

# Integration of Multidimensional Data in Heterogeneous Data Marts

A thesis submitted for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

Dariusz Riazati B.Comp., M.Sc, M.Tech.  
School of Computer Science and Information Technology  
College of Science, Engineering and Health,  
RMIT University,  
Melbourne, Victoria, Australia.

August, 2012

## **Declaration**

I certify that except where due acknowledgment has been made, the work is that of the author alone; the work has not been submitted previously, in whole or in part, to qualify for any other academic award; the content of the thesis is the result of work which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research program; any editorial work, paid or unpaid, carried out by a third party is acknowledged; and, ethics procedures and guidelines have been followed.

Dariusz Riazati

School of Computer Science and Information Technology

RMIT University

August, 2012

## Acknowledgments

*In the Name of God, the Most Exalted, the Most Holy*

*"Heaven in every being is its utmost perfection within its limits."*

Bayan (Unity II, Chapter XVI)

This is the most significant milestone in my academic career in which I invested most of my after-work time for seven years. This would not have been possible without the sacrifices that my wife, my best friend Minoo has made, and the support she has given to me during these years. I am always grateful to her.

I also thank my parents who supported me with more than everything that they had in their possession, and were capable of. I would also like to thank my dearest sister Azar\_Mah to whom I had to say farewell recently, in the saddest moment of my life. She is and will forever be in my heart and my mind; I miss very much your warm and heartfelt support.

I would like to thank my primary supervisor Associate Professor James Thom for countless long review sessions and for his extraordinary support and many useful ideas and suggestions for improvement. I have been extremely fortunate to have Professor Thom as my supervisor. I would also like to thank Dr. Xiuzhen Zhang my secondary supervisor for her many feedbacks. Dr Zhang's insight into data warehousing was critical in improving the quality of this thesis.

## Credits

Parts of the material in this thesis have previously appeared in the following publications:

- D. Riazati and J. A. Thom. Matching star schemas. *In Proceedings of the 22nd international conference on Database and expert systems applications - Volume Part II* [Riazati and Thom, 2011].
- D. Riazati, J. A. Thom, and X. Zhang. Inferring aggregation hierarchies for integration of data marts. *In Proceedings of the 21st international conference on Database and expert systems applications: Part II* [Riazati et al., 2010].
- D. Riazati, J. A. Thom, and X. Zhang. Enforcing strictness in integration of dimensions: Beyond instance matching. *In Proceedings of the ACM 14th international workshop on Data Warehousing and OLAP* [Riazati et al., 2011].
- D. Riazati, J. A. Thom, and X. Zhang. Drill across and visualization of cubes with non-conformed dimensions. *In Proceedings of the nineteenth conference on Australasian database* [Riazati et al., 2008].

The thesis was written in the WinShell editor on Windows 7, and typeset using the L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> document preparation system.

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**Note**

Unless otherwise stated, all fractional results have been rounded to the displayed number of decimal figures.

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# Abstract

Data analysts often require access to integrated multidimensional data from local and external data warehouses. The integration process is often undertaken by expert database practitioners who will need to analyze the structure of the data, and match schemas and data before creating an integrated view of the data for visualization and analysis. Such a manual process may be acceptable for databases used in transaction processing applications but does not help decision makers who need access to the information quickly and cost effective in a constantly changing environment.

This thesis addresses several challenges towards automating the integration of data warehouses based on a dimensional model known as Star schema. We recognize that the structure of multidimensional data, namely dimension hierarchies, is critical to the accuracy of the integration but is not always available or accessible. To address this problem, we infer dimension hierarchies from their instances, and demonstrate that they are sufficient to ensure the accuracy of the integration even though they may vary from the intended hierarchies.

To improve the accuracy of matching Star schemas, we propose a more precise represen-

tation of Star schemas and demonstrate its effectiveness by comparing it against the existing approaches that treat Star schemas as relational models.

To match instances of dimensions, we demonstrate that a graph matching algorithm is effective and performs with a high level of accuracy. We propose algorithms which enforce the tree structure of integrated data which is necessary for correct aggregation, and reduce false positive cases occurring during the instance matching. The effectiveness of our algorithms is shown through experiments with real life data.

Despite perfectly matching schemas and hierarchies, there are often dimensions with mismatching data which restrict the scope of the integration. We propose to relax the requirement for dimension compatibility, and introduce measures that quantify the loss of data resulting from the less strict requirement. These measures enable data analysts to identify lossless fragments of data, and thereby, extend the scope of the integrated data. To provide a more comprehensive view of data for analysis, we link the integrated data with the data exclusive to each source by extending the navigation operation for multidimensional data.

These contributions help towards shifting the integration problem away from expert database practitioners to empowered data analysts in combining multidimensional data from multiple sources in real time, and in a cost effective manner.

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

"Powerful is he, who is knowledgeable,  
Young is the heart of the old from knowledge."

Ferdowsi (940 - 1020)

If Ferdowsi, the most famous Persian poet, could travel in time to the year 2012, the advice he would give to the decision makers of today would be the same as that he gave to the kings one thousand years ago. Knowledge is the most effective tool in problem solving and decision making. The more accessible and comprehensive, the more effective it is. By implication Ferdowsi tells us that it is by "knowing" that we can gain confidence, feel secure and empowered. Problems that we face today are much more complex than in his time but the tool being knowledge remains the same. Knowledge is the concise and appropriate collection of information in a way that makes it useful [Satama, 2012]. Dispersed information is difficult to use effectively and therefore is not high value knowledge. This thesis concerns

integration of analytical data empowering decision makers.

After the global financial crisis in 2008, most believed it could be prevented if the information gathered on the vehicle market, housing market, lenders performance and employment figures were shared and analyzed together [Shefrin, 2009]. Similarly, subsequent investigations into the tragic September 11 terrorist attacks revealed that the main cause of failure was not the absence of the information but that they were not shared for more effective cross analysis [Best, 2007].

Companies invest millions of dollars in producing hundreds of reports, yet, in many cases, they need to rely on experts to combine the information from multiple but existing sources. These accounts point to a challenge beyond information gathering: how to combine the information gathered on related topics to provide a more complete picture quickly and cost effectively.

Classic business intelligence applications have been developed using an approach similar to transaction processing applications. An iterative process that starts with identifying a set of questions users regularly need to have answers for and ends with a set of reports with answers to those questions. However, data analysts are no longer satisfied with prepackaged reports and find it restrictive to specify precisely what their questions are.

They usually know the first question but their subsequent questions depend entirely on the answers they get from the previous questions, a process that could be shown using a cause and effect diagram. Adding to the complexity of the integration process, external unfamiliar data such as past weather reports and statistical data collected by the Bureau of Statistics and others often need to be integrated with the local data.

Many autonomous data marts in large enterprises are developed over years. The integration of these data marts into an enterprise warehouse for enterprise-wide large scale analysis is a strategic business objective [Business Objects and Teradata, 2007]. Therefore, a different approach is needed to meet these challenges. Business intelligence applications are now entering into a new generation whereby greater emphasis is made on empowering data analysts to navigate through, integrate and analyze data from multiple sources.

The objective of this thesis is to address the main issues in integration of data marts specifically. In the remainder of this section, the background is first introduced, then the research problems and our proposed solutions are described.

### 1.1 Multidimensional Databases and OLAP

*Multidimensional databases* are structured along *dimensions* and *facts* [Torlone, 2008] and used for data analysis. Facts are measures such as `Sales Amount` that can be summarized, and dimensions determine the groupings by which facts are summarized. Using the example in Figure 1.1(a) we could consider `Location`, `Product` and `Manager` as dimensions of a fact measure called `Sales Amount`.

The model for multidimensional data should support fast aggregation of data according to the hierarchical structure of dimensions. Figure 1.1(b) shows the dimension hierarchy for `Location`. For example, the summarized sales amount for each state is obtained by summing the measure for their cities, and the summarized data for cities is obtained by summing the same measure for their stores.

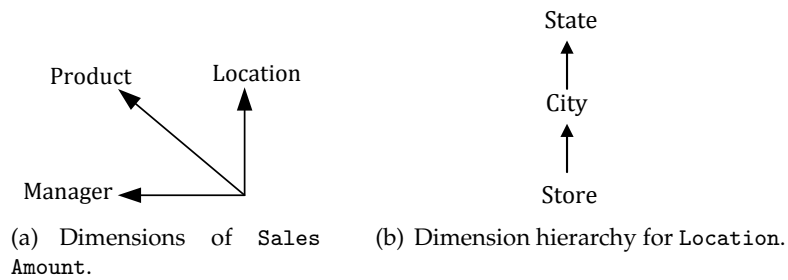


Figure 1.1: Dimensions and facts in multidimensional data

### 1.1.1 Data Cubes

A *data cube* is a visualization of multidimensional data where its axes are represented by dimensions and its cells are represented by facts. It is often referred to as a hypercube since it cannot be visualized once the number of dimensions exceeds three.

**OLAP Operations:** Online Analytical Processing (OLAP) and its related technologies enable data analysts gain insight into multidimensional data through a set of OLAP operations against (OLAP) data cubes. OLAP operations transform raw data so that it reflects the real dimensionality of the enterprise as understood by users [OLAP Council, 1997]. *Slicing* is selecting data using one of the dimensions [Han and Kamber, 2006]. Figure 1.2 shows visualization of a data cube with three dimensions: Location, Product and Manager. It also shows all slices of cubes for each of the three dimensions.

*Dicing* is selection of data using two or more dimensions and applying some constraint on the remaining dimensions [Han and Kamber, 2006]. Figure 1.2 shows dicing of the data cube using different combinations of dimensions.

Obtaining the aggregated data at a higher level such as State, by summing the values at a lower level such as City, is done using an operation that is referred to as *roll-up*. Con-

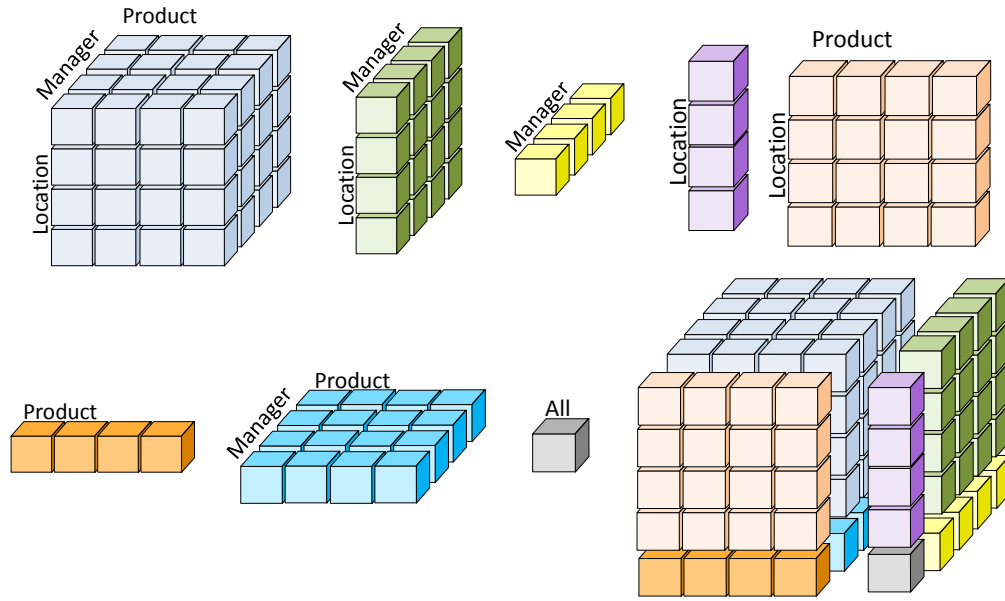


Figure 1.2: Visualization of slicing and dicing of an OLAP data cube.

versely, obtaining the data at a lower level is done using an operation that is referred to as *drill-in*.

