

ReliK: A Reliability Measure for Knowledge Graph Embeddings

Maximilian K. Egger maximilian.egger@cs.au.dk Aarhus University

Panagiotis Karras piekarras@gmail.com U. of Copenhagen, Aarhus U.

Wenyue Ma wenyuema@cs.au.dk Aarhus University

Ilaria Bordino ibordino@acm.org UniCredit

Davide Mottin davide@cs.au.dk **Aarhus University**

Francesco Gullo gullof@acm.org UniCredit

Aris Anagnostopoulos aris@diag.uniroma1.it Sapienza University of Rome

ABSTRACT

Can we assess a priori how well a knowledge graph embedding will perform on a specific downstream task and in a specific part of the knowledge graph? Knowledge graph embeddings (KGEs) represent entities (e.g., "da Vinci," "Mona Lisa") and relationships (e.g., "painted") of a knowledge graph (KG) as vectors. KGEs are generated by optimizing an *embedding score*, which assesses whether a triple (e.g., "da Vinci," "painted," "Mona Lisa") exists in the graph. KGEs have been proven effective in a variety of web-related downstream tasks, including, for instance, predicting relationships among entities. However, the problem of anticipating the performance of a given KGE in a certain downstream task and locally to a specific individual triple, has not been tackled so far.

In this paper, we fill this gap with *ReliK*, a **Reli**ability measure for KGEs. ReliK relies solely on KGE embedding scores, is task- and KGE-agnostic, and requires no further KGE training. As such, it is particularly appealing for semantic web applications which call for testing multiple KGE methods on various parts of the KG and on each individual downstream task. Through extensive experiments, we attest that ReliK correlates well with both common downstream tasks, such as tail or relation prediction and triple classification, as well as advanced downstream tasks, such as rule mining and question answering, while preserving locality.

CCS CONCEPTS

 Computing methodologies → Semantic networks; Machine **learning**; • **Information systems** \rightarrow *Data mining*.

KEYWORDS

Knowledge Graph Embeddings, Reliability, Knowledge Graphs, Data quality

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than the author(s) must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from permissions@acm.org.

WWW '24, May 13-17, 2024, Singapore, Singapore.

© 2024 Copyright held by the owner/author(s). Publication rights licensed to ACM. ACM ISBN 979-8-4007-0171-9/24/05...\$15.00

https://doi.org/10.1145/3589334.3645430

ACM Reference Format:

Maximilian K. Egger, Wenyue Ma, Davide Mottin, Panagiotis Karras, Ilaria Bordino, Francesco Gullo, and Aris Anagnostopoulos. 2024. ReliK: A Reliability Measure for Knowledge Graph Embeddings. In Proceedings of the ACM Web Conference 2024 (WWW '24), May 13-17, 2024, Singapore, Singapore. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 11 pages.https://doi.org/10.1145/3589334.3645430

1 INTRODUCTION

Knowledge graphs (KGs) are sets of facts (i.e., triples such as "da Vinci," "painted," "Mona Lisa") that interconnect entities ("da Vinci," "Mona Lisa") via relationships ("painted") [20, 47]. Entities and relationships correspond to nodes and (labeled) edges of the KG, respectively (Figure 2). Knowledge graph embeddings (KGEs) [45] are popular techniques to generate a vector representation for entities and relationships of a KG. A KGE is computed by optimizing a scoring function that provides an embedding score as an indication of whether a triple actually exists in the KG. KGEs have been extensively used as a crucial building block of state-of-the-art methods for a variety of downstream tasks commonly carried out on the Web, such as knowledge completion [46], whereby a classifier is trained on the embeddings to predict the existence of a triple; or head/tail prediction [24], which aims to predict entities of a triple, as well as more advanced ones, including rule mining [49], query answering [48], and entity alignment [5, 21, 51, 52].

Motivation. So far, the choice of an appropriate KGE method has depended on the downstream task, the characteristics of the input KG, and the computational resources. The existence of many different scoring functions, including linear embeddings [8], bilinear [49], based on complex numbers [36], or projections [10] further complicates this choice. Alas, the literature lacks a unified measure to quantify how reliable the performance of a KGE method can be for a certain task beforehand, without performing such a potentially slow task. Furthermore, KGE performance on a specific downstream task is typically assessed in a global way, that is, in terms of how accurate a KGE method is for that task on the entire KG. However, the performance of KGEs for several practical applications (e.g., knowledge completion [46]) typically varies across the parts of the KG. This requires carrying out a performance assessment of KGE locally to specific parts of the KG, rather than globally.

Contributions. We address all the above shortages of the state of the art in KGE and introduce ReliK (Reliability for KGEs), a simple, yet principled measure that quantifies the reliability of how a KGE will perform on a certain downstream task in a specific part of the KG, without executing that task or (re)training that KGE. To the best of our knowledge, no measure like *ReliK* exists in the literature. ReliK relies exclusively on embedding scores as a black box, particularly on the ranking determined by those scores (rather than the scores themselves). Specifically, it is based on the relative ranking of existing KG triples with respect to nonexisting ones, in the target part of the KG. As such, *ReliK* is agnostic to both (1) the peculiarities of a specific KGE and (2) the KG at hand, and (3) it needs no KGE retraining. Also, (4) ReliK is task-agnostic: in fact, its design principles are so general that it is inherently well-suited for a variety of downstream tasks (see Section 3 for more details, and Section 4 for experimental evidence). Finally, (5) ReliK exhibits the locality property, as its computation and semantics can be tailored to a specific part of the KG. All in all, therefore, our ReliK measure is fully compliant with all the requirements discussed above. Note that ReliK can be used also to evaluate the utility of a KGE for a downstream task, even when (for privacy or other reasons) we only have access to the embedding and not to the original KG.

ReliK is simple, intuitive, and easy-to-implement. Despite that, its exact computation requires processing all the possible combinations of entities and relationships, for every single fact of interest. Thus, computing *ReliK* exactly on large KGs or large target subgraphs may be computationally too heavy. This is a major technical challenge, which we address by devising approximations to *ReliK*. Our approximations are shown to be theoretically solid (Section 3.2) and perform well empirically (Section 4.1).

Advanced downstream tasks. Apart from experimenting with *ReliK* in basic downstream tasks, such as entity/relation prediction or triple prediction, we also showcase *ReliK* on two advanced downstream tasks, to fully demonstrate its general applicability. The first is *query answering*, which finds answers to complex logical queries over KGs. The second, *rule mining*, deduces logic rules, with the purpose of cleaning the KG from spurious facts or expanding the information therein. Rule mining approaches rely on a confidence statistical measure that depends on the quality of the data itself. By computing the confidence on a ground truth, we show that *ReliK* identifies more trustworthy rules.

Relevance. *ReliK* is particularly amenable to semantic web applications, for instance by providing a local means to study the semantics associated with a specific's entity embedding [30] or by offering an efficient tool for knowledge completion [50].

Summary and outline. To summarize, our contributions are:

- We fill an important gap of the state of the art in KGE (Section 2) by tackling for the first time the problem of assessing the reliability of KGEs (Section 3).
- We devise ReliK, the first reliability measure for KGEs, which
 possesses important characteristics of generality, simplicity, and
 soundness (Section 3.1).
- We devise efficient, yet theoretically solid approximation techniques for estimating *ReliK* (Section 3.2).
- We perform extensive experiments to show that *ReliK* correlates with several common downstream tasks, it complies well with the locality property, and its approximate computation is efficient and effective (Section 4).

 We additionally showcase ReliK in two advanced downstream tasks, question answering and rule mining (Section 4.3).

