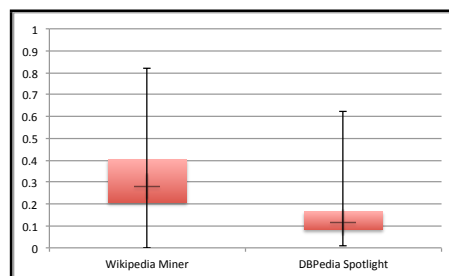

Figure 7: Confidence scores for top candidate

akin to a random guess with low chance of choosing the actual intended meaning.

Overall, this analysis confirms entity ambiguity in short texts is a profuse, difficult problem requiring attention.

5. RESULTS

In this section, we detail the evaluation and performance analysis we conducted in order to compare the correctness of our ranking algorithms to a gold standard of human annotator judgments, a number of baseline measures, and existing state-of-the-art techniques. We evaluated our user-centric approach with short texts drawn from three separate sources (Twitter, YouTube, and Flickr) since inspection of posts on these sites revealed qualitative differences. Table 6 reports performance as precision at rank 1 (P@1), or the fraction of evaluated entities for which the top ranked candidate is the correct meaning; here this measure is the same as recall since we assume the NER services provide us every potential candidate sense.

5.1 Human Annotated Ceiling

As explained in Section 4.1, in order to obtain labeled data for an ambiguous entity, we used Mechanical Turk to determine whether or not a candidate was the correct meaning of an ambiguous entity. We see an average observed agreement across all coders and items of 0.866 and average Fleiss Kappa=0.803. Both are within generally acceptable ranges for this type of task, indicating it is possible to disambiguate these texts manually and feasible to try it mechanically.

5.2 Comparison to Baselines

- Random Candidate (RC) ranks in random order
- Prior Frequency (PF) ranks candidates according to their commonness, i.e., their prior frequency measure
- RESLVE with Random-User (RU) applies our method with a random Wikipedia user's interest model as input rather than that of the user who uttered the entity
- Wikipedia Miner (WM) and DBPedia Spotlight (DS) are established NED techniques

5.3 Impact of Text Nature and Length

Evaluation shows that incorporating background knowledge about user-specific interests can outperform traditional strategies that rely on prior word frequencies or linguistic relationships among words in the local context. In particular, RESLVE performs best on YouTube, the longest texts in our dataset (see Figure 6), mainly because of content-based similarity with the user-interest model. It also outperforms existing NER services on Twitter texts, which are generally

Table 6: Precision (P@1) of ranking methods

	Flickr	Twitter	YouTube
RESLVE	0.63	**0.76**	**0.84**
RC	0.21	0.32	0.31
PF	0.74	0.69	0.66
RU	0.51	0.71	0.78
WM	**0.78**	0.58	0.80
DS	0.53	0.67	0.63

Table 7: Errors made by RESLVE

Example	Reason
"***Peter*** on the dock"	Referent entity not in Wikipedia, so overlap with user model impossible
"I uploaded a ***video*** on @youtube"	RESLVE assumes every entity is user-specific and always selects candidate with most user model overlap, here ranking "1945 European Films" highest for "video" for a user who edits European cinema pages
RESLVE assigns correct candidate a 0.0 score	Performance depends on amount of content user produces in the knowledge base and drops with users who edit shorter articles or make fewer contributions to Wikipedia overall

more personal than those on Flickr or YouTube and therefore less often simply refer to the most common sense. This shows that considering user interest for NED can be effective in highly user-centric domains.

Along the same lines, RESLVE with a random user's interest model as input can perform better than baselines since incorporating external data allows more topic overlap with candidate entities; but it is not as accurate as with the personalized input, showing that user-specific data does help.

Conversely, RESLVE is less effective on more impersonal text. Misrankings result from automated posts; and we see lower performance on Flickr data, where many entities refer to non-subjective topics (e.g., geographic places), which have high prior frequencies and can be ably resolved with traditional approaches. Also, examination reveals many of these mentioned places are non-local, non-familiar travel locations and therefore not covered by a user's knowledge base contributions about acquainted topics. Table 7 and the next section explain additional error cases.

5.4 Error Analysis and Future Work

5.4.1 Incorrect Candidate Selection

Analyzing RESLVE's failure points reveals reasons for ranking mistakes and ideas for future improvement.