In the remainder of this section, OLAP objects and operations to which we refer in this thesis are described. ROLAP (Relational OLAP) and MOLAP (Multidimensional OLAP) are the two main implementations of OLAP. MOLAP servers directly store multidimensional data in an array structure and implement OLAP operations over these data structure, whereas, ROLAP servers store data in relational databases and use SQL and its extensions to implement the OLAP operations [Chaudhuri and Dayal, 1997].

**Cube Lattice:** A data cube is often represented using smaller cubes called *cuboid*, where each cuboid represents a different level of aggregation [Han and Kamber, 2006]. Figure 1.3 shows a lattice of cuboids and their relationships using none, 1, 2, and 3 dimensions. The data cube in Figure 1.2 is only one of the cuboids which sits at the base of the lattice.

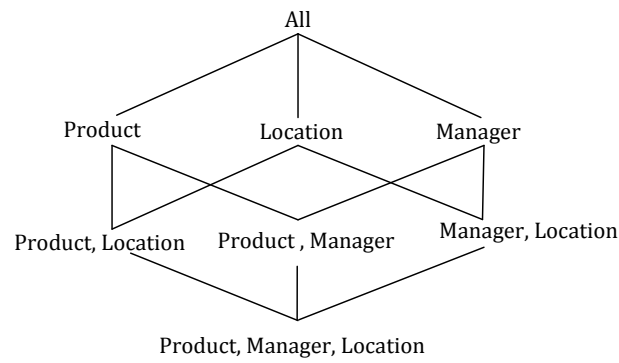


Figure 1.3: Lattice formation of cuboids in a data cube.

## 1.2 Data Warehouses

A *data warehouse* is a large collection of historical data used for analytical reporting [Hurtado et al., 1999] where related data is organized into subject areas such as Sales, Inventory, and Orders which form the basis for reporting.

There are two approaches to build data warehouses: (i) Kimball and Ross [2002] consider a data warehouse as a union of smaller data warehouses (also called *data marts*) for each subject area, modeled based on Star schema and sourced directly from data sources; (ii) Inmon [2005] defines a data warehouse as a subject oriented, integrated and time variant collection of data.

Data warehouses are sourced from Online Transaction Processing (OLTP), or the operational databases, using the ETL process described in Section 1.2.2. There are several reasons why OLTP databases are not directly used for the purpose of reporting. Some of the more important reasons are as follows [Chaudhuri and Dayal, 1997; Kimball and Ross, 2002]:

- Accessing replicated records from the warehouse shields the operational database



from deadlocks resulting from concurrent access, degradation of query performance, unauthorized access and database corruption.

- The data warehouse provides an integrated view of data from multiple sources.
- The model for data warehouse is designed specifically for enhanced query performance.
- The data warehouse contains historical records, whereas, the OLTP database may only include the most recent changes.

### 1.2.1 Star Schemas

A data model that describes multidimensional data using relational tables is called a dimensional model. *Star schema* is a relational model for describing dimensional models. It consists of two types of tables, *dimension* and *fact* tables.

Dimension is a concept which when implemented in the context of Relational OLAP, is called dimension table. It represents the scheme of a dimension, a relation over a set of attributes one of which represents a unique key. The relation  $D(A_1, \dots, A_n)$  represents a dimension table  $D$  of  $n$  attributes. An instance of a dimension table is the data with which it is populated at some point in time.

A fact table is the relational implementation of cube cells each of which is at the intersection of multiple dimensions. It is a relation over a set of fact elements, and a set of key attributes each uniquely identifying a tuple in an instance of a dimension tables it refers to. Therefore, each tuple in the fact table is uniquely identified by joining the fact table to its

dimension tables. Fact elements include additive measures (i.e. measures that can be aggregated), whereas, dimension tables include categories by which measures are aggregated.

The topology of a dimensional model based on Star schema resembles a star at the center of which is a single fact table and all around it are the dimension tables. The relationship from the dimension table to fact tables is of 1:M (i.e. one-to-many). That is for each tuple in a dimension table there may be multiple tuples in the fact table, and each tuple in a fact table may refer to no more than one tuple in any dimension table. Relationships are enforced using foreign key constraints. Figure 1.4 shows a Star schema for reporting on car sales using dimensions MAKE, MODEL, FISCAL\_CAL and DEALER.

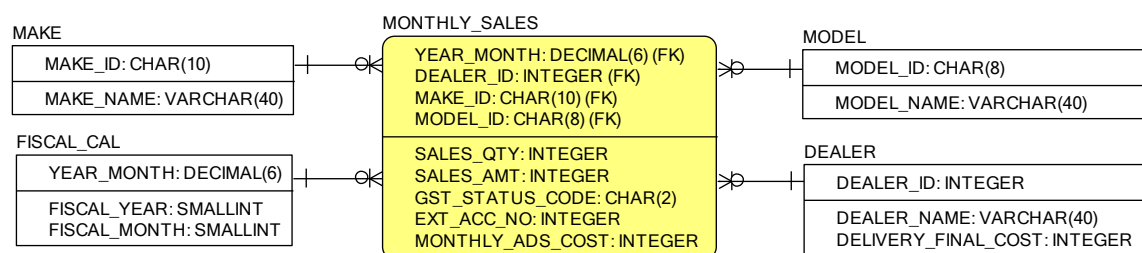


Figure 1.4: An example of a Star schema.

## 1.2.2 Building Data Warehouses

Using Inmon's approach, data marts are created from the integrated (or enterprise-wide) data warehouse (EDW) as opposed to being directly from the original sources of data. Choosing between the two approaches depends on the number of original data sources and complexity of their transformations into a unified data warehouse. Inmon's approach is more flexible and reduces the risk of non-performing queries but is more costly to build.

Figure 1.5 shows the life cycle of data from sources to cubes. Representing Kimball's

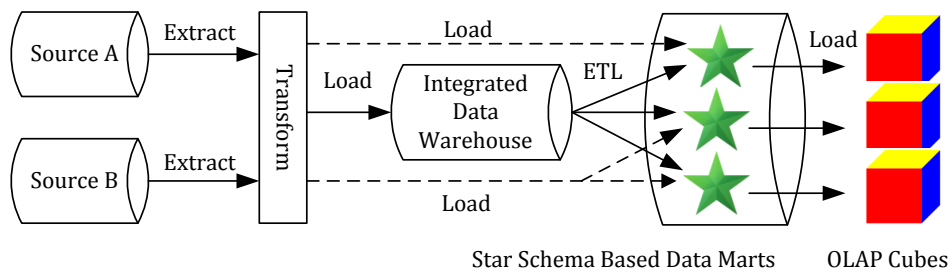


Figure 1.5: Data warehouse life cycle.

approach, dashed lines represent the option to bypass the EDW and update the data marts directly. In this case the collection of data marts is the data warehouse.

Changes to the source data known as delta are incrementally extracted through a change data capture technology. Following Inmon's approach, given the target data model in EDW and consistent mapping definitions from multiple sources into EDW, delta changes go through a set of transformations and are finally loaded into the EDW. This process is known as *Extract, Transform, Load* (or ETL). A second round of ETL processes transforms the data from the EDW into the data marts. Following Kimball's approach, delta changes are transformed directly into the data marts. At this time the data in the data marts is in a multidimensional structure and can be loaded into data cubes.

### 1.3 Statement of Problems

Integrating existing data marts into a single data mart is also done using the ETL process. It requires mapping between Star schemas for each data mart, identifying dimension hierarchies, and the matching and integration of their data. These functions are usually done by expert database practitioners and are, therefore, expensive and time consuming. This thesis

is concerned with automating these tasks. It aims to shift the integration problem away from database practitioners to the business analysts. To achieve this objective, the following challenges are met:

1. Schema matching: Can we improve the quality of matching between Star schemas if we describe them more precisely than standard description of relational schemas?

There has been significant research invested in matching relational schemas using schema, semantic and data properties. However, very little study has been made on taking advantage of the simplicity and the predictable topology of multidimensional data based on the Star Schema model. The main drawbacks of these studies are that they are concerned with a limited set of Star Schema properties, and do not provide a necessary precursor process which discovers these properties.

2. Inferring aggregation hierarchies: Dimension hierarchies are not always known or accessible for multidimensional data on heterogeneous data sources. In these scenarios, how do we infer hierarchies in such a way that they ensure the accuracy of the integration of multidimensional data?

Existing work on inferring aggregation hierarchies using ontologies and dictionaries do not guarantee a fitting hierarchy for the data. The existing literature proposes a method for inferring relationships between dimension attributes based on the data, but it does not determine hierarchy levels and distinct hierarchical paths.

3. Enforcing strictness: A dimension whose instance conforms to the tree structure of its hierarchy is said to be *strict*. What are the issues that cause non-strictness when

integrating strict dimensions and how do we overcome them?

Much of the existing work on enforcing strictness is based on the premise that the data matching has produced perfect match results. They are mostly concerned with managing the non-strict cases. In fact many of the non-strict cases resulting from integration of originally strict data are caused by false positive matching cases, and the presence of homonym data values. This condition has been overlooked in the current literature.

4. Extending the scope of integration: Integrating dimensions must be compatible, that is they must share similarity between their levels, hierarchies and instances. How do we get the most out of the data integration in the presence of non-compatible dimensions? How do we extend the analysis space for the integrated data to include the related but non-compatible dimensions?

There is considerable literature on using various data operations to maximize the extent of the data integration. What they lack is that they do not help identify segments of data that benefit from such operations. Moreover, the integration and visualization of multidimensional data has been limited to common data, making cumbersome the navigation from the integrated data to the data that is not common in the original sources.

### 1.4 Contributions

In this thesis, the following contributions are made:

1. We propose a more precise description of Star schemas (StarMod) and represent that using UML and OWL languages. This representation describes multidimensional data in terms of properties of Star schema model. StarMod is a more expressive and rich representation of Star schemas than their relational representation. To measure the effectiveness of StarMod in improving matching Star schemas, we perform an evaluation of the approach using two well cited matching algorithms against 18 pairs of Star and non-Star schemas described using relational and StarMod properties. Our experiments show that StarMod improves matching results for Star schemas and can be also effectively used for arbitrary relational schemas.