2 PRELIMINARIES

A knowledge graph (KG) $\mathcal{K}: \langle \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{F} \rangle$ is a triple consisting of a set \mathcal{E} of n entities, a set \mathcal{R} of relationships, and a set $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{E}$ of m facts. A fact is a triple $x_{hrt} = (h, r, t)^1$, where $h \in \mathcal{E}$ is the head, $t \in \mathcal{E}$ is the tail, and $r \in \mathcal{R}$ is the relationship. For instance, entities "Leonardo da Vinci" and "Mona Lisa," and relationship "painted" form the triple ("Leonardo da Vinci," "painted," "Mona Lisa"). The set \mathcal{F} of facts form an edge-labeled graph whose nodes and labeled edges correspond to entities and relationships, respectively. We say a triple x_{hrt} is positive if it actually exists in the KG (i.e., $x_{hrt} \in \mathcal{F}$), negative otherwise (i.e., $x_{hrt} \notin \mathcal{F}$). KGs are also known as knowledge bases [14], information graphs [25], or heterogeneous information networks [34].

Knowledge graph embedding. A KG embedding (KGE) [2, 24, 45] is a representation of entities and relationships in a d-dimensional $(d \ll |\mathcal{E}|)$ space, typically, the real \mathbb{R}^d space or the complex \mathbb{C}^d space. For instance, TransE [8] represents a triple x_{hrt} as entity vectors $\mathbf{e}_h, \mathbf{e}_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and relation vector $\mathbf{e}_r \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and DistMult [49] represents the relationship as a matrix $\mathbf{W}_r \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. Although KGEs can differ (significantly) from one another in their definition, a common key aspect of all KGEs is that they are typically defined based on a so-called embedding scoring function or simply embedding score. This is a function $s: \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{E} \to \mathbb{R}$, which quantifies how likely a triple $x_{hrt} \in \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{E}$ exists in \mathcal{K} based on the embeddings of its head (h), relationship (r), and tail (t). Specifically, the higher $s(x_{hrt})$, the more likely the existence of x_{hrt} . For instance, TransE's embedding score $s(x_{hrt}) = -\|\mathbf{e}_h + \mathbf{e}_r - \mathbf{e}_t\|$ represents the $(\ell_1$ or ℓ_2) distance between the "translation" from h's embedding to t's embedding through r's embedding [8].

KGEs are typically learned through a training process that optimizes (e.g., via gradient descent) a loss function defined based on the embedding score. This training process can be computationally expensive, especially if it has to be repeated for multiple KGEs. KGEs learned this way are shown to be effective for a number of downstream tasks [24], such as predicting the existence of a triple, but do not offer any prior indication on their performance [22]. Moreover, existing benchmarks [2] show global performance on the entire graph rather than *local* on subgraphs. To this end, in this work, we provide an answer to the following key question:

MAIN QUESTION. Is there a measure that provides a prior indication of the performance of a KGE on a specific subgraph?

3 KGE RELIABILITY

A good measure of performance of a KGE should support a number of tasks, from node classification, to link prediction, as well as being unprejudiced towards the data and the KGE model itself. In other words, we would like a measure of *reliability* that properly assesses how the embedding of a triple would perform on certain tasks and data, without knowing them in advance. More specifically, the main desiderata of a proper KGE reliability measure are as follows.

 $^{^1\}mathrm{We}$ use fact and triple interchangeably throughout the paper.

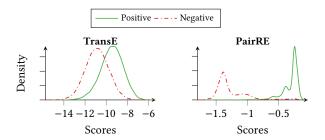


Figure 1: Distribution of the embedding scores for positive (i.e., existing) and negative (i.e., nonexisting) triples on CodexSmall dataset (cf. Section 4), with TransE [8] and PairRE [10] KGE methods. Although scores and distributions are different, positive and negative triples are well separated.

(R1) Embedding-agnostic. It should be independent of the specific KGE method. This is to have a measure fully general.

(R2) Learning-free. It should require no further KGE training. This is primarily motivated by efficiency, but also for other reasons, such as privacy or unavailability of the data used for KGE training.

(R3) Task-agnostic. It should be independent of the specific downstream task. In other words, it should be able to properly anticipate the performance of a KGE in general, for *any* downstream task. Again, like **(R1)**, this is required for the generality of the measure.

(R4) Locality. It should be a good predictor of KGE performance *locally* to a given triple, that is, in a close surrounding neighborhood of that triple. This is important, as a KGE model may be more or less effective based on the different parts of the KG it is applied to. Thus, assessing how KGEs perform in different parts of the KG would allow for their better use in downstream tasks.

3.1 The Proposed Relik Measure

Design principles. Defining a reliability measure that complies with the aforementioned requirements is an arduous streak. First, the various KGE methods consider different objectives. Second, downstream tasks often combine embeddings in different ways. For instance, even though head or tail predictions predict a single vector, triple classification combines head, tail, and relationship vectors. Third, the embedding scores are in general incomparable across the KGEs.

To fulfil **(R1)** and **(R2)**, the KGE reliability measure should not engage with the internals of the computation of KGEs. Thus, we need to treat the embeddings as vectors and the embedding score as a black-box function that provides only an indication of the actual existence of a triple. Although the absolute embedding scores are incomparable to one another, we observe that the distribution of positive and negative triples is significantly different (Figure 1). Specifically, we assume the *relative ranking* of a positive triple to be higher than that of a negative. Otherwise, we multiply the score by -1. This leads to the following main observation.

OBSERVATION 1. A KGE reliability measure that uses the position of a triple relative to other triples via a ranking defined based on the embedding score fulfills (R1) and (R2).

Furthermore, comparing a triple to all other (positive or negative) triples might be ineffective. For instance, if we assume that our measure of reliability is solely based on the separation between

positive and negative triples, we will conclude from Figure 1 that PairRE [10] performs well for all the tasks, which is not the case. This is because the absolute score does not provide an indication of performance. We thus advocate that a local approach that considers triples relative to a neighborhood is more appropriate, and propose a measure that fulfils (R4). The soundness of (R4) is better attested in our experiments in Section 4.

Finally, to meet **(R3)**, the KGE reliability measure should not exploit any peculiarity of a downstream task in its definition. Indeed, this is accomplished by our measure, as we show next.

Definition. For a triple $x_{hrt} = (h, r, t)$ we compute the neighbor set $\mathcal{N}^-(h)$ of all possible negative triples, that is, triples with head h that do not exist in \mathcal{K} . Similarly, we compute $\mathcal{N}^-(t)$ for tail t. We define the *head-rank* h of a triple x_{hrt} as the position of the triple in the rank obtained using score s for a specific KGE relative to all the negative triples having head h.

$$rank_H(x_{hrt}) = |\{x \in \mathcal{N}^-(h) : s(x) > s(x_{hrt})\}| + 1$$

The tail-rank $rank_T(x_{hrt})$ for tail t is defined similarly.

Our reliability measure, ReliK, for a triple x_{hrt} is ultimately defined as the average of the reciprocal of the head- and tail-rank

$$ReliK(x_{hrt}) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{rank_H(x_{hrt})} + \frac{1}{rank_T(x_{hrt})} \right). \tag{1}$$

ReliK can easily be extended from single triples to subgraphs by computing the average reliability among the triples in the subgraph. Specifically, we define the *ReliK* score of a set $S \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ of triples as

$$ReliK(S) = \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{x_{hrt} \in S} ReliK(x_{hrt}). \tag{2}$$

Rationale. *ReliK* ranges from (0,1], with higher values corresponding to better reliability. In fact, the lower the head-rank $rank_H(x_{hrt})$ or tail-rank $rank_T(x_{hrt})$, the better the ranking of x_{hrt} induced by the underlying embedding scores, relatively to the nonexisting triples in x_{hrt} 's neighborhood, complies with the actual existence of x_{hrt} in the KG.

It is easy to see that *ReliK* achieves (**R1**) and (**R2**) by relying on the relative ranking rather than the absolute scores. It also fulfills (**R3**) as it involves no downstream tasks at all, and (**R4**) as it is based on the local (i.e., 1-hop) neighborhood of a target triple.

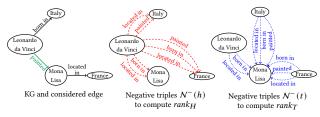


Figure 2: Constituents of ReliK on an example KG.