5.4.2 User Identity

The identity module (see Figure 5) simply performs string matching to determine whether a username exists on both a social media site and on Wikipedia, and Table 8 summarizes the results from our dataset. Comparing public profile information between the social media accounts and Wikipedia accounts that do exist and share the same username, annotators unanimously found that Twitter-Wikipedia, YouTube-Wikipedia, and Flickr-Wikipedia username matches actually belong to the same person in approximately 47%, 48%, and 71% of cases, respectively. In the remaining cases, an-

Table 8: Usernames reused

	# Usernames	Exist on Wikipedia
Twitter	479	46.1%
YouTube	454	19.6%
Flickr	226	21.7%

notators were generally unable to make any determination about user identity rather than confirm a username belonged to different people. While our simple approach succeeds in more cases than it fails, it does face limitations, and the relatively high costs of determining confirmed cross-platform user identities limits the sample size of our current evaluation. Improvement of this module is our first priority for future research. We identify 3 main sources of errors:

1. *False positives*: String matching succeeds in retrieving accounts that exist on both the social Web and Wikipedia with the same username, but these accounts do not belong to the same individual person.

2. *True negatives*: The individual who participates on the social Web does not hold an account on Wikipedia.

3. *False negatives*: Accounts exist, but a string matching approach fails because they have different usernames.

To address the last case where a user contributed to a knowledge base but under a different username, we propose exploring a model that considers a larger array of fully and partially matching profile information. Recent work finds profile attributes such as name, email address, or hometown to be highly reliable identifiers [1, 4, 35].

To address the opposite case where the user has not contributed to a knowledge base, we propose collaborative filtering techniques to use the contribution histories of social connections (people a user friends, follows, or favorites on the social Web) as an approximation of the user's own interests. Extending the implementation to other knowledge bases besides Wikipedia is also possible, as is modeling user interest not only from contributions like article edits but also from other forms of participation such as page visits, favoriting, or bookmarking.

6. CONCLUSION

We addressed the Named Entity Disambiguation problem with a user-interest centered approach. We showed that a user tends to produce content within a scope of topics of personal interest across multiple online platforms and that it is possible to formally represent these topics using structured semantic data that can serve as a personal knowledge context. We introduced a representation of user interest given any general knowledge base and implemented the model on Wikipedia as a popular and powerful instance.

Our approach to the NED problem does not depend on local or language-specific information, which is often hard to process, unreliable, or missing entirely in user-generated content. We reveal the advantages of our strategy over a variety of baseline and state-of-the-art methods and achieve improvements in performance, especially when text contains content of a highly personal nature.

As the Web and particularly the social Web evolves, this kind of content will only continue to extensively grow, and user profiles will become ever more inter-connected across domains. Not only will this compel innovative solutions to handle existing information retrieval tasks, but as these tasks become increasingly difficult, it will make the solutions introduced in this paper all the more feasible and effective.

7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

8. REFERENCES

[1] F. Abel, E. Herder, G.-J. Houben, N. Henze, and D. Krause. Cross-system user modeling and personalization on the social web. *UMUAI*, 23:169–209, 2013.

[2] C. E. C. F. Batista and D. Schwabe. LinkedTube: semantic information on web media objects. In *WebMedia '09: Proceedings of the XV Brazilian Symposium on Multimedia and the Web*, Oct. 2009.

[3] R. Bunescu and M. Pasca. Using encyclopedic knowledge for named entity disambiguation. In *Proceedings of EACL*, 2006.

[4] F. Carmagnola and F. Cena. User identification for cross-system personalisation. *Information Sciences*, 179(1-2):16–32, Jan. 2009.

[5] J. Chen, R. Nairn, L. Nelson, M. Bernstein, and E. Chi. Short and tweet: experiments on recommending content from information streams. In *CHI '10*, Apr. 2010.

[6] D. Cosley, D. Frankowski, L. G. Terveen, and J. Riedl. SuggestBot: using intelligent task routing to help people find work in wikipedia. *IUI*, pages 32–41, 2007.

[7] S. Cucerzan. Large-scale named entity disambiguation based on Wikipedia data. In *EMNLP-CoNLL*, 2007.

[8] A. Davis, A. Veloso, A. S. da Silva, W. Meira, Jr, and A. H. F. Laender. Named entity disambiguation in streaming data. In *ACL '12*, July 2012.

[9] G. Demartini, D. E. Difallah, and P. Cudré-Mauroux. ZenCrowd: leveraging probabilistic reasoning and crowdsourcing techniques for large-scale entity linking. In *WWW '12*. ACM, Apr. 2012.

[10] T. Finin, W. Murnane, A. Karandikar, N. Keller, J. Martineau, and M. Dredze. Annotating named entities in Twitter data with crowdsourcing. In *CSLDAMT '10: Proceedings of the NAACL HLT 2010 Workshop on Creating Speech and Language Data with Amazon's Mechanical Turk*. ACL, June 2010.

[11] F. M. Harper, D. Frankowski, S. Drenner, Y. Ren, S. Kiesler, L. Terveen, R. Kraut, and J. Riedl. Talk amongst yourselves: inviting users to participate in online conversations. In *Proceedings of the 12th international conference on Intelligent user interfaces*, IUI '07, pages 62–71. ACM, 2007.

[12] C. Hauff and G.-J. Houben. Placing images on the world map: a microblog-based enrichment approach. In *SIGIR '12*, Aug. 2012.