Our proposed approach to matching Star schemas has several advantages over the existing related work: (i) it provides an extensible ontology for Star schemas; (ii) it takes advantage of a more comprehensive set of Star Schema properties; (iii) it can be extended to include semantic properties.

2. We propose algorithms to infer dimension hierarchies from instances of dimension tables. We establish that where dimension hierarchies are not available as part of the schema definition, inferred hierarchies are sufficient to ensure the accuracy of the integration.

Our proposed method does not stop at calculating the cardinality between dimension attributes. Its advantage over the existing work is that it derives hierarchy levels as well as distinct hierarchy paths.

3. False positive cases resulting from instance matching are the likely causes of inconsis-

tendencies in the integrated data leading to non-strict cases. We propose algorithms that reduce false positive cases and enforce the strictness at the same time. The effectiveness of our approach and algorithms are demonstrated using experiments with real life data.

To the best of our knowledge, none of the existing work has taken advantage of enforcing strictness to enhance the quality of matching results between instances of dimensions.

4. We relax the requirement for compatibility by excluding the requirement to have fully matching instances of dimensions. We propose measures that quantify the loss resulting from integration of dimensions with partially matching instances, and use these measures to identify lossless fragments of data. The operation to navigate between data marts is extended to include data related to non-compatible dimensions. We also propose an extension to Pivot tables, used to visualize multidimensional data, to support the extended navigation operation.

Our contribution in this area complements existing work aimed at extending the scope of data integration by performing operations that provide better mapping between otherwise mismatching data. We have offered several methods to measure the loss of data resulting from the integration of data using two or more dimensions. Our proposed extension to the drill across operation enables the user to remain in the same analysis space despite the presence of non-compatible dimensions. A working model of this extension is future work.

## 1.5 Organization of the Thesis

In Chapter 2, the evolution and basic concepts in data warehousing are described. The review of literature concerns the four areas of schema matching, dimension hierarchies, instance matching, and extending the scope of integration.

Chapter 3 concerns the schema matching for Star schemas which is a key aspect of integrating multidimensional data.

To set the necessary ground for instance matching, Chapter 4 describes the algorithms used to infer aggregation hierarchies.

Chapter 5, addresses instance matching for dimension tables and resolves non-strict cases in the integrated data.

Chapter 6, explains methods to quantify the loss during the integration of non-compatible dimensions and describes an approach to extending the navigation operation and Pivot tables to include non-compatible dimensions.

Finally, Chapter 7 concludes the thesis and describes directions for future work.



## Chapter 2

# Integration of Multidimensional Databases - Literature Review

"If the word integration means anything, this is what it means: that we, with love, shall force our brothers to see themselves as they are, to cease fleeing from reality and begin to change it."

James Arthur Baldwin (1924 - 1987)

The earliest work on data warehousing originates from a joint research project conducted by General Mills and Dartmouth University in the 1960s from which the concepts of dimensions and facts originate. Later, during the 1970s, multidimensional data marts were first introduced by AC Nielsen for the purpose of reporting [Kimball and Ross, 2002]. In 1992, Inmon described in detail the concept of the data warehousing architecture in a classic

text book called *Building the Data Warehouse* [Inmon, 2005]. In 1996, Kimball described his view of how a data warehouse should be built in his book *Data Warehouse Toolkit* [Kimball and Ross, 2002]. Whilst, the merits of the approaches introduced by Inmon and Kimball have been widely debated amongst data warehouse practitioners, these concepts continue to be employed today in most data warehousing projects.

*Data vault* is a hybrid approach that encompasses Third Normal Form (3NF) (introduced by Inmon) and Star schema (introduced by Kimball) [Linstedt et al., 2011], but is not optimized for query performance [O’Neil, 2004]. It was introduced by Linstedt in 1990 [Linstedt, 2011]. The first book on data vaults [Linstedt et al., 2011] was released in 2011. The concept of Data Vaults is a variation of approaches proposed by Kimball and Inmon, but has not been widely received by the industry or research community.

In this chapter, we present from the existing literature, those most relevant to our contributions. In Section 2.1, we describe the state of the art methods in representation and matching of Star schemas. In Sections 2.2 to 2.4, we present an overview of works related to inferring dimension hierarchies. In Section 2.5, we review the existing literature concerned with matching instances of hierarchical data, and finally, in Section 2.6 we describe approaches to extending the scope of integration and visualization of multidimensional data.

## 2.1 Schema Matching

Schema matching for relational databases is a difficult process to automate, and has been the subject of research in last decades. Batini et al. [1986], Pavel and Euzenat [2004] and Gal [2006] have completed major surveys of research in this area.

Schema matching is a process that uses one or more matchers to find mappings between elements of the two schemas with the motivation to integrate schemas [Rahm and Bernstein, 2001]. The approach used in schema matching depends on how the schemas are represented. Examples are data definition language (DDL), entity-relationship (ER) model, Unified Modeling Language (UML), XML, document type definition (DTD), or ontology web language (OWL) [Rahm and Bernstein, 2001].

Rahm and Bernstein [2001] classify approaches to automate schema matching as being at either the level of element or structure. The advantage of the structure level approach is that in addition to element-level properties such as name, data type and constraints, it also considers the similarity between related elements within the same structures.

### 2.1.1 Representing Schemas as Graphs

The structure and properties of relational databases can be described using graphs. Each relational object, such as instances of tables, columns, keys and data type is represented as a node of a graph. The edges in the graph simply relate each pair of nodes using role names.

Figure 2.1 is a graph representation of the table `DIMENSION_FISCAL_CAL` which appeared in Figure 1.4. It follows a similar representation used by Melnik et al. [2002b].

### 2.1.2 Similarity Flooding

Similarity Flooding [Melnik et al., 2002b] is a versatile graph matching algorithm. It calculates similarity between nodes of two graphs  $A$  and  $B$ . For propagation purpose, it forms a pairwise connectivity graph  $PCG$  from  $A \times B$  connecting nodes of the graphs  $(x, p, x')$

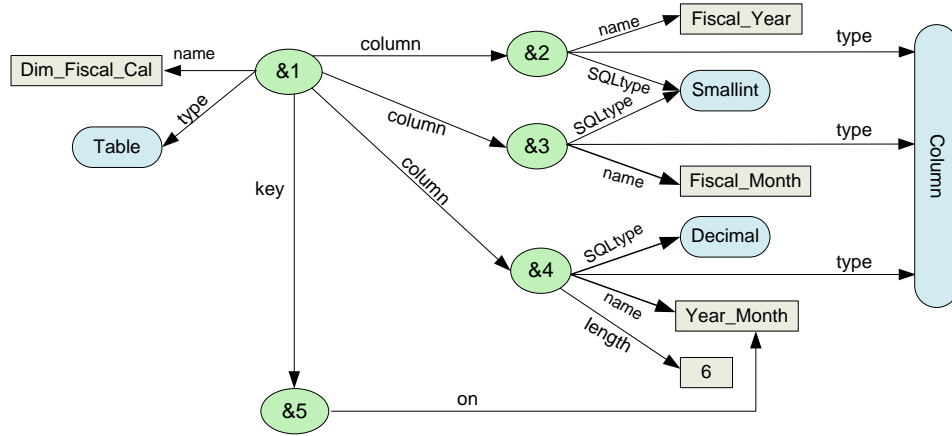


Figure 2.1: Graph representation of dimension table DIMENSION\_FISCAL\_CAL.

and  $(y, p, y')$  and is defined by Melnik et al. [2002b] as:  $((x, y), p, (x', y')) \subseteq PCG(A, B) \iff (x, p, x') \subseteq A$  and  $(y, p, y') \subseteq B$ . Figure 2.2 shows the connectivity graph between two graphs each representing a column of a table.

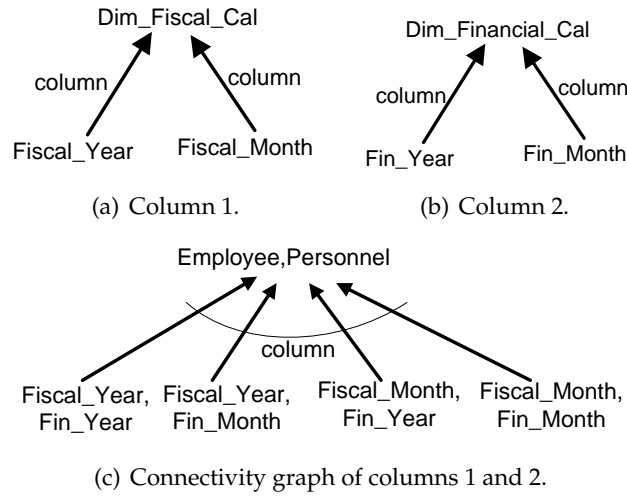


Figure 2.2: An example of a connectivity graph.

At each level of the connectivity graph, the similarity score for each node in  $PCG$  is calculated as follows:

- Each node in *PCG* receives an initial similarity value which indicates the string similarity between the labels of the nodes from *A* and *B*.
- Each edge in *PCG* is represented using a forward link (from parent to the child node) and a backward link (from the child to the parent node).
- The weight of the forward link is calculated as 1 divided over the number of child nodes for the same parent.
- The weight of the backward link is calculated as 1 divided over the number of parent nodes for the same child; in a tree structure, this is always 1.
- The similarity score for the parent node is incremented by the sum of the score for each child node multiplied by the weight of its backward link.
- The similarity score for each child node is incremented by the similarity score of its parent node multiplied by the weight of its forward link.
- The scores are normalized in each iteration by being divided over the largest score in the iteration.
- In each iteration, the algorithm calculates the similarity scores for all nodes. The algorithm stops when the change in the scores becomes insignificant. Finally, the best match candidates are selected through some filters.

### 2.1.3 COMA++

COMA [Do and Rahm, 2002] is another well known schema matching approach. As demonstrated by Duchateau et al. 2008, the quality of match results from COMA++ is generally higher than that of Similarity Flooding. The approach used by COMA++ also turns the schema into an internal graph representation where each element is represented using a *path* or a sequence of nodes following the containment links from the root to each node.

COMA++ uses a library of matchers which can be plugged into COMA and configured. COMA++ has three types of matchers: *Simple*, *Hybrid* and *Reuse-oriented*. Simple matchers benefit from syntactical similarities between the element names. Hybrid matchers exploit the structure of graphs.

COMA++ also learns from feedbacks obtained from user. At the end of the matching process, COMA++ combines match results returned from its matchers. This process consists of an *aggregation* of scores and a *selection* from match candidates.

In the remainder of this section we review the literature related to specifically matching of Star schemas. Precursors to the matching of Star schemas are discovery and representation of their properties. Next, we survey the literature related to these two problems.