Figure 2 provides an example of the computation of ReliK for the triple x_{hrt} = ("Leonardo da Vinci," "painted," 'Mona Lisa"). The $\mathcal{N}^-(h)$ is depicted as the red (dashed) edges and $\mathcal{N}^-(t)$ in blue (dotted). To compute ReliK on an embedding, we compute the embedding score s of ("Leonardo da Vinci," "painted," "Mona Lisa") and rank it with respect to the triples in $\mathcal{N}^-(h)$ and $\mathcal{N}^-(t)$.

3.2 Efficiently Computing ReliK

Computing ReliK (Eq. (1)) requires Ω ($|\mathcal{E}| \cdot |\mathcal{R}|$) time, as it needs to scan the entire negative neighborhood of the target triple. For large KGs, repeating this for a (relatively) high number of triples may be computationally too heavy. For this purpose, here we focus on approximate versions of ReliK, which properly trade off between accuracy and efficiency.

The main intuition behind the ReliK approximation is that the precise ranking of the various potential triples is not actually needed. Rather, what it matters is $just\ the\ number$ of those triples that exhibit a higher embedding score than the target triple. This observation leads to two approaches. In both of them, we sample a random subset of negative triples. In the first approach, we compute $ReliK_{LB}$, a lower bound to ReliK, by counting the negative triples in the sample that have a lower embedding score than the target triple and pessimistically assuming that all the other triples not in the sample have higher scores. In the second approach, we estimate $ReliK_{Apx}$ by evaluating the fraction of triples in the sample that have a higher score than the triple under consideration and then scaling this fraction to the total number of negative triples. Next, we provide the details of these two approaches.

Let S_H be a random subset of k elements selected without replacement independently and uniformly at random from the negative neighborhood $\mathcal{N}^-(h)$ of the head h of a triple x_{hrt} . The size $|S_H|$ trades off between efficiency and accuracy of the estimator, and it may be defined based on the size of $\mathcal{N}^-(h)$. Define also

$$rank_H^S(x_{hrt}) = |\{x \in S_H : s(x) > s(x_{hrt})\}| + 1,$$

to be the rank of the score $s(x_{hrt})$ that the KGE assigns to x_{hrt} , among all the triples in the sample. We similarly compute S_T and $rank_T^S$ for tail's neighborhood $\mathcal{N}^-(t)$.

ReliK_{LB} **estimator.** The sampled triples with lower score than $s(x_{hrt})$ are fewer than all such negative triples, that is,

$$|S_H| - rank_H^S(x_{hrt}) \le |\mathcal{N}^-(h)| - rank_H(x_{hrt}),$$

or, equivalently,

$$rank_H(x_{hrt}) \le rank_H^S(x_{hrt}) + |\mathcal{N}^-(h)| - |S_H|. \tag{3}$$

Analogously, the observation holds for S_T

$$rank_T(x_{hrt}) \le rank_T^S(x_{hrt}) + |\mathcal{N}^-(t)| - |S_T|. \tag{4}$$

We therefore define our $ReliK_{LB}$ estimator as

$$ReliK_{LB}(x_{hrt}) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{rank_{H}^{S}(x_{hrt}) + |\mathcal{N}^{-}(h)| - |S_{H}|} + \frac{1}{rank_{T}^{S}(x_{hrt}) + |\mathcal{N}^{-}(t)| - |S_{T}|} \right),$$
 (5)

From Eqs. (3) and (4), it holds that

$$ReliK_{LB}(x_{hrt}) \leq ReliK(x_{hrt}).$$

 $ReliK_{Apx}$ estimator. As for our second estimator, we define it as

$$ReliK_{Apx} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{rank_{H}^{S}(x_{hrt}) \frac{|\mathcal{N}^{-}(h)|}{|S_{H}|}} + \frac{1}{rank_{T}^{S}(x_{hrt}) \frac{|\mathcal{N}^{-}(t)|}{|S_{T}|}} \right). \quad (6)$$

In words, we simply scale up the rank induced by the sample to the entire set of negative triples.

Theoretical characterization of $ReliK_{Apx}$ **.** Note that by Jensen's inequality [23], we have that

$$\begin{split} & \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{rank_{H}^{S}(x_{hrt})\frac{|\mathcal{N}^{-}(h)|}{|S_{H}|}}\right] \geq \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}\left[rank_{H}^{S}(x_{hrt})\frac{|\mathcal{N}^{-}(h)|}{|S_{H}|}\right]} \\ & = \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}[rank_{H}^{S}(x_{hrt})]\frac{|\mathcal{N}^{-}(h)|}{|S_{H}|}} = \frac{1}{rank_{H}(x_{hrt})}, \end{split}$$

where $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$ denotes mathematical expectation. This holds because

$$\mathbb{E}[rank_H^S(x_{hrt})] = |S_H| \cdot \frac{rank_H(x_{hrt})}{|\mathcal{N}^-(h)|},$$

given that for each element $x \in S_H$, the probability to have a score $s(x) > s(x_{hrt})$ is

$$\frac{rank_H(x_{hrt})}{|\mathcal{N}^-(h)|}.$$

We argue similarly for the tail and, therefore, we finally obtain

$$\mathbb{E}[ReliK_{Apx}(x_{hrt})] \ge ReliK(x_{hrt}).$$

In other words, $ReliK_{Apx}$ is, in expectation, an $upper\ bound$ of ReliK.

Quality of $ReliK_{Apx}$ **approximation.** Applying a Hoeffding's bound [18], we obtain that, with high probability, the quality of approximation improves exponentially as the size of the sample increases.

Algorithm 1 Compute $ReliK_{LB}$ or $ReliK_{Apx}$

```
Input: KG \mathcal{K}: \langle \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{F} \rangle, triple x_{hrt} = (h, r, t) \in \mathcal{F}, embedding score function s \colon \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{E} \to \mathbb{R}, sample size k \in \mathbb{N}

Output: ReliK_{LB}(x_{hrt}) (Eq. (5)) or ReliK_{Apx}(x_{hrt}) (Eq. (6))

1: S_H \leftarrow sample k triples from \mathcal{N}^-(h); S_T \leftarrow sample k triples from \mathcal{N}^-(t)

2: rank_H \leftarrow 1; rank_T \leftarrow 1

3: for \, x_{h'r't'} \in S_H \cup S_T \, do

4: if s(x_{hrt}) < s(x_{h'r't'}) \, then

5: if h' = h \, then

6: rank_H \leftarrow rank_H + 1

7: if t' = t \, then

8: rank_T \leftarrow rank_T + 1

9: return \quad \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{rank_H + |\mathcal{N}^-(h)| - |S_H|} + \frac{1}{rank_T + |\mathcal{N}^-(t)| - |S_T|} \right) \, for \, ReliK_{LB}

or \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{rank_H \frac{|\mathcal{N}^-(h)|}{|S_H|}} + \frac{1}{rank_T \frac{|\mathcal{N}^-(t)|}{|S_T|}} \right) \, for \, ReliK_{Apx}
```

Algorithms. Algorithm 1 shows the steps to compute $ReliK_{LB}$ and $ReliK_{Apx}$. Initially, in Line 1, we sample, uniformly at random, k negative triples from the head neighborhood and the tail neighborhood. Note that we can save computation time by first filtering the triples in $S_H \cup S_T$ by score (Line 4), that is, by considering only those with score higher than the input triple x_{hrt} , and then checking whether a triple in $S_H \cup S_T$ has either the head (Line 5) or the tail (Line 7) in common with x_{hrt} to update the corresponding rank.

Time complexity. Algorithm 1 runs in O(k) time. This corresponds to the time needed for the sampling step in Line 5, which can easily be accomplished linearly in the number of samples, without materializing the negative neighborhoods. The sample size k trades off between accuracy and efficiency of the estimation. Section 4.1 shows that $ReliK_{Apx}$ approximation with 20% sample size is $2.5\times$ faster than ReliK with only 0.002 mean squared error (MSE). As such, $ReliK_{Apx}$ is our method of reference in the experiments.