[13] G. Inches, M. Carman, and F. Crestani. Statistics of online user-generated short documents. *Advances in Information Retrieval*, pages 649–652, 2010.

[14] T. Iofciu, P. Fankhauser, and F. Abel. Identifying users across social tagging systems. *AAAI*, 2011.

[15] K. R. Lakhani and E. von Hippel. How open source software works: "free" user-to-user assistance. *Research Policy*, 32(6):923–943, June 2003.

[16] D. Laniado and P. Mika. Making Sense of Twitter. In *The Semantic Web–ISWC 2010*, pages 470–485. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2010.

[17] J. Lerner, J. Tirole, and National Bureau of Economic Research. The simple economics of open source, 2000.

[18] C. Li, J. Weng, Q. He, Y. Yao, A. Datta, A. Sun, and B.-S. Lee. TwiNER: named entity recognition in targeted twitter stream. In *SIGIR '12*, Aug. 2012.

[19] M. Lieberman and J. Lin. You are where you edit: Locating Wikipedia contributors through edit histories. *Proceedings of ICWSM*, 9, 2009.

[20] K. Ling, G. Beenen, P. Ludford, X. Wang, K. Chang, X. Li, D. Cosley, D. Frankowski, L. Terveen, A. M. Rashid, P. Resnick, and R. Kraut. Using Social Psychology to Motivate Contributions to Online Communities. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 10(4):00–00, June 2006.

[21] X. Liu, S. Zhang, F. Wei, and M. Zhou. Recognizing named entities in tweets. In *HLT '11: Proceedings of the 49th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*. ACL, June 2011.

[22] C. Lu, W. Lam, and Y. Zhang. Twitter User Modeling and Tweets Recommendation Based on Wikipedia Concept Graph. *Workshops at the Twenty-Sixth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2012.

[23] A. H. Maslow. Motivation and Personality, 1970.

[24] E. Meij, W. Weerkamp, and M. de Rijke. Adding semantics to microblog posts. In *WSDM '12: Proceedings of the fifth ACM international conference on Web search and data mining*, Feb. 2012.

[25] P. N. Mendes, M. Jakob, A. García-Silva, and C. Bizer. DBpedia spotlight: shedding light on the web of documents. In *I-Semantics '11: Proceedings of the 7th International Conference on Semantic Systems*, Sept. 2011.

[26] M. Michelson and S. A. Macskassy. Discovering users' topics of interest on twitter: a first look. In *AND '10: Proceedings of the fourth workshop on Analytics for noisy unstructured text data*, Oct. 2010.

[27] R. Mihalcea and A. Csomai. Wikify!: linking documents to encyclopedic knowledge. *CIKM*, pages 233–242, 2007.

[28] D. Milne and I. Witten. Learning to link with wikipedia. *Proceedings of the 17th ACM conference on Information and knowledge management*, pages 509–518, 2008.

[29] M. Pennacchiotti and A. M. Popescu. A machine learning approach to twitter user classification. *Fifth International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media (ICWSM)*, 2011.

[30] D. Perito, C. Castelluccia, M. A. Kaafar, and P. Manils. How unique and traceable are usernames? In *PETS'11: Proceedings of the 11th international conference on Privacy enhancing technologies*. Springer-Verlag, July 2011.

[31] A. Ritter, S. Clark, Mausam, and O. Etzioni. Named entity recognition in tweets: an experimental study. In *EMNLP '11: Proceedings of the Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*. Association for Computational Linguistics, July 2011.

[32] M. Ruocco. Context-aware image semantic extraction in the social web. In *WWW '12 Companion*, 2012.

[33] M. Strube and S. P. Ponzetto. WikiRelate! Computing Semantic Relatedness Using Wikipedia. *AAAI*, pages 1419–1424, 2006.

[34] Z. Syed, T. Finin, and A. Joshi. Wikipedia as an ontology for describing documents. *Proceedings of the Second International Conference on Weblogs and Social Media*, pages 136–144, 2008.

[35] J. Vosecky, D. H. D. Hong, and V. Shen. User identification across multiple social networks. *Audio, Transactions of the IRE Professional Group on*, pages 360–365, July 2009.

[36] M. Wattenberg, F. Viégas, and K. Hollenbach. Visualizing activity on wikipedia with chromograms. *Human-Computer Interaction–INTERACT 2007*, pages 272–287, 2007.

[37] T. Zesch, I. Gurevych, and M. Mühlhäuser. Analyzing and accessing Wikipedia as a lexical semantic resource. *Data Structures for Linguistic Resources and Applications*, pages 197–205, 2007.

[38] Y. Zhang, W. U. Yao, and Y. Qing. Community Discovery in Twitter Based on User Interests. *Journal of Computational Information Systems*, 8(3):991–1000, 2012.