### 2.1.4 Inferring Star Schema Properties

Various sources of information have been used to identify properties of Star schemas. The earliest work goes back to when Pokorny [2001] used elements and sub-elements of Document Type Definition (DTD) to describe dimensional data. Similarly, Jensen et al. [2001; 2003] use a DTD as a source of information. They identify the multidimensional structure by

following elements with ID/IDREFS attributes and suggest UML diagrams for snowflake dimensions, and facts. DTDs are superseded by XML Schema which has a much richer syntax. A more fundamental shortcoming of these approaches is that they do not go beyond dimensions and their hierarchies.

Song et al. [2007] produce Star schema from Entity Relationship Diagram (ERD) by analyzing their structure and by measuring the number of direct and indirect M:1 (many-to-one) relationships for each entity. ERD is a rich source of information on the structure and semantic information such as the relationships, but it is seldom available. Moreover, their algorithm stops at identifying the dimensions and fact tables.

Jensen et al. [2004] use the metadata model and data to discover dimensions and their hierarchies. Their proposed approach appears to include transitive relationships and also uses SQL queries which makes the approach less practical.

Golfarelli et al. [2001] use DTDs as well as key/keyref elements in XML schemas relating to web pages to construct a graph from which attribute trees are constructed, but the user is expected to use the graph to identify facts.

Romero et al. [2009] discover functional dependencies to identify the multidimensional structures only as far as dimension hierarchies. They use domain ontologies as the source of information which is seldom available. Cabibbo et al. [1998] identify dimensions and facts by following the foreign key relationships.

Carmè et al. [2010] have a focus on identifying fact tables and their measures only. Their approach is based on heuristics that take advantage of relationships, the volume of data, and clusters of numeric data. Similar to Song et al. [2007], Carmè et al. use the number of

foreign keys to identify fact tables. Using the volume of tables as a measure to detect fact tables is not reliable since fact tables in each data mart may refer to only a subset of data in each dimension.

### 2.1.5 Representation of Star Schemas

Representation of multidimensional data using ER diagrams has received considerable attention in the past decade [Chen and Hsu, 2007; Franconi and Sattler, 1999; Kamble, 2008]. These works suffer from similar problems as those concerned with discovery of Star schema properties, that is, they leave out properties such as surrogate keys, degenerate facts, and degenerate dimensions.

More recent works have benefited from UML to describe multidimensional data. Akoka et al. [2001] present a meta model for dimension hierarchies using UML operations such as generalization and aggregation but only focus on describing aggregation hierarchies.

Abelló et al. [2005] present a meta model called YAM2 for multidimensional data by extending UML stereotypes. Their model captures facts, dimensions, levels, measures and summarizations. The Star schema described using this model is, however, designed from the user requirements and is, hence, more suitable for designing new models. They also omit representation of important properties such as snowflaked dimensions, degenerate dimensions and facts.

Luján-Mora et al. [2006] propose a conceptual model using UML with a wider coverage of properties of multidimensional data than YAM2. It covers a comprehensive set of properties including hierarchies, degenerate dimensions and degenerate facts. It is, however,



aligned with the logical or conceptual model and as such it excludes physical properties such as keys, foreign key relationships and snowflaked dimensions, and therefore, it is not considered suitable for schema matching.

### 2.1.6 Matching Star Schemas

Matching relational schemas is a well researched area, a summary of different approaches is provided by Pavel and Euzenat [2004]. Many of the concepts used in matching relational schemas are also applicable to Star schemas, we are however, concerned with the research that exploits Star schema properties.

Li and Yang [2004] discuss matching Star schemas specifically. Their approach converts schemas to a binary schema tree with the fact table as the root of the tree and dimensions forming child paths to the root node. The proposed matching uses linguistic properties and fixed similarity values for different combinations of data types. It recognizes properties of multidimensional data but only as far as dimensions, dimension hierarchies and facts.

The matching algorithm used by Banek et al. [2008] recognizes the value in matching dimensions, facts, levels, measures and attributes. They do not describe the model they use and how the Star properties used in the matching process were obtained. Moreover, the matching process excludes properties such as keys, degenerate dimensions and degenerate facts. The distinction with their approach is said to be the treatment of aggregation hierarchies. To the best of our knowledge, none of the works above was available to be used in our evaluation.

### 2.1.7 Measuring the Quality of Match Results

Measuring the quality of matching in Information Retrieval is based on *Precision* and *Recall*. Precision ( $P$ ) is the ratio of the number of correct matchings ( $C$ ) over the number of suggested matchings ( $N$ ). Recall ( $R$ ) is the ratio of the number of correct matchings ( $C$ ) over the number of expected matchings ( $M$ ). A measure that combines these two is known as the *F-Measure* and calculated as follows:

$$\text{F-Measure} = \frac{2PR}{P + R} \quad (2.1)$$

Melnik et al. [2002b] calculate the quality of match results differently to the calculation of accuracy using F-Measure. They calculate accuracy in terms of the cost of modifying the proposed matching results to the expected match results. The cost is a ratio of the sum of the number of false positives ( $N - C$ ) and false negatives ( $M - C$ ) over the number of expected matchings. Subtracting this cost from 1 returns what they refer to as a measure of accuracy of match results. We refer to this as the *A-Measure*.

The value of A-Measure is always less than, or equal to F-Measure since it penalizes the measure of match quality for false positives and false negatives. It returns a negative value when the precision is less than 0.5, that is, more than half of the matches are wrong. This is where the cost of correcting the false positives and false negatives outweigh the cost of manual matching.

$$\text{A-Measure} = 1 - \frac{(N - C) + (M - C)}{M} = \frac{C}{M} \left( 2 - \frac{N}{C} \right) = R \times \left( 2 - \frac{1}{P} \right) \quad (2.2)$$

### 2.1.8 Schema Matching: Case Studies

In this section we look at two real life cases in the insurance industry, where there is a need to use an automated schema matching tool to perform the initial matching before the integration of data marts.

The first case concerns an insurance company which has over the years acquired other insurance companies offering similar products for cars, boats, home, third party, and life. Each of these companies has developed their own data marts.

Whilst, the integration of the source systems remains a long term objective, the short and medium term objective is however to be able to make a combined analysis of data across these data marts. What helps is that all of the acquired insurers have a similar business model, and the data marts cover similar subject areas such as Policy Renewals, Policy Cancellations, and New Policies.

A business analyst is able to identify data marts from similar subject areas. An automated schema matching can provide the first draft of the match between dimensions and measures. This process will save time and leaves the analyst with accepting or reject the matches.

The second case concerns a large insurance company with a large number of data marts extracted from a third normal form data warehouse. The company has decided that the existing strategy to transform data using ETL into a data warehouse and then into data marts is time consuming and expensive. Instead, they use high performance appliances based on massive parallel processing to create data marts directly from the source systems using database views.

Whilst, the existing data marts are yet to be replaced, there is a large overlap between the new and existing data marts. Again, to save time and cost, an automated schema matching process can be used to perform the initial matching followed by a review of the match results by the analyst.

## 2.2 Structure of Multidimensional Data

### 2.2.1 Dimension Hierarchies

There are many but consistent definitions of dimension hierarchy. Hurtado and Mendelzon [2001] consider a hierarchy as being a directed acyclic graph (DAG) of levels (each corresponding to a node of the graph) where each roll-up relationship is an edge connecting a pair of nodes.

A commonly understood definition is that, it contains several related levels, and that the relationships are used for *roll-up* and *drill-down* operations [Malinowski and Zimányi, 2006]. Dimension hierarchies are also critical to storage optimization, summarizability and accurate integration of multidimensional data. They can be also used as the basis for data clustering which can significantly improve performance of queries against data marts [Samet, 1990; IBM DB2, 2009]. Assuming two levels  $l_1$  and  $l_2$ , we need to know the roll-up relationship between these two levels to establish if the data is summarizable as far as these two levels are concerned.

Dimension hierarchies are designed after comprehensive analysis of real life data in its fullness and in respect to its domain rules. They are then ideally defined as part of the schema and enforced by the database management system.

A dimension hierarchy can be mapped to ER (Entity Relationship) where each relationship can be shown using (0,M) on the (child) level and (1,1) at the other (parent) level [Malinowski and Zimányi, 2006]. Figure 2.3 shows ER representation of the levels of a hierarchy of a Store dimension.

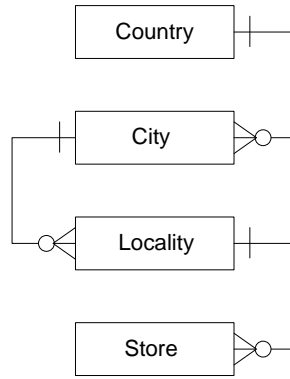


Figure 2.3: ER representation of a hierarchy.

Hacid and Sattler [1997] define a dimension hierarchy as a finite, partially ordered set  $(H, \succ)$ , where  $\succ$  is a strict ordering and each level is a subset  $l \in H$ . Similarly, Torlone [2008] defines a dimension hierarchy as a partial order  $\preceq$  on a finite set of levels  $L$  where each partial order relationship  $l_i \preceq l_j$  corresponds to a roll-up.

Another way to describe hierarchies is to consider them as constraints applied against their instances. Hurtado and Mendelzon [2002] consider hierarchies as constraints that augment schemas to model dimension instances. They consider a dimension constraint as a Boolean combination of two sorts of atoms: *path atoms* and *equality atoms*. Path atoms start from a unique category called the root of the constraint. For example, if Store rolls up to City then the root of the location dimension is Store and the constraint consists of a single path atom Store.City.

There may be multiple hierarchies in a dimension in which case each hierarchy is a Direct Acyclic Graph (DAG) or a tree. Each hierarchy consists of a number of levels, and each level is associated with a category or grouping on which measures are aggregated. For example, levels of a location hierarchy are Country, State and City. The hierarchy is defined using partial order relationships (that is M:1) between levels, e.g.  $\text{Town} \preceq \text{City} \preceq \text{Country}$ . Each partial order relationship corresponds to a *roll-up*. The partial order relationships between levels determine the expected order in which measures are aggregated.

### 2.2.2 Summarizability

Earlier in this section, we said that the roll-up relationship between levels of the hierarchy is a M:1 relationship. According to Rafanelli et al. [1990], data is *summarizable* when every measure  $m$  at any level  $l_i$  can be computed by summing  $m$  at the level  $l_{i-1}$  where  $l_{i-1} \preceq l_i$ . It is a property of summarizable data Strictness preventing double counting. It requires that when aggregating at the higher levels, the tree structures implied by roll-up relationships are maintained in respect to the data. Where this holds true, the dimension is said to be *strict* [Rafanelli, 2003].

For example, given the hierarchy in Figure 2.3, the instance of the hierarchy shown in Figure 2.4 is not strict and, hence, the data is not summarizable. The sales amount in store Store\_B is double counted as it is attributed to two cities. Rafanelli and Shoshani [1990] refer to this case as a multi-valued mapping. Non-strictness in dimensions may occur during updates and can be prevented using data integrity constraints [Hurtado et al., 1999].