4 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

We evaluate *ReliK* on four downstream tasks, six embeddings, and six datasets. We report the correlation with *ReliK* and the performance of ranking tasks (Section 4.2) and show that *ReliK* can identify correct query answers as well as mine rules with higher confidence than existing methods (Section 4.3).

		space		
method	set	entity	relation	score
TransE [8]	\mathbb{R}	O(n)	O(n)	$-\ \mathbf{e}_h + \mathbf{e}_r - \mathbf{e}_t\ _{\mathcal{P}}$
DistMult [49]	\mathbb{R}	O(n)	O(n)	$\mathbf{e}_{h}^{\top} \operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{W}_{r}) \mathbf{e}_{t}$
RotatE [36]	\mathbb{C}	O(n)	O(n)	$-\ \mathbf{e}_h \circ \mathbf{e}_r - \mathbf{e}_t\ $
PairRE [10]	\mathbb{R}	O(n)	O(n)	$-\ \mathbf{e}_h \circ \mathbf{e}_{rh} - \mathbf{e}_t \circ \mathbf{e}_{rt}\ $
ComplEx [41]	\mathbb{C}	O(n)	O(n)	$Re(\langle \mathbf{e}_r, \mathbf{e}_h, \overline{\mathbf{e}_t} \rangle)$
ConvE [15]	\mathbb{R}	O(n)	O(n)	$f(vec(f([\overline{\mathbf{e}_h}; \overline{\mathbf{e}_r}] * \omega))\mathbf{W})\mathbf{e}_t$
TuckER [4]	\mathbb{R}	O(n)	O(n)	$W \times \mathbf{e}_h \times \mathbf{e}_r \times \mathbf{e}_t$
CompGCN [44]	\mathbb{R}	O(n)	O(n)	any KGE score

Table 1: Characteristics of the considered embeddings.

Embeddings. We include six established KGE methods, representative of the four major embedding families (see Section 5). Table 1 shows the embeddings in our evaluation, the embedding space, and the embedding score function. A detailed description of the embeddings is in Section A.1 in the appendix.

dataset	3	$ \mathcal{R} $	$ \mathcal{F} $	Task
Countries	271	2	1 158	Approximation
FB15k237	14 505	237	310 079	Ranking / Classification / Querying
Codex-S	2 034	42	36 543	Ranking / Classification
Codex-M	17 050	51	206 205	Ranking / Classification
Codex-L	77 951	69	612 437	Ranking / Classification
YAGO2	834 750	36	948 358	Rule Mining

Table 2: Characteristics of the KGs; number of entities $|\mathcal{E}|$; number of relationships $|\mathcal{R}|$; number of facts $|\mathcal{F}|$; task.

Datasets. We perform experiments on six KGs with different characteristics, shown in Table 2.

- **Countries** [9] is a small KG created from geographical locations, where entities are continents, subcontinents, and countries, and edges containment or geographical neighborhood.
- FB15k237 [40] is a sample of Freebase KG [7] covering encyclopedic knowledge consisting of 237 relations, 15k entities, and 310k facts. FB15k237 is a polished and corrected version of FB15k [8] constructed to circumvent data leakage. The dataset contains Freebase entities with more than 100 mentions and with reference in Wikilinks database.
- Codex [32] is a collection of three datasets of incremental size, Codex-S (2k entities, 36k triples), Codex-M (17k entities, 200k facts), and Codex-L (78k entities, 610k facts) extracted from Wikidata and Wikipedia. The Codex collection explicitly encourages entity and content diversity to overcome the limitations of FB15k.
- YAGO [35] is an open-source KG automatically extracted from Wikidata with an additional ontology from schema.org. We use YAGO2 [19], which comprises 834k entities and 948k facts.

Experimental setup. We implement our approximate and exact *ReliK* in Python v3.9.13.^{2,3} We train the embedding using the

Pykeen library v1.10.1,⁴ with default parameters besides the embedding dimension dim=50 and training loop sLCWA. We run our experiments on a Linux Ubuntu 4.15.0-202 machine with 48 cores Intel(R) Xeon(R) Silver 4214 @ 2.20GHz, 128GB RAM, and an NVIDIA GeForce RTX 2080 Ti GPU. We report an average of 5 experiments using 5-fold cross validation with 80-10-10 split.

Summary of experiments. We evaluate ReliK on several downstream tasks and setups. We first show in Section 4.1 that our approximate $ReliK_{Apx}$ outperforms the simpler $ReliK_{LB}$ lower-bound approximation and achieves a good tradeoff between quality and speed. We then show in Section 4.2 that ReliK correlates with common ranking tasks, such as tail and relation prediction, as well as classification tasks and validate the claim that ReliK is a local measure. In Section 4.3 we present the more complex tasks of query answering and mining logic rules on KGs. To summarize, we evaluate ReliK on the following downstream tasks:

- (T1) Ranking tasks, tail and relation prediction
- (T2) Classification task, triple classification
- (T3) Query answering task
- (T4) Rule mining application

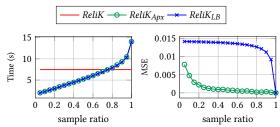


Figure 3: Comparing $ReliK_{Apx}$ and $ReliK_{LB}$ with exact ReliK in time (left) and Mean Squared Error (right) vs sample to data size ratio on Countries dataset and TransE embeddings.

4.1 Approximation Quality

We start by showing that $ReliK_{Apx}$ runs as fast as $ReliK_{LB}$ while being more accurate. We report time and mean squared error (MSE) with respect to the exact ReliK measure for $ReliK_{Apx}$ and $ReliK_{LB}$. Computing ReliK is infeasible in datasets with more than a few hundred entities. Hence, we limit our analysis to the entire Countries dataset for which we can compute ReliK exactly.

Figure 3 reports the results in terms of seconds and MSE at increasing sample size k = |S|. Both $ReliK_{LB}$ and $ReliK_{Apx}$ incur the same time, because of the fact that both require to sample k negative triples and compute the score on the sample. On the other hand, when the sample size is more than 80% of all the negative triples, as the sampling time dominates the computation of $ReliK_{LB}$ and $ReliK_{Apx}$, ReliK becomes faster. $ReliK_{Apx}$ rapidly reduces the error and stabilizes at around 40% of the sample size, whereas $ReliK_{LB}$ exhibits a steadily larger error than $ReliK_{Apx}$. The current results show the effectiveness of the results in an unparallelized setting; yet, we note that the sampling process can be easily parallelized by assigning each sample to a separate thread.

In terms of quality, $ReliK_{Apx}$ exhibits minimal MSE (<0.005) with as little as 10% of the sample size, being 3 times faster than ReliK. Thus, even though the exact ReliK is feasible for small datasets or

²Code available at: https://github.com/AU-DIS/ReliK

³Also as artifact: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10656796

⁴https://pykeen.readthedocs.io/en/stable/

subgraphs, $ReliK_{Apx}$ offers a good approximation with significant speedup. On the next experiments, we set k to 10% of all the negative triples and report results for $ReliK_{Apx}$.

4.2 Common Downstream Tasks

We test *ReliK* on the ability to anticipate the results of common tasks for KGEs [24, 45]. We measure the statistical significance of Pearson correlation among two ranking tasks, tail and relation prediction, and the triple classification task. To evaluate *ReliK* on different areas of the graph and different graph topologies, we sample random subgraphs of Codex-S with 60 nodes by initially selecting a starting node uniformly at random and then including nodes and edges by a random walk with restart [39] with restart probability $1-\alpha=0.2$, until the subgraph comprises 60 nodes. For Codex-M and Codex-L we use size 100 and for FB15k237 we use 200 nodes. We report the average *ReliK* on 100 random subgraphs on the Codex-S, Codex-M, Codex-L, and FB15k237 datasets.

	Tail (MRR) Relat		Relatio	n (MRR)	Classific. (Acc.)	
KGE	Pearson	p-value	Pearson	p-value	Pearson	p-value
			Codex-S			
TransE	0.23	0.02	0.93	$2.17e^{-44}$	0.37	$1.42e^{-4}$
DistMult	0.16	0.12	0.85	$2.03e^{-29}$	0.69	$2.21e^{-15}$
RotatE	0.35	0.0003	0.89	$7.92e^{-37}$	-0.24	0.02
PairRE	0.86	$7.29e^{-31}$	0.91	$2.36e^{-39}$	0.09	0.37
ComplEx	0.14	0.17	0.63	$2.22e^{-12}$	-0.06	0.57
ConvE	-0.396	$6.61e^{-5}$	0.89	$4.92e^{-37}$	0.10	0.30
TuckER	-0.15	0.13	0.89	$5.71e^{-37}$	0.07	0.46
CompGCN	0.52	$3.39e^{-08}$	0.77	$6.09e^{-21}$	0.01	0.92
Codex-M						
TransE	0.90	$2.70e^{-37}$	0.97	$9.07e^{-63}$	0.53	$1.93e^{-08}$
DistMult	0.22	0.04	0.89	$8.37e^{-32}$	0.60	$5.12e^{-10}$
RotatE	_	-	_	-	_	-
PairRE	0.06	0.58	0.98	$1.05e^{-74}$	-0.12	0.23
ComplEx	-0.33	$8.92e^{-4}$	0.36	$2.01e^{-4}$	0.15	0.13
ConvE	-0.22	0.03	0.99	$3.86e^{-96}$	-0.02	0.84
			Codex-L			
TransE	0.83	$1.13e^{-26}$	0.97	$3.812e^{-64}$	0.63	$2.54e^{-12}$
DistMult	0.49	$2.10e^{-07}$	0.78	$4.68e^{-22}$	0.60	$3.74e^{-11}$
RotatE	-	=	-	-	-	=
PairRE	-0.04	0.68	0.95	$3.33e^{-52}$	$-4.47e^{-4}$	0.99
ComplEx	0.82	$1.03e^{-25}$	0.91	$3.96e^{-39}$	0.06	0.57
ConvE	0.59	$4.26e^{-11}$	-0.07	0.48	0.31	$1.57e^{-3}$
FB15k237						
TransE	0.24	0.02	0.86	$2.83e^{-30}$	0.34	$5.79e^{-4}$
DistMult	-0.05	0.65	0.64	$5.57e^{-13}$	0.39	$5.58e^{-05}$
RotatE	-	-	-	-	-	-
PairRE	0.80	$1.51e^{-23}$	0.65	$1.74e^{-13}$	0.08	0.44
ComplEx	0.20	0.05	0.88	$3.53e^{-34}$	0.14	0.18
ConvE	0.09	0.37	0.85	$4.47e^{-30}$	0.01	0.93

Table 3: Pearson correlation and statistical significance of ReliK for tail prediction, relation prediction, and triple classification; red indicates cases of less statistically significant correlation, with p-value > 0.05, or inverse correlation.

Ranking tasks (T1). In the first experiments, we measure the Pearson correlation between *ReliK* and the performance on ranking tasks with mean reciprocal rank (MRR) [12]. The first task, *tail prediction* [8, 10, 36], assesses the ability of the embedding to

predict the tail given the head and the relation, thus answering the query (h, r, ?) where the tail is unknown. The second task, relation prediction, assesses the ability of the embedding to predict the undisclosed relation of a triple (h, ?, t). The common measure used for tail and relation prediction is MRR, which provides an indication of how close to the top the score ranks the correct tail (or relation). Consistently with previous approaches [8, 10, 36], we employ the filtered approach in which we consider for evaluation only negative triples that do not appear in either the train, test, or validation set. Table 3 reports the correlations alongside the statistical significance in terms of the p-value. We marked in red, high p-values (> 0.05), which suggest no correlation, and Pearson score values that indicate inverse correlation. Generally, ReliK exhibits significant correlation across embeddings and tasks. Noteworthy, even though ReliK (see Eq. (1)) does not explicitly target tail or head rankings by including both, we observe significant correlation on tail prediction in most embeddings and datasets. Because of the considerable training time, we only report results for RotatE on Codex-S. We complement our analysis with correlation plots in Figure 4 and Figure 10 in the appendix for Codex-S; in most cases we observe a clear correlation. Comparing the actual results of the various tasks, it is also clear in most cases in which we do not have correlation that the results are too close to distinguish; for example, ComplEx has only results close to 0. Such results indicate that a particular embedding method needs additional training.

Besides, on the same task, results vary in different subgraphs, vindicating the effect of locality on embedding performance. *ReliK* correctly captures local embedding characteristics.

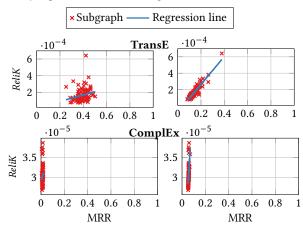


Figure 4: ReliK correlation with MRR on tail prediction (left column) and relation prediction (right column); each point is the ReliK score for a subgraph with 60 nodes on Codex-S.

Classification task (T2). In this experiment, we test the correlation between *ReliK* and the accuracy of a threshold-based classifier on the embeddings. The classifier predicts the presence of a triple in the KG if the embedding score is larger than a threshold, a common scenario for link prediction [24]. Table 3 (right column) reports the correlations and their significance for all datasets and Figure 5 shows the detailed analysis on Codex-S for two cases. At close inspection, we observe that in cases of unclear correlation, such as with PairRE, the respective classification results are too close to observe a difference. Those cases notwithstanding, *ReliK*

is significantly correlated with accuracy. This result confirms that *ReliK* can serve as a proxy for the quality of complex models trained on embeddings. Plots for the other embeddings can be found in the Section A.2 of the appendix.

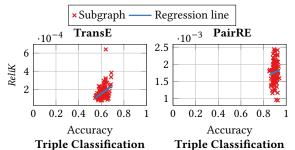


Figure 5: ReliK correlation with accuracy on triple classification; each point represents the ReliK score for a subgraph with 60 nodes on Codex-S.

Tuning Subgraph Size. Next, we analyze how *ReliK* correlates with the tasks presented in Section 4.2 on subgraphs of varying size with the TransE embedding. Figure 6 reports the correlation values for all three tasks, only including those values where the p-value is below 0.05. We observe that *ReliK*'s correlation generally increases with subgraphs of up to 100 nodes on Codex-S. After that point, we note an unstable behavior in all tasks. This is consistent with the assumption that *ReliK* is a measure capturing local reliability. To strike a balance between quality and time we test on subgraphs with 60 nodes for Codex-S in all experiments. Yet, as tasks are of different nature, the subgraph size can be tuned in accordance with the task to provide more accurate results.

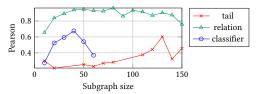


Figure 6: Pearson correlation on tail and relation prediction and triple classification vs subgraph size on Codex-S.

4.3 Complex Downstream Tasks

We now turn our attention to complex downstream tasks.

Query answering (T3). We show how ReliK can improve query-answering tasks. Complex logical queries on KGs are working with different query structures. We focus on queries of chaining multiple predictions or having an intersection of predictions, from different query structures that have been described in recent work [3, 31]. We keep the naming convention introduced by Ren and Leskovec [31]. We evaluate a selection of 1000 queries per type (1p,2p,3p,2i,3i) from their data on the FB15k237 graph. The queries of type p are 1 to 3 hops from a given entity with fixed relation labels that point to a solution, whereas queries of type i are the intersection of 2 or 3 predictions pointing towards the same entity. We evaluate ReliK on the ability to detect whether an instance of an answer is true or false. We compute ReliK on TransE embeddings trained on the entire FB15k237. Figure 7 shows the average ReliK scores for

positive and negative answers. *ReliK* clearly discriminates between positive and negative instances, often by a large margin.

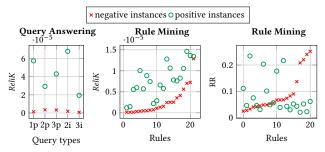


Figure 7: Comparison between positive and negative instances for query answering on FB15k237 (left) and rule mining on Yago2 with *ReliK* (middle) and RR (right).