It is possible that members of a parent level with the same label, refer to different

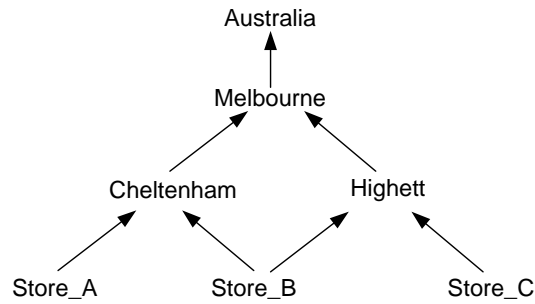


Figure 2.4: An example of a non-strict instance.

real world entities i.e. *homonym* members<sup>1</sup>. For example, the two cities Melbourne and Melbourne relate to two different states Victoria and Florida. Although this case does not result in double counting, it can lead to some other aggregation problems. For example, if we aggregate the sales amount based on City only, we will have an over-estimated measure of sales amount for an ambiguous city. Rafanelli and Shoshani [1990] refer to this as a special case of single-valued mapping. As a solution, they recommend that the member of the child level also includes the member at the parent level.

### 2.2.3 Levels

Torlone conceptually defines a dimension  $D$  as a finite set  $L = \{l_1, \dots, l_n\}$  of levels where each level is a distinct grouping of data [Torlone, 2008]. Levels are synonymous to *aggregation levels*. The partial order or roll-up relationships between levels determine the dimension hierarchies. The lowest level of the hierarchy, called the *base level*, determines the data at its finest granular level and is denoted by  $\perp$ . The top level denoted by  $\top$  represents the highest level of grouping of data.

<sup>1</sup>The correct term is in fact *homograph*, we use *homonym* because it is more widely known as such.

### 2.2.4 Members

Members are distinct values in each level. In the context of the relational implementation, attribute values correspond to members of levels. Torlone [2008] classifies members into those that refer to real world entities belonging to the base levels, and the rest being groups of members. For example, in Figure 2.4, the member *Store\_A* of the level *Store* refers to a distinct real world entity and the member *Melbourne* of the level *City* is a group of stores.

### 2.2.5 Dimension Table

*Dimension table* is the relational implementation of a dimension (as an abstract concept). It is a relation over a set of columns referred to as *dimension attributes*. A level in a dimension table is associated with a unique set of dimension attributes and determines a distinct grouping of data. Distinct values of dimension attributes correspond to members of the level to which the attributes belong to. Dimension hierarchies are defined over levels of a dimension table.

### 2.2.6 Data Mart

An instance of a Star schema is a data mart. Torlone [2008] formally defines data mart  $f$  over a set  $D$  of dimensions composed of a scheme (Star schema) and an instance of it. The scheme  $f[A_i : l_1, \dots, A_n : l_n] \rightarrow \langle M_1 : \tau_1, \dots, M_m : \tau_m \rangle$ , where each  $A_i$  is a distinct attribute,  $l_i$  is a level of some dimension in  $D$ , each  $M_j$  is a distinct measure, and each  $\tau_j$  is some base type.

An instance is defined as a partial function mapping coordinates for  $f$  to facts for  $F$ ,



where a coordinate is a tuple over the attributes of  $f$  mapping each attribute name  $A_i$  to a member of  $l_i$ , and a *fact* is a tuple over the measures of  $f$  mapping each measure  $m_i$  to a value in the domain of type  $\tau_j$ .

## 2.3 Inferring Dimension Hierarchies

### 2.3.1 Schema Based Hierarchies

*Schema Based Hierarchies* are explicitly defined as part of the schema and enforced by the database management system, or defined and enforced as part of the application. The following is an example of how dimension hierarchies such as those of the *StoreDimension* are defined on an Oracle database [Oracle, 2005].

```
CREATE DIMENSION StoreDimension
  LEVEL Region    IS (Region_Name)
  LEVEL Country   IS (Country_Name)
  LEVEL City      IS (City_Name)
  LEVEL Locality  IS (Locality_Name)
  LEVEL Store     IS (Store_Name)
  LEVEL Division  IS (Division_Name)

  HIERARCHY StoreRollup_1 (
    Store          CHILD OF
    Locality       CHILD OF
    City           CHILD OF
    Country        CHILD OF
    Region)

  HIERARCHY StoreRollup_2 (
    Store          CHILD OF
    Division       CHILD OF
    Country        CHILD OF
    Region)
```

This is, however, a proprietary description of hierarchies provided by a specific vendor. Other database management systems either do not have a provision for describing hierar-

chies, or describe them differently.

### 2.3.2 Inferred Hierarchies

Schema based aggregation hierarchies may not be available in the following circumstances:

(i) when accessing unfamiliar data sources from external sources, (ii) where the database management system does not support inclusion of the dimension hierarchy as part of the schema, (iii) no documentation is available to describe the hierarchy.

A dimension hierarchy that is inferred by any mean other than from the schema or the application, is an *inferred hierarchy*. In Chapter 3, we propose to infer aggregation hierarchies from their instances. In what follows next in this chapter, we describe the related work on this problem.

### 2.3.3 Inferring Functional Dependencies

In Section 2.2.1, we explained that aggregation hierarchies could be defined in terms of partial order relationship between levels. It happens that partial order corresponds to functional dependency. For example, in Figure 2.5, the roll-up  $\text{Store} \preceq \text{Locality}$  corresponds to the functional dependency  $\text{Store} \rightarrow \text{Locality}$ . That is, *Store* determines the *Locality* and *Locality* is determined by *Store*.

Inferring functional dependencies has been studied by several authors [Carpineto et al., 2009; Kantola et al., 1992; Mannila and Räihä, 1994; Romero et al., 2009] against relational databases for a wide range of applications including data clustering, database design and query optimization.

Functional dependencies over a number of attributes is a set of unique combinations of those attributes on the left and right hand side of the dependency. As such, the complexity of the algorithms to infer these dependencies is significant.

Mannila and R  ih   [1994] suggest several algorithms for inferring functional dependencies from example data in relational databases. Their improved sort-based algorithm has a complexity of  $O(mnp \log p + n2^{2n})$  where  $n$  is the number of attributes,  $p$  is the number of tuples, and  $m$  is the number of sorts.

### 2.3.4 Inferred Dimension Hierarchies

Jensen et al. [2004] discover multidimensional structures in relational databases using physical metadata from the schema. They also propose a method for discovery of dimension hierarchies. They consider attribute values as being single members of each level.

Akoka et al. [2001] derive dimension hierarchies from UML schemas. They do so by mapping M:1 (i.e. many-to-1) aggregation into a dimension hierarchy. This approach can work well only if the (UML) schema information on dimension hierarchies is available.

Romero et al. [2009] have suggested using conceptual representations of the domain ontology in discovering functional dependencies. This approach relies on analysis of assertions concerning functional dependencies in ontologies. It uses an ontology reasoner to discover the closure of asserted functional dependencies. Similar to the problem with unavailability of schema defined hierarchies, it is even less likely for domain ontologies to be available and, hence, the approach has limited application. Nevertheless, subject to the availability of the domain ontologies, accuracy and the completeness of the rules, the hier-

archies inferred using this method can be closer to the intended hierarchies than using data which may not reflect the real world population of the dimension.

Mazón et al. [2006] explore semantic relations by using lexical repositories such as WordNet [Fellbaum et al., 2011] to identify levels of aggregations. WordNet is an electronic lexicon which captures hypernym (i.e. superordinate) and meronym (i.e. subordinate) relations for nouns. This work does not rely on schema information, however, the accuracy of derivation depends largely on whether the members can be successfully looked up in the lexicon. Unfortunately, in more cases than otherwise, members are codes and abbreviated names.

## 2.4 Matching Requirements for Integration of Dimensions

### 2.4.1 Conformed Dimensions

Several people have investigated the pre-integration requirements for dimensions. *Conformity* between dimension tables is a well known set of such requirements and is also widely used in the industry. Kimball and Ross [2002] define two dimension tables as being conformed if they have identical keys, and identical attributes, and that matching attributes must have identical values, or one must be a subset of the other. They also add that conformed dimension tables must mean the same thing. Similarly, Mundy et al. [2006] define two dimension tables as being conformed if they have the same name and contents. Giovino [2000] requires the same instance of a conformed dimension table to be joined to multiple fact tables. These very similar descriptions of conformity concern relational implementation of dimensions and are fairly strict since their scope concerns all attributes of a dimension table.

### 2.4.2 Compatible Dimensions

Torlone [2008] acknowledges that Kimball's definition of conformed dimension tables is not suitable to autonomous data marts and defines dimension compatibility as an alternative. He offers a comprehensive analysis of the requirements for *compatible dimensions* in terms of three properties of the matching between dimensions, but only against their matching levels. These are *coherence*, *consistency* and *soundness* defined as constraints against matching levels of a pair of dimensions. In what follows next, we explain Torlone's requirements for compatible dimensions.

The mapping  $\mu$  between the integrating dimensions ( $d_1$  and  $d_2$ ) is said to be *coherent* if every partial order between each pair of levels  $l$  and  $l'$  of  $d_1$  also exists between those levels of  $d_2$  that match with  $l$  and  $l'$ . This property ensures that the hierarchies involving matching levels in  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are identical:

**Definition 2.1. Coherence:** the matching  $\mu$  between dimensions  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  is coherent if, for each pair of levels  $l, l'$  of  $d_1$  on which  $\mu$  is defined,  $l \preceq l'$  if and only if  $\mu(l) \preceq \mu(l')$  [Torlone, 2008].

Figure 2.5 shows the mapping between the matching levels of Store and Shop dimensions. For example, Country  $\preceq$  Region appears in Store dimension only and City  $\preceq$  Division appears in Shop dimension only. Also, the roll-up Locality  $\preceq$  Division exists in Shop dimension but not in Store dimension. Therefore, the mapping between the two dimensions is not coherent.

The second property is *consistency* and involves hierarchies and their instances. This property requires that integrated instances conform to the original hierarchies.

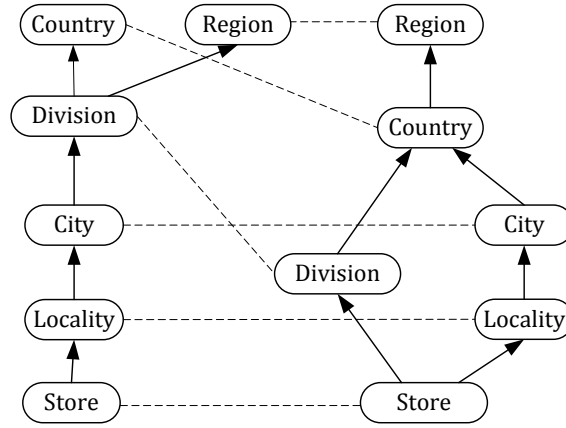


Figure 2.5: Incoherent mapping between Shop and Store dimensions.