Rule mining (T4). *ReliK* effectively improves on the rule mining task as well. Rule mining methods [16, 17, 28] automatically retrieve logic rules over KGs having a predefined minimum confidence. A logic rule is an assertion such as $A \Rightarrow B$, which states that B follows from A. For instance, a rule could imply that all presidents of a country are citizens of the country. An instance of a rule is triples matching B, given that A is true. Logic rules are typically harvested with slow exhaustive algorithms similar to the apriori algorithm for association rules [1]. We present two experiments. In the first, we show that *ReliK* can discriminate between true and false instances. In the second, we show that *ReliK* can retrieve all the rules by considering only subgraphs with high *ReliK* score.

Detecting true instances. To assess performance on downstream task (T4), we compare *ReliK* with the reciprocal rank (RR) of a combination of the tail and the relation embeddings on the ability to detect whether an instance of a rule is true or false. This task is particularly important to quantify the real confidence of a rule [26]. To this end, we use a dataset⁶ comprising 23 324 manually annotated instances over 26 rules extracted from YAGO2 using the AMIE [17] and RudiK [28] methods. We compute *ReliK* on TransE embeddings trained on the entire YAGO2. Figure 7 shows the average *ReliK* scores for positive and negative instances. *ReliK* discriminates between positive and negative instances, often by a large margin, whereas RR often confounds positive and negative instances.

Rule mining on subgraphs. In this experiment, we show that Re-liK identifies the subgraphs with high-confidence rules. To this end, we mine rules with AMIE [16, 17] on Codex-S, and compare with densest subgraphs of increasing size. We construct subgraphs of increasing size by first mining the densest subgraph using Charikar's greedy algorithm [11] on the weighted graph obtained assigning each edge the ReliK score; then, we remove the densest subgraph and repeat the algorithm on the remaining edges, until no edge remains. At each iteration, we mine AMIE rules and compute the standard confidence, as well as confidence by the Partial complete-ness assumption (PCA) [16, 17], that is, the assumption that the database includes either Partial complete complete complete complete complete includes either <math>Partial complete complet

⁵http://snap.stanford.edu/betae/

 $^{^6} https://hpi.de/naumann/projects/repeatability/datasets/colt-dataset.html \\$

by ReliK finds more rules with higher confidence on as little as 25% of the KG. On the other hand, a random subgraph does not identify any meaningful subgraph. This indicates that ReliK is an effective tool for retrieving rules in large graphs. A further analysis in Figure 9 shows that by exploiting ReliK we can compute rules 75% of the time. We emphasize though that, because rule mining incurs exponential time, the difference between mining rules on the complete graph and on the ReliK subgraph will be more pronounced on graphs larger than Codex-S. As a complement, the table reports the number of rules mined in the entire graph that are discovered by ReliK in the subgraph. It is clear that on 26% of the graph, ReliK discovers 1/3 as opposed to only 1/6 discovered by random graphs.

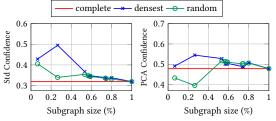


Figure 8: Std and PCA confidence [17] vs subgraph size for AMIE rules on Codex-S; densest subgraph according to *ReliK*. PCA confidence normalizes the support of a rule <u>only</u> by the number of facts which we know to be true <u>or</u> consider to be false on a KG assumed to be partially complete [16, 17].

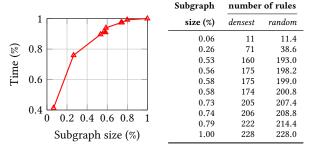


Figure 9: Time to compute AMIE rules vs subgraph size (left) and number of discovered rules (right) on Codex-S.

5 RELATED WORK

Knowledge graph embeddings are commonly used to detect missing triples, correcting errors, or question answering [24, 45]. A number of KGEs have appeared in the last few years. The distinctive features among embeddings are the score function and the optimization loss. Translational embeddings in the TransE [8] family and the recent PairRE [10] assume that the relationship performs a translation from the head to the tail. Semantic embeddings, such as DistMult [49] or HolE [27], interpret the relationship as a multiplicative operator. Complex embeddings, such as RotatE [36] and ComplEx [41], use complex-valued vectors and operations in the complex plane. Neural-network embeddings, such as ConvE [15], perform sequences of nonlinear operations. Whereas each embedding defines a specific score, ReliK is agnostic to the choice of embedding. It is still an open question how well embeddings capture the semantics included in a KG [22]. Our work progresses in that regard by offering a simple local measure to quantify how faithful an embedding represents the information in the data.

Embedding calibration. An orthogonal direction to ours is embedding calibration [33, 37]. Calibration methods provide effective ways to improve the existing embeddings on various tasks, by altering the embedding vectors in subspaces with low accuracy [33], by reweighing the output probabilities in the respective tasks [37], or by matrix factorization [13]. On the contrary, *ReliK* does not alter the embeddings nor the prediction scores but provides insights on the performance of the embeddings in specific subgraphs.

Evaluation of embeddings. *ReliK* bears an interesting connection with ranking-based quality measures, in particular with the mean reciprocal rank (MRR) and HITS@k for head, tail, and relation prediction [6, 8, 10, 33, 36, 45]. For a triple (?,?,t) with unknown head MRR is the average of the reciprocal of ranks of the correct heads in the KG given the relationship r and tail t. As such, ReliK, can be considered a generalization of MRR as the MRR for triples of the kind (?,?,t) and (h,?,?). As the triples (?,r,t) are included in (?,?,t), ReliK includes more information than MRR. Moreover, even though MRR and HITS@k provide a global indication of performance, ReliK is suitable for local analysis. Yet, current global measures have been recently shown to be biased towards high-degree nodes [38].

6 CONCLUSION

Aiming to develop a measure that prognosticates the performance of a knowledge graph embedding on a specific subgraph, we introduced ReliK, a KGE reliability measure agnostic to the choice of the embeddings, the dataset, and the task. To allow for efficient computation, we proposed a sampling-based approximation, which we show to achieve similar results to the exact ReliK in less than half of the time. Our experiments confirm that ReliK anticipates the performance on a number of common and complex downstream tasks for KGEs. In particular, apart from correlating with accuracy in prediction and classification tasks, ReliK discerns the right answers to complex logical queries and guides the mining of high-confidence rules on subgraphs dense in terms of ReliK score. These results suggest that ReliK may be used in other domains, as well as a debugging tool for KGEs. In the future, we aim to design reliability measures for structure-based graph embeddings [42] and methods for authenticating [29] embedding-based computations.

Ethical use of data. The measurements performed in this study are all based on datasets that are publicly available for research purposes. We cite the original sources.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

M. Egger is supported by Horizon Europe and Innovation Fund Denmark grant E115712-AAVanguard and the Danish Council for Independent Research grant DFF-1051-00062B. I. Bordino and F. Gullo are supported by Project ECS 0000024 Rome Technopole - CUP B83C22002820006, "PNRR Missione 4 Componente 2 Investimento 1.5," funded by European Commission - NextGenerationEU. W. Ma is supported by the China Scholarship Council grant 202110320012. A. Anagnostopoulos is supported by the ERC Advanced Grant 788893 AMDROMA, the EC H2020RIA project SoBigData++ (871042), the PNRR MUR project PE0000013-FAIR, the PNRR MUR project IR0000013-SoBigData.it, and the MUR PRIN project 2022EKNE5K Learning in Markets and Society.

REFERENCES

- Rakesh Agrawal, Ramakrishnan Srikant, et al. 1994. Fast algorithms for mining association rules. In VLDB, Vol. 1215. Santiago, Chile, 487–499.
- [2] Mehdi Ali, Max Berrendorf, Charles Tapley Hoyt, Laurent Vermue, Mikhail Galkin, Sahand Sharifzadeh, Asja Fischer, Volker Tresp, and Jens Lehmann. 2021. Bringing light into the dark: A large-scale evaluation of knowledge graph embedding models under a unified framework. TPAMI 44, 12 (2021), 8825–8845.
- [3] Yushi Bai, Xin Lv, Juanzi Li, and Lei Hou. 2023. Answering Complex Logical Queries on Knowledge Graphs via Query Computation Tree Optimization. (2023).
- [4] Ivana Balazevic, Carl Allen, and Timothy Hospedales. 2019. TuckER: Tensor Factorization for Knowledge Graph Completion. In 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing. Association for Computational Linguistics, 5184– 5193.
- [5] Satadisha Saha Bhowmick, Eduard C. Dragut, and Weiyi Meng. 2023. Globally Aware Contextual Embeddings for Named Entity Recognition in Social Media Streams. In ICDE. 1544–1557.
- [6] Federico Bianchi, Gaetano Rossiello, Luca Costabello, Matteo Palmonari, and Pasquale Minervini. 2020. Knowledge Graph Embeddings and Explainable AI. In Knowledge Graphs for explainable Artificial Intelligence: Foundations, Applications and Challenges. IOS Press, 49–72.
- [7] Kurt Bollacker, Colin Evans, Praveen Paritosh, Tim Sturge, and Jamie Taylor. 2008. Freebase: a collaboratively created graph database for structuring human knowledge. In SIGMOD. 1247–1250.
- [8] Antoine Bordes, Nicolas Usunier, Alberto Garcia-Duran, Jason Weston, and Oksana Yakhnenko. 2013. Translating embeddings for modeling multi-relational data. NeurIPS 26 (2013).
- [9] Guillaume Bouchard, Sameer Singh, and Theo Trouillon. 2015. On approximate reasoning capabilities of low-rank vector spaces. In AAAI.
- [10] Linlin Chao, Jianshan He, Taifeng Wang, and Wei Chu. 2021. PairRE: Knowledge Graph Embeddings via Paired Relation Vectors. In ACL. 4360–4369.
- [11] Moses Charikar. 2003. Greedy approximation algorithms for finding dense components in a graph. In APPROX. Springer, 84–95.
- [12] Nick Craswell. 2009. Mean Reciprocal Rank. Encyclopedia of database systems 1703 (2009).
- [13] Caglar Demir, Julian Lienen, and Axel-Cyrille Ngonga Ngomo. 2022. Kronecker decomposition for knowledge graph embeddings. In HT. 1–10.
- [14] Omkar Deshpande, Digvijay S Lamba, Michel Tourn, Sanjib Das, Sri Subramaniam, Anand Rajaraman, Venky Harinarayan, and AnHai Doan. 2013. Building, maintaining, and using knowledge bases: a report from the trenches. In SIGMOD. 1209–1220.
- [15] Tim Dettmers, Pasquale Minervini, Pontus Stenetorp, and Sebastian Riedel. 2018. Convolutional 2d knowledge graph embeddings. In AAAI, Vol. 32.
- [16] Luis Galárraga, Christina Teflioudi, Katja Hose, and Fabian M Suchanek. 2015. Fast rule mining in ontological knowledge bases with AMIE ++. VLDBJ 24, 6 (2015), 707–730.
- [17] Luis Antonio Galárraga, Christina Teflioudi, Katja Hose, and Fabian M. Suchanek. 2013. AMIE: association rule mining under incomplete evidence in ontological knowledge bases. In *TheWebConf*, 413–422.
- [18] Wassily Hoeffding. 1963. Probability Inequalities for Sums of Bounded Random Variables. J. Amer. Statist. Assoc. 58, 301 (1963), 13–30.
- [19] Johannes Hoffart, Fabian M Suchanek, Klaus Berberich, and Gerhard Weikum. 2013. YAGO2: A spatially and temporally enhanced knowledge base from Wikipedia. Artificial intelligence 194 (2013), 28–61.
- [20] Aidan Hogan, Eva Blomqvist, Michael Cochez, Claudia d'Amato, Gerard de Melo, Claudio Gutierrez, Sabrina Kirrane, José Emilio Labra Gayo, Roberto Navigli, Sebastian Neumaier, Axel-Cyrille Ngonga Ngomo, Axel Polleres, Sabbir M. Rashid, Anisa Rula, Lukas Schmelzeisen, Juan F. Sequeda, Steffen Staab, and Antoine Zimmermann. 2022. Knowledge Graphs. ACM CSUR 54, 4 (2022), 71:1–71:37.
- [21] Jiacheng Huang, Zequn Sun, Qijin Chen, Xiaozhou Xu, Weijun Ren, and Wei Hu. 2023. Deep Active Alignment of Knowledge Graph Entities and Schemata. PACMMOD 1, 2 (2023), 159:1–159:26.
- [22] Nitisha Jain, Jan-Christoph Kalo, Wolf-Tilo Balke, and Ralf Krestel. 2021. Do Embeddings Actually Capture Knowledge Graph Semantics?. In ESWC. 143–159.
- [23] Johan Ludwig William Valdemar Jensen. 1906. Sur les fonctions convexes et les inégalités entre les valeurs moyennes. Acta mathematica 30, 1 (1906), 175–193.
- [24] Shaoxiong Ji, Shirui Pan, Erik Cambria, Pekka Marttinen, and S Yu Philip. 2021. A survey on knowledge graphs: Representation, acquisition, and applications. Trans. Neural Netw. Learn. Syst. 33, 2 (2021), 494–514.

- [25] Matteo Lissandrini, Davide Mottin, Themis Palpanas, Dimitra Papadimitriou, and Yannis Velegrakis. 2015. Unleashing the power of information graphs. ACM SIGMOD Record 43, 4 (2015), 21–26.
- [26] Michael Loster, Davide Mottin, Paolo Papotti, Jan Ehmüller, Benjamin Feldmann, and Felix Naumann. 2021. Few-shot knowledge validation using rules. In *TheWebConf*. 3314–3324.
 [27] Maximilian Nickel, Volker Tresp, Hans-Peter Kriegel, et al. 2011. A three-way
- [27] Maxímilian Nickel, Volker Tresp, Hans-Peter Kriegel, et al. 2011. A three-way model for collective learning on multi-relational data.. In *ICML*, Vol. 11. 3104482– 3104584
- [28] Stefano Ortona, Venkata Vamsikrishna Meduri, and Paolo Papotti. 2018. Robust discovery of positive and negative rules in knowledge bases. In ICDE. 1168–1179.
- [29] Stavros Papadopoulos, Lixing Wang, Yin Yang, Dimitris Papadias, and Panagiotis Karras. 2011. Authenticated Multistep Nearest Neighbor Search. IEEE Trans. Knowl. Data Eng. 23, 5 (2011), 641–654.
- [30] Heiko Paulheim. 2018. Make embeddings semantic again!. In ISWC.
- [31] Hongyu Ren and Jure Leskovec. 2020. Beta embeddings for multi-hop logical reasoning in knowledge graphs. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 33 (2020), 19716–19726.
- [32] Tara Safavi and Danai Koutra. 2020. CoDEx: A Comprehensive Knowledge Graph Completion Benchmark. In EMNLP. 8328–8350.
- [33] Tara Safavi, Danai Koutra, and Edgar Meij. 2020. Evaluating the Calibration of Knowledge Graph Embeddings for Trustworthy Link Prediction. In EMNLP.
- [34] Chuan Shi, Yitong Li, Jiawei Zhang, Yizhou Sun, and S Yu Philip. 2016. A survey of heterogeneous information network analysis. TKDE 29, 1 (2016), 17–37.
- [35] Fabian M Suchanek, Gjergji Kasneci, and Gerhard Weikum. 2007. Yago: a core of semantic knowledge. In TheWebConf. 697–706.
- [36] Zhiqing Sun, Zhi-Hong Deng, Jian-Yun Nie, and Jian Tang. 2019. RotatE: Knowledge Graph Embedding by Relational Rotation in Complex Space. In ICLR.
- [37] Pedro Tabacof and Luca Costabello. 2020. Probability Calibration for Knowledge Graph Embedding Models. In ICLR.
- [38] Sudhanshu Tiwari, Iti Bansal, and Carlos R Rivero. 2021. Revisiting the evaluation protocol of knowledge graph completion methods for link prediction. In TheWebConf. 809–820.
- [39] Hanghang Tong, Christos Faloutsos, and Jia-Yu Pan. 2006. Fast random walk with restart and its applications. In ICDM. IEEE, 613–622.
- [40] Kristina Toutanova and Danqi Chen. 2015. Observed versus latent features for knowledge base and text inference. In Proceedings of the 3rd workshop on continuous vector space models and their compositionality. 57–66.
- [41] Théo Trouillon, Johannes Welbl, Sebastian Riedel, Éric Gaussier, and Guillaume Bouchard. 2016. Complex embeddings for simple link prediction. In ICML. PMLR, 2071–2080
- [42] Anton Tsitsulin, Marina Munkhoeva, Davide Mottin, Panagiotis Karras, Ivan V. Oseledets, and Emmanuel Müller. 2021. FREDE: Anytime Graph Embeddings. Proc. VLDB Endow. 14, 6 (2021), 1102–1110.
- [43] Ledyard R Tucker. 1966. Some mathematical notes on three-mode factor analysis. Psychometrika 31, 3 (1966), 279–311.
- [44] Shikhar Vashishth, Soumya Sanyal, Vikram Nitin, and Partha Talukdar. 2019. Composition-based Multi-Relational Graph Convolutional Networks. In International Conference on Learning Representations.
- [45] Quan Wang, Zhendong Mao, Bin Wang, and Li Guo. 2017. Knowledge graph embedding: A survey of approaches and applications. TKDE 29, 12 (2017), 2724–
- [46] Xiangyu Wang, Lyuzhou Chen, Taiyu Ban, Muhammad Usman, Yifeng Guan, Shikang Liu, Tianhao Wu, and Huanhuan Chen. 2021. Knowledge graph quality control: A survey. Fundamental Research 1, 5 (2021), 607–626.
- [47] Gerhard Weikum. 2021. Knowledge Graphs 2021: A Data Odyssey. PVLDB 14, 12 (2021), 3233–3238.
- [48] Yuhan Wu, Yuanyuan Xu, Xuemin Lin, and Wenjie Zhang. 2023. A Holistic Approach for Answering Logical Queries on Knowledge Graphs. In ICDE. 2345– 2357
- [49] Bishan Yang, Scott Wen-tau Yih, Xiaodong He, Jianfeng Gao, and Li Deng. 2015. Embedding Entities and Relations for Learning and Inference in Knowledge Bases. In ICLR.
- [50] Mohamad Zamini, Hassan Reza, and Minou Rabiei. 2022. A Review of Knowledge Graph Completion. *Information* 13, 8 (2022), 396.
- [51] Alexandros Zeakis, George Papadakis, Dimitrios Skoutas, and Manolis Koubarakis. 2023. Pre-trained Embeddings for Entity Resolution: An Experimental Analysis. PVLDB 16, 9 (2023), 2225–2238.
- [52] Ziyue Zhong, Meihui Zhang, Ju Fan, and Chenxiao Dou. 2022. Semantics Driven Embedding Learning for Effective Entity Alignment. In ICDE. 2127–2140.