**Definition 2.2. Consistency:** The matching  $\mu$  is consistent if, for each pair of levels  $l \preceq l'$  of  $d_1$  on which  $\mu$  is defined,  $\rho_1^{l \rightarrow l'} = \rho_2^{\mu(l) \rightarrow \mu(l')}$  [Torlone, 2008].

Figure 2.6 shows instances of the two Store and Shop dimensions using levels which make the matching between their hierarchies  $(\text{Store} \equiv \text{Shop}) \preceq (\text{Locality} \equiv \text{Locality}) \preceq (\text{Country} \equiv \text{Country}) \preceq (\text{Region} \equiv \text{Region})$  coherent. However, the matching between the Store and Shop dimensions is not consistent because the partial order relationship  $(\text{Store} \equiv \text{Shop}) \preceq (\text{Locality} \equiv \text{Locality})$  will not hold after the integration of their dimensions. The reason is that the member St3 belonging to the level  $(\text{Store} \equiv \text{Shop})$  rolls up to two different localities Loc2 and Loc5.

If the test for coherence fails, then there is no need to continue with the test for consistency. To pass the test for coherence, it is possible to exclude from the hierarchies (and consequently from the integration) those levels that are the cause of the incoherence. By removing Division and (Country or Region) the test for consistency would pass using the remaining levels and, hence, we could achieve partial integration.

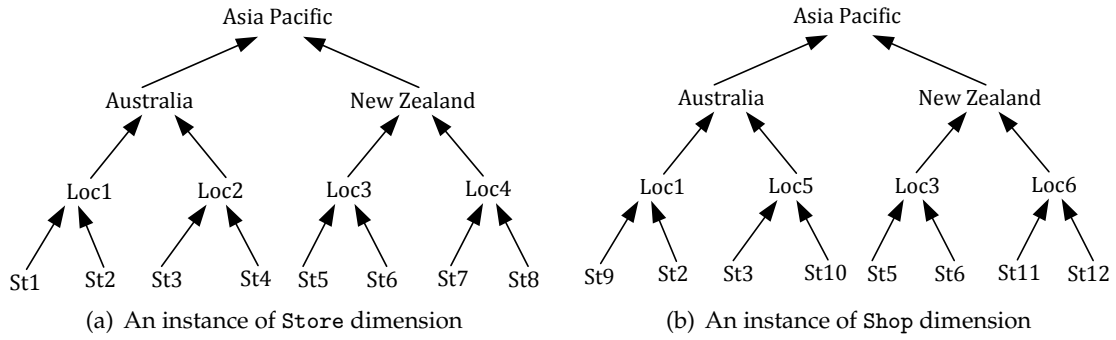


Figure 2.6: Inconsistency between Store and Shop dimensions.

Failing to satisfy the requirements for consistency results in the violation of the M:1 relationships in the integrated result, as it no longer conforms to the hierarchy in the original dimensions. Therefore, consistency ensures the strictness (a property of summarizability) in the integrated data.

The third property is *soundness*. The matching between two dimensions is sound if for every member of every level in one dimension there is a matching member in the corresponding matching level of the matching dimension:

**Definition 2.3. Soundness:** The matching  $\mu$  is sound if, for each level  $l \subseteq L_1$  on which  $\mu$  is defined, every member of level  $l$  must have a matching member in the level with which  $l$  matches, that is  $m_1(l) = m_2(\mu(l))$  [Torlone, 2008].

In Figure 2.6, the matching between the two dimensions is not sound since there are mismatching members Loc2, Loc3, Loc4, Loc5, Loc6 in Locality, and St1, St4, St7, St8, St9, St10, St11, St12 in Store/Shop levels.

**Definition 2.4.**  $\mu$  is called a perfect matching if all of the matchings are coherent, sound and consistent [Torlone, 2008].

Acknowledging that soundness is difficult to achieve in particular with heterogeneous dimensions, Torlone defines a less strict variation of perfect matching:

**Definition 2.5.** *Two dimensions  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are  $\mu$ -compatible if there exists two lossless expressions  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  such that  $\mu$  is perfect matching between  $E_1(d_1)$  and  $E_2(d_2)$  [Torlone, 2008].*

For brevity, this thesis will use the term ‘compatible’ to refer to ‘ $\mu$ -compatible’.

Although Torlone’s definitions of compatibility is at a conceptual level, and conformity concerns relational implementation of dimensions, we can say that compatibility is less strict than conformity, because (i) it is not applied against all levels of dimensions, and (ii) if there are some lossless expressions applied against dimensions, then the soundness is only applied against a subset of members. Therefore, every pair of conformed dimension tables is also compatible but the reverse may not be true.

A similar set of requirements to compatibility by Grossmann and Moshner [2007] verify for three types of conflicts due to: (i) mismatch in one-to-many relationships, (ii) mismatches in hierarchies caused by coarse requirements, and (iii) conflicts according to non-corresponding value domains. These are, in effect, very similar to the requirements for compatible dimensions.

## 2.5 Instance Matching and Enforcing Strictness

### 2.5.1 Duplicate Detection

Generally, the literature classifies the instance or data matching problem as *duplicate detection*. That is, finding two or more rows in the same table that are likely to refer to the



same entity. We divide the approaches for solving this problem into hierarchical and non-hierarchical. Approaches taken for non-hierarchical data exploit string similarity, supervised and unsupervised learning, and data clustering [Elmagarmid et al., 2007]. Hierarchy based approaches also look at the relationship between attributes, and between tuples (i.e. the hierarchies).

Dimensional data conform to their hierarchy and are, hence, classified as hierarchical data. Hierarchies can be effectively used in instance matching. For example, matching child members are expected to have matching parents, and if child members mostly mismatch, then their parents must be also different. As such, we are interested in methods that exploit the hierarchical structure of data. In the remainder of this section, we review the literature related to duplicate detection in hierarchical data and enforcing strictness.

The first work that exploited hierarchies in detecting duplicates in hierarchical data was DELPHI [Ananthakrishna et al., 2002]. DELPHI uses a measure called *Foreign Key Containment Metric* (fkcm) which measures the similarity between the children of two parent objects. The problem addressed by the authors is detecting duplicate rows in dimension tables with foreign key constraint between them (i.e. snowflaked dimensions). The main issue with DELPHI as noted by Weis and Naumann [2005] is that the similarity measures are not symmetric, that is member  $m$  may be a match to  $m'$  but the reverse may not be true.

Inspired by DELPHI, Weis and Naumann [2002] use a similar intuition. They measure the similarity between XML elements using the similarity between parent members, the similarity of data, and the hierarchy of their children. The similarity measure between two sets of tokens is the Inverse Document Frequency (IDF) value of their common tokens to the

IDF value of all non-common tokens. Similar to Ananthakrishna et al. [2002], their work also follows a top down approach.

Weis and Naumann [2004] later extended their work by development of Dogmatix [Weis and Naumann, 2005], which provides a framework for detecting duplicate entities in XML documents. There are two main heuristics used in the pair wise comparison of objects. These are *r-distant ancestors* and *r-distant descendants*. They are based on the intuition that the closer the information are to the element, the more related they are. For example, the city 'LA' is more related to the state 'CAL' than the suburb 'Beverly Hills'. All elements whose depth in the document is within a given radius are used in creating the description of the object. In this respect Dogmatix benefits from similarities at the child as well as at the parent levels.

Calado et al. [2010] review recent approaches in XML duplicate detection. The review makes two important findings: (i) Dogmatix is a more effective method; (ii) missing data affects similarity measures more than typographical errors and duplicate erroneous data. The algorithms used in the above works are not designed to identify matchings between two instances.

Milano et al. [2006] and Kailing et al. [2004] use the structure of XML documents to calculate *tree edit distance*. The algorithm suggested by Milano et al. [2006] attempts to find similarity between tree structures by finding the most optimal overlays.

Other hierarchy based approaches include additional instance matcher added to COMA++ [Engmann and Massmann, 2007] for matching ontologies. It does not, however, provide for defining relationship between matching levels and, hence, it matches members from mis-

matching levels, and therefore, increases the false positives.

Similarity flooding has been used to identify similar structures and concepts. Marshall et al. [2006] use this algorithm for matching concept maps. They have introduced a "node anchoring" mechanism by which key terms and common abbreviations are identified as anchor points. Whenever these terms are found, they are locked as best matches. Pan et al. [2010] use key terms and abbreviations in place of string matching to improve the recall.

### 2.5.2 Consistent Query Answering

Where integrity constraints are violated (due to non-strict data), the database instance is said to be *inconsistent* as query results will not be consistent with the constraints. This problem was first investigated by Arenas et al. [1999].

Consistent query answering aims to return consistent answers where the data itself is not. This is usually done by obtaining a *minimal repair*, that is a variation of the instance that satisfies the integrity constraints and its variation is minimal relative to other repairs. This problem differs to the problem we are concerned with in the sense that it deals with inconsistencies within a single source.

Various approaches have been suggested to obtain consistent query results. They include deletion of inconsistent tuples, computing all possible repairs [Wijsen, 2006], returning a range of values for each set of consistent data [Arenas et al., 2001; Betrossi et al., 2009; Sismanis et al., 2009], and nullifying inconsistent data at the attribute level [Chomicki, 2006; Liu et al., 2008].

### 2.5.3 Enforcing Strictness

A different approach to deal with inconsistent data is to view it as a summarizability issue resulting from non-strictness [Horner and Song, 2005; Horner et al., 2004]. These approaches are concerned with modifying the instance such that it becomes consistent with its hierarchy. These approaches are, however, concerned with resolving non-strictness inherent within a single source. They cannot, however, guarantee consistency after the integration. In the following we briefly review the major works in this area.

Considerable research has been invested into solving this issue in the past decade. Pedersen et al. [1999] suggested creating a new parent by fusing the old parent values and linking it to what the old parents linked to, but cut the old members from their original parents.

Bertossi et al. [2009] create a canonical dimension that isolates inconsistent members. In the canonical dimension, inconsistent parent members are fused together and a range of values for fused members are returned.

A different approach by Luján-Mora et al. [2001] suggests reducing inconsistency by resolving string differences resulting from the use of different case letters, omission and inclusion of accents which can be useful before the matching.

Mazón et al. [2009] provide a comprehensive summary of the approaches to deal with non-strictness and other causes of unsummarizable data. These approaches are only effective if we have prior knowledge of intended match results.

To prevent inconsistency, specific operators such as *addInstance* are introduced to ensure that the added element reaches the same element in the levels above it [Hurtado et al., 1999;

Letz et al., 2002].

Another approach to resolve inconsistency in a single source is to somehow merge the tuples involved. However, this approach assumes that the match is correct and inconsistent tuples are in fact the same which may not be the case. For example, resolution strategy by Anokhin and Morto [2001] suggests reducing inconsistent tuples into one by choosing each attribute value from one of the merging tuples based on some predetermined rules. A similar method used by Wisjen et al. [2006] chooses the more up to date tuple. Greco and Molinaro [2008] suggest updating the inconsistent members with a domain (for an unknown set of values) which contains the inconsistent members.

#### **2.5.4 Resolving Inconsistency Across Multiple Sources**

The problem of resolving inconsistencies across multiple sources has received little attention. Agrawal et al. [1995] investigate integration of multiple databases that may be mutually inconsistent. Their approach is not concerned with discovery of the actual inconsistencies but rather extends each relation by attributes that would allow operations such as merge, equivalence, selection, and union to resolve the inconsistencies. Extended relations enable the definition of integrated Views over relations that may be inconsistent. They provide a model and a set of operations that enable resolve inconsistencies.

Another notable work is by Torlone [2008]. The author exploits hierarchies to recover a null parent member in one source by looking at the parent of the same member in another source. For any pair of matching child members where one of the parents member is null, Torlone proposes to replace the null parent member with the parent of the correspond-

ing child member. The main concern with this approach is that it assumes that the match between the child members is a true positive.

## 2.6 Extending the Scope of Integration

Earlier in this chapter, we described conformity and compatibility between dimensions for accurate integration and maintaining summarizability. We also said that compatibility was less strict than conformity and therefore, it allows for greater segments of data to be integrated. The main operation used for integrating data marts is drill-across. In this section, we review the literature in respect to extending the drill-across operation to maximize the scope of the integration. We also review the related work on visualization of integrated multidimensional data from multiple data cubes or marts.

Drill-across is an OLAP operation used to navigate from an origin data cube to a target data cube using some common coordinates (in other words compatible dimensions). Cabibbo and Torlone [2004] define drill-across as an extension to the natural join where the intersection of the two dimensions is aggregated at the finest grain of the dimensions.

Abello et al. [2002; 2003] define the operation *drill-across* as changing subject (facts) in the same analysis space. They also find the strict requirement of dimension conformity to be restrictive for the purpose of drill-across. This operation, according to them, requires that selected instances in dimensions of the origin source to determine instances in the dimensions of the target source, and that the domains are related in some way. They have identified semantic relationships: *Derivation*, *Generalization*, *Association* and *Flow* to extend possibilities to perform drill-across by using these operations to map what would be other-

wise mismatching members and, thereby, improve soundness. These relationships can be compared with lossless expressions used by Torlone [2008] for defining compatible dimensions. In Chapter 6, we further relax the requirements for compatible dimensions to allow for greater scope of integration.

In the following, we briefly review major works on visualization of multiple data cubes. Various methods have been proposed to visualize multiple but related data cubes and provide flexible representation of dimension structure using graphical representations of data.

Vinnik and Mansmann [2006] show a tree like structure of dimensions as an effective method in visualizing dimension structures. Polaris [Stolte et al., 2008] achieves visualization of multiple data cubes by partitioning data into groups and allocating them into independent panes.

ADVIZOR introduced by Eick [2000] uses a set of linked views displayed on the same screen where each view is used to show a number of measures. There is, however, no evidence that ADVIZOR can visualize multiple related data cubes.

Visual Pivot, introduced by Conklin et al. [2002], aims at visualization of data structures composed of multiple intersecting hierarchies called *Polyarchies* sharing at least one node. The aim of Visual Pivot is to track similar information in multiple hierarchies.

CoDecide introduced by Gebhardt et al. [1998] is an OLAP data visualization tool that enables multiple users to have different views of one or multiple data cubes, and allows users participate in a cooperative analysis of the subject.

## 2.7 Drill Across and Data Visualization: Case Study

Case studies described in Section 2.1.8 require integration of data marts which may share only some dimensions and measures. For example, one may be concerned with car insurance policies and another with home. They both include common dimensions such as policy number, inception date, due date, payment frequency, and common measures such as number of risks, and premium amount. Whilst the user can query each one of the data marts separately through a visualization device that supports ROLAP data cubes, the user needs to know how many risks come up for renewal on any day regardless of whether the type of the risk being insured is a car or a home.

From those risks that are up for a renewal for a given day, users require to re-group the home policies by construction age and the car policies by driver age. Naturally, these dimensions are only exclusive to the original data marts. The conventional approach is to navigate back to each one of the original data marts and re-apply the same constraints to the dimensions to obtain the remaining exclusive information. This approach is cumbersome as the user will have to repeat the same process each time a new renewal date is chosen.

Figure 2.7 shows two data cubes sharing two dimensions *Renewal Date* and *Payment Frequency*, and exclusive dimensions *Construction Age* and *Driver Age*. The drill-across forms a cartesian join of the two cubes which needs to be related back to the dimensions that are not common in the original data cubes.



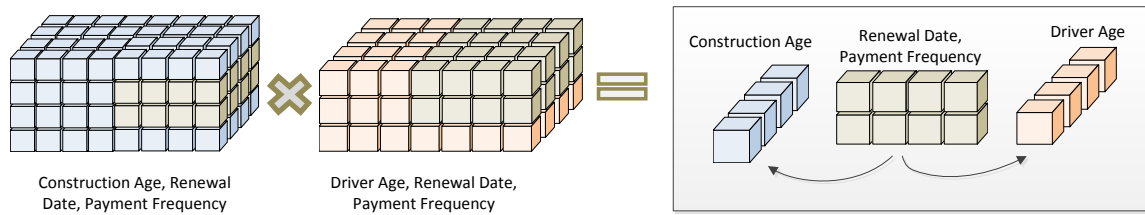


Figure 2.7: Extending the drill across to exclusive dimensions.

## 2.8 Discussion

In this chapter, we described data warehousing concepts to which we refer to in this thesis, and discussed the literature relevant to four related areas namely schema matching, inferring aggregation hierarchies, instance matching, and extending the scope of integration.

**Schema matching:** We described several existing approaches for discovery and representation multidimensional structures from various sources such as XML, DDL, DTD, UML, and ER diagrams. The main shortcomings of these approaches which we aim to address in Chapter 3 are that they omit some important properties of Star schemas and that the information they use to infer Star schemas from may not be available.

We discussed several approaches for matching data warehouse schemas. Whilst, these approaches benefit from some properties of multidimensional structures, they fall short of taking advantage of some of their important physical properties. They also do not follow any specific model and do not demonstrate how their approach compares with others.

**Inferring aggregation hierarchies:** We highlighted the absence of aggregation hierarchies as the main motivation to infer them, and described several approaches in the literature on inferring hierarchies. These approaches use various sources of information including metadata, UML schemas, domain ontologies and lexical repositories. One approach

inferred hierarchies from data but it also used SQL queries and did not eliminate transitive relationships.

The main problem with using metadata, domain ontologies and lexical repositories is that these they cannot prevent a false positive case. That is, where the relation between two levels is M:1, these approaches may return what is in fact a M:M (i.e. many-to-many), because the information they use may be insufficient and imprecise. This problem cannot occur when using data. Moreover, information such as UML schemas and ontologies may not be available. Since instances of dimensions need to conform to their hierarchies, they can provide a solid clue to their hierarchies. For this reason, in Chapter 4, we use data to infer aggregation hierarchies.

**Instance matching and enforcing strictness:** We explained the significance of exploiting the hierarchical structure of multidimensional data and focused on methods for instance matching. Except for DELPHI which is aimed at relational data, the majority of such approaches are in fact aimed at matching XML data which is highly structured and hierarchical. To the best of our knowledge there is no algorithm specifically for matching multidimensional data. However, with some difficulty this problem can be mapped to the problem of duplicate detection in XML data. Unfortunately, implementations of these approaches were not available to us to compare their effectiveness.

Similarity flooding is an approach that we use to perform schema matching (discussed in Chapter 3) but, as we will demonstrate in Chapter 5, is even more effective and suitable for matching multidimensional data.

One side effect of using algorithms which exploit hierarchies is that the number of false

positives can increase when there is a high volume of missing data in either or both instances. This problem highlighted by Calado et al. [2010] was also experienced during our experiments with similarity flooding described in Chapter 5.

**Extending The Scope of Integration:** We discussed the requirements for integration of dimensions and that compatibility was less strict than conformity. Although, the definition for compatible dimensions does take into consideration the use of lossless expressions to extend the scope of the integration, assuming a single pair of such expressions is also restrictive. In Chapter 6, we further relax the requirements for soundness by considering multiple expressions applied to different fragments of data. What is useful to discovery of expressions is to identify which fragments of data, and to what extent is the problem of mismatching members. We address this problem when we extend the scope of integration in Chapter 6 by providing several metrics to measure the extent of mismatching members.

Another notable work on extending the integration is by Abello et al. [2002; 2003] who propose certain operations that would improve the match between members. These operations play a similar role to lossless expression. A shortcoming of the drill-across is that it makes no provision to link the common data to the non-conformed or non-compatible dimensions.

We reviewed some of the main advances made in visualization of multiple data cubes. What is however lacking is that, where coordinates of data change in one analysis space, the same to also occur in related spaces of data sharing some common dimensions. In Chapter 6, we discuss a conceptual representation of data from multiple data marts which also includes the related non-compatible dimensions.

## Chapter 3

# Matching Star Schemas

*"We are all in the gutter, but some of us are looking at the stars."*

Oscar Wilde (1854 - 1900)

Star schema is a relational model, and therefore, existing approaches for matching relational schemas also apply to Star schemas. As we discussed in Chapter 2, Star schemas have distinct and predictable properties and relationships. Consequently, a customized and more precise representation of the relational model that is designed to include specific properties and relationships of Star schemas could be considered.

In this chapter, we propose StarMod as a more precise representation of Star schemas. The immediate benefit of StarMod is that Star schemas described using StarMod would be more expressive and would be defined consistently. But, more importantly we demonstrate that when compared to using the relational model, using StarMod improves the quality of match results between Star schemas. We also demonstrate that StarMod can be also effective

for matching arbitrary relational schemas.

Our representation of Star schemas covers similar concepts to those suggested in the literature but, it includes additional properties to improve their match results and expressiveness. Star schemas described as instances of StarMod (i.e. those that use StarMod properties for their representation) will, therefore, be standardized, and can be used in an automated process. We also present a set of heuristics to infer instances of StarMod (used in the matching process) from XML schemas corresponding to their relational schemas.

In our evaluation, we use Similarity Flooding (SF) [Melnik et al., 2002b] to perform matching between a number of Star and non-star schemas described using the relational model and StarMod, and compare their results. All results are then compared against those obtained from COMA++ [Do and Rahm, 2002] for the same schemas.

### 3.1 Motivations for Automated Matching of Star Schemas

Schema matching is a prerequisite to the integration of data marts. Automation of this process is critical to reducing reliance on database experts and making the integration process fast and cost effective. This problem is more acute for unseen heterogeneous data marts.