A APPENDIX

A.1 Embeddings

In our experiments, we compare the following embedding methods.

- TransE [8] is the first translational model. The score of a triple is obtained by the difference $-\|\mathbf{e}_h + \mathbf{e}_r \mathbf{e}_t\|_p$ between the head embedding \mathbf{e}_h translated by the relation \mathbf{e}_r and the tail embedding \mathbf{e}_t . The score ranges in $[-\infty, 0]$ with positive triples close to 0. This is a strong baseline for all previous works [2, 32, 45].
- **DistMult** [49] is a notable representative of the semantic similarity family. The score $\mathbf{e}_h^{\top} \operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{W}_r) \mathbf{e}_t$ is bilinear and the relation is a square diagonal matrix \mathbf{W}_r . The score ranges in $[-\infty, +\infty]$, whereby positive triples are assigned higher scores.
- **RotatE** [36] is a representative of the complex vector family, whereby vector values are complex numbers. The score $-\|\mathbf{e}_h \circ \mathbf{e}_r \mathbf{e}_t\|$ is the analogous of TransE's score in the complex space and ranges in $[-\infty, 0]$ with positive triples scoring close to 0.
- PairRE [10] is a more recent asymmetric version of TransE in which the relations are represented by two vectors, an head relation \mathbf{e}_{rh} and a tail relation \mathbf{e}_{rt} . The score $-\|\mathbf{e}_h \circ \mathbf{e}_{rh} \mathbf{e}_t \circ \mathbf{e}_{rt}\|$ is an enriched version of TransE and ranges in $[-\infty, 0]$ with positive triples scoring close to 0.
- **ComplEx** [41] uses complex evaluated embeddings. The score function is the real part Re of the complex trilinear dot-product among the embedding of a triple $Re(\langle \mathbf{e}_r, \mathbf{e}_h, \overline{\mathbf{e}_t} \rangle)$.
- **ConvE** [15] applies a multilevel convolutional network with filters ω on the head and relation embeddings. The resulting tensor is then projected to a vector by a linear layer with parameters **W** and multiplied to the tail vector. The scoring function is $f(vec(f([e_h; e_r] * \omega))\mathbf{W})\mathbf{e}_t$.
- TuckER [4] uses the Tucker decomposition [43] to compute the embeddings for entities and relations.
- CompGCN [44] generates both relation and entity embeddings with a graph convolutional network. The score of a triple can be any of the KGE scores. We use the default TransE score.

A.2 Additional MRR Correlation Experiments

Figures 10 and 11 provide the remaining correlation plots for MRR and classification accuracy.

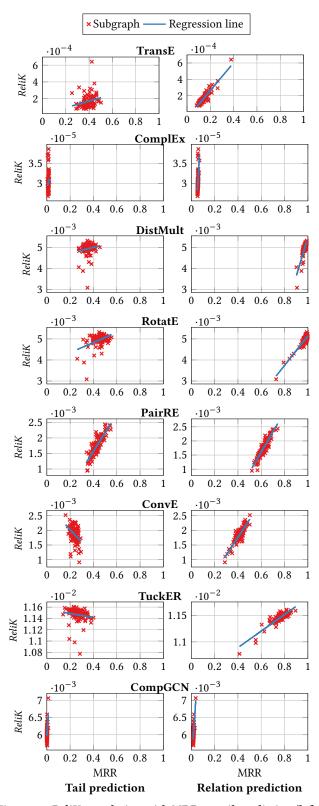


Figure 10: ReliK correlation with MRR on tail prediction (left column) and relation prediction (right column); each point is the ReliK score for a subgraph with 60 nodes on Codex-S.

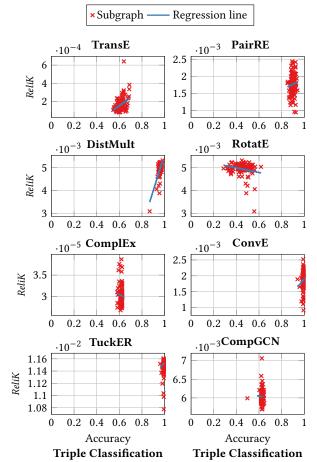


Figure 11: ReliK correlation with accuracy on triple classification; each point represents the ReliK score for a subgraph with 60 nodes on Codex-S.

A.3 Additional Rule Mining Experiments

Table 4 replicates the rule mining on Codex-S subgraphs, whereby we extract the densest subgraph on the *ReliK*-weighted graph compared to the RR-weighted graph. Although the size of the densest subgraph varies with the choice of the measure, we observe that *ReliK* detects more rules than RR on smaller subgraphs.

Subgraph	number of rules				
size (%)	ReliK- densest	random	RR - densest		
0.06	11	11.4	9		
0.17	_	_	62		
0.26	71	38.6	_		
0.34	_	_	112		
0.35	_	_	122		
0.37	_	_	123		
0.39	_	_	133		
0.50	_	_	193		
0.51	_	_	195		
0.53	160	193	201		
0.58	175	199	_		
0.58	174	200.8	_		
0.63	_	_	205		
0.69	_	_	208		
0.70	_	_	215		
0.73	205	207.4	_		
0.74	206	208.8	_		
0.75	_	_	215		
0.79	222	214.4	_		
1.00	228	228	228		

Table 4: Discovered rules in the densest ReliK- and RR-weighted subgraphs.