Despite attempts to provide industrial strength solutions to automate the matching of relational schemas [Bernstein et al., 2004; Haas et al., 2005], most organizations prefer to employ experts to perform the matching and integration of their relational databases. This is tolerated as organizational changes that necessitate the integration of their data sources do not occur frequently. Moreover, the integrated schema must be designed in such a way that it is flexible enough to accommodate future business requirements and supports transaction

processing operations.

However, there are different considerations in a business intelligence environment where the emphasis is on the agility of the integration process as there is always a need to integrate data from multiple sources at short notice. In many cases, the resulting schema from the integration has a short life span.

A common application of a semi-automated Star schema matching is where a data analyst wishes to have a combined view of data marts for related subject areas. Other motivating scenarios are:

- where a business enterprise with disparate data warehouses for different lines of business such as banking, insurance and wealth needs to combine some of its data marts around customer and address information for marketing campaigns; and
- the need to integrate local data marts with externally sourced data marts such as those sourced from Bureau of Statistics and market surveys.

Furthermore, organizations with large data warehouses develop many data marts over time, many of which overlap [Business Objects and Teradata, 2007]. Matching and integration of these data marts using a semi-automated process guided by a domain analyst will improve the agility and reduces costs for providing new reports from combining existing data marts.

Star schemas conforming to principles specified by Kimball and Ross [2002] have a certain topology and, hence, are more restricted than arbitrary relational schemas which makes them to be more predictable. This allows us to anticipate their model and identify their dis-

tinct properties.

Schema matching relies on the classification of database properties such as tables, columns, data types, integrity constraints, keys and even data. Intuitively, the specialization of these properties can improve the quality of the matching process. Incidentally, relational properties in Star schemas can be defined more granularly. Generic relational properties such as *table* and *column* fail to describe properties of Star schemas precisely. This motivates us to consider whether a more precise representation of Star schemas can improve the matching for Star schemas.

### 3.2 Why StarMod?

The motivation for StarMod is multi-fold and related:

- to provide a more expressive, precise, rich and consistent description of multidimensional data,
- to use the schemas in an automated matching process, and
- to improve schema matching results.

It will also make it easier for data modelers to standardize schemas by following what is, essentially, a template for describing these schemas. By exposing the properties of Star schemas through StarMod, designers can potentially improve the model by reducing or eliminating degenerate dimensions and degenerate facts which can also improve the quality of match results because they are no longer incorrectly matched with facts and dimensions.

Given that Star schema model is a specialized form of relational model, we define property classes in StarMod as subclasses of three main classes Table, Column and Key in the relational model. This allows simplification of the StarMod since properties such as name, data type, length, etc. can be inherited from the relational model. Figure 3.1 shows the UML representation of the relational model corresponding to `Relational.owl`, an OWL representation of relational model by de Laborda and Conrad [2005]. The highlighted classes are added by the author of this thesis.

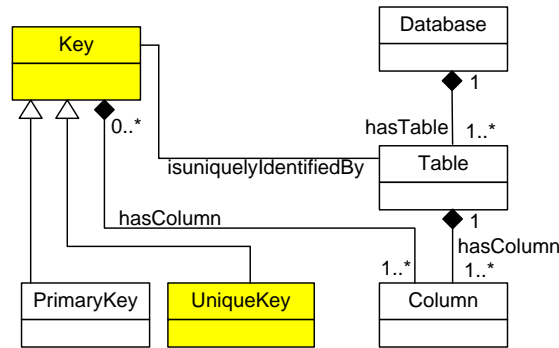


Figure 3.1: UML diagram for relational model.

### 3.3 StarMod Properties and their Application in Schema Matching

StarMod includes a predefined set of concepts, relationships and constraints for describing multidimensional data modelled on Star schema. It can be used as a template to define Star schemas for any domain. In this section, we describe StarMod properties corresponding to the classes shown in UML presentation of StarMod in Figure 3.2, and their applications in matching Star schemas.

A **Star** represents a single Star schema and is defined as an aggregation of a number of



dimension and fact tables. Each *Star* may have none, or more dimension tables but must have precisely one fact table. Conversely, a fact table may belong to one Star only. Dimension tables may be in one or more Stars. These rules, together with the fact that *Elements* of *FactTables* may refer to *Attributes* of *DimensionTables* only, ensures that *Stars* are only constellated through the shared or conformed dimension tables [Giovinazzo, 2000]. Each dimension table is a subtype of a relational table and is an aggregate of one or more *Attributes* being a subtype of the relational column. Dimension and fact tables are related through keys. Making distinction between dimension and fact tables improves the similarity between matching dimension and fact tables as well as their respective columns.

There are three types of *Attributes*:

- i. A **SurrogatekeyAttribute** is a unique sequential number that is generated for every new row. Use of surrogate primary keys is very common in dimension tables [Imhoff et al., 2003]. A surrogate key value is generated at the time the row is inserted. Its definition is vendor specific, for example in an IBM DB2 database, the following statement is used to define a *Surrogate key* to have its value starting from 1 and incremented by one each time a new row is inserted:

```
ALTER COLUMN "DEALER_KEY" GENERATED ALWAYS AS IDENTITY START WITH 1, INCREMENT BY 1
```

It is important to distinguish surrogate keys from other types of attributes, as they do not participate in any aggregation function, and their classification, as such, reduces their similarity with natural keys and other attributes. For example, *customer\_key* may be a customer number in one dimension and a surrogate key in another.

ii. A **DegenerateFact** is an additive attribute to which data functions such as *Sum* or *Average* can be applied. For example, *Number\_of\_Claims* as an attribute of dimension table *Claimant* is classified as a *DegenerateFact*, whereas, *Claim\_Number* as an attribute of dimension table *Claim* is not, even though they have identical data types and similar labels. Degenerate facts are matched with *measures* and degenerate facts. They are, however, rare and are not considered part of the model introduced for Star schemas by Kimball and Ross [2002], and as such are not recommended. They are best placed in fact tables and classified as measures.

iii. **DataAttributes** are generally used as categories by which measures are summarized. Their classification as such allows them to be matched with data attributes and degenerate dimensions (described later in this section).

A **FactTable** is also a subtype of *Table* and is an aggregate of one or more *Elements* being subtypes of *Column*. There are four types of *Elements*:

- i. **SurrogateKeyReference** is a foreign key that refers to a *SurrogateKeyAttribute* of a dimension table. By classifying surrogate key references as such, they are better distinguished from surrogate keys in dimension tables.
- ii. The role of **SurrogateKeyElement** in a fact table is similar to that of *SurrogateKeyAttribute* in a dimension table.
- iii. A **Measure** is an additive (or quantitative) element such as *Number\_of\_Claims* in fact tables [Giovinazzo, 2000]. Additive elements are those to which aggregate functions

such as Sum or Avg can be applied. Classifying elements as measures allows them to have stronger matching with measures than with other properties.

- iv. A **DegenerateDimension** is a dimension attribute for which no dimension exists [Imhoff et al., 2003]. Use of degenerate dimensions is common in Star schemas. By classifying degenerate dimensions as such, we are able to separate them from measures and increase their similarity with other data attributes. For example, `Account_Number` in a fact table is classified as a degenerate dimension and is distinguished from a measure such as `Number_of_Accounts`.

**Hierarchy and Level:** Each dimension *hierarchy* consists of a set of *levels* between which there exists a partial order named *rollsUpTo*. For example, given levels  $l_1$  and  $l_2$  where  $l_1 \preceq l_2$ , we say that  $l_1$  *rollsUpTo*  $l_2$ . Each *level* has one or more *DataAttributes* that uniquely identify it. Aggregation of measures occurs alongside levels of hierarchies.

We represent hierarchies as part of StarMod for completeness of the representation, but do not use them in the schema matching process for several reasons:

- Matching attributes may belong to mismatching hierarchies. Rejecting these matchings as early as the schema matching can be restrictive.
- In many cases, as we will see in Chapters 5 and 6, it is possible to enforce coherence between hierarchies by applying some constraints against the data.
- Even if hierarchies are found to be matching, the data after integration may not conform to the original hierarchies [Torlone, 2008], that is, the matching is not consistent. This is discussed in Chapter 5.

- As discussed in Section 2.3.2 dimension hierarchies are not always readily available and, where inferred, may not be the same as their intended hierarchies. Inference of hierarchies is discussed in Chapter 4.

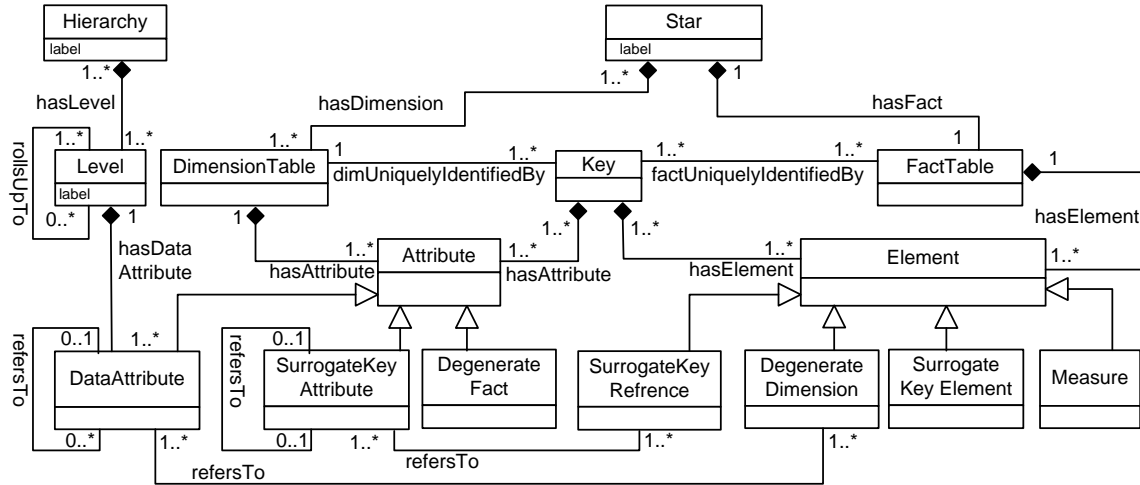


Figure 3.2: UML representation of StarMod.

### 3.3.1 OWL Description of StarMod

We use UML (Unified Modeling Language) to provide a visual representation of StarMod and implement it using RDFS (Resource Description Framework Specification), and OWL (Web Ontology Language) with their constructs corresponding to the UML representation.

An instance of StarMod for a given domain could be also described using UML. However, it is necessary to implement it in some language for the purpose of automated schema matching. We have defined a corresponding version of StarMod in OWL which allows us to define its instances also in OWL. The properties in the OWL description are extensions of `Relational.owl` introduced by de Laborda and Conrad 2005.

Figures 3.3 and 3.4 show the specialization of relational properties into StarMod properties. Highlighted in gray are the relational properties from `Relational.owl`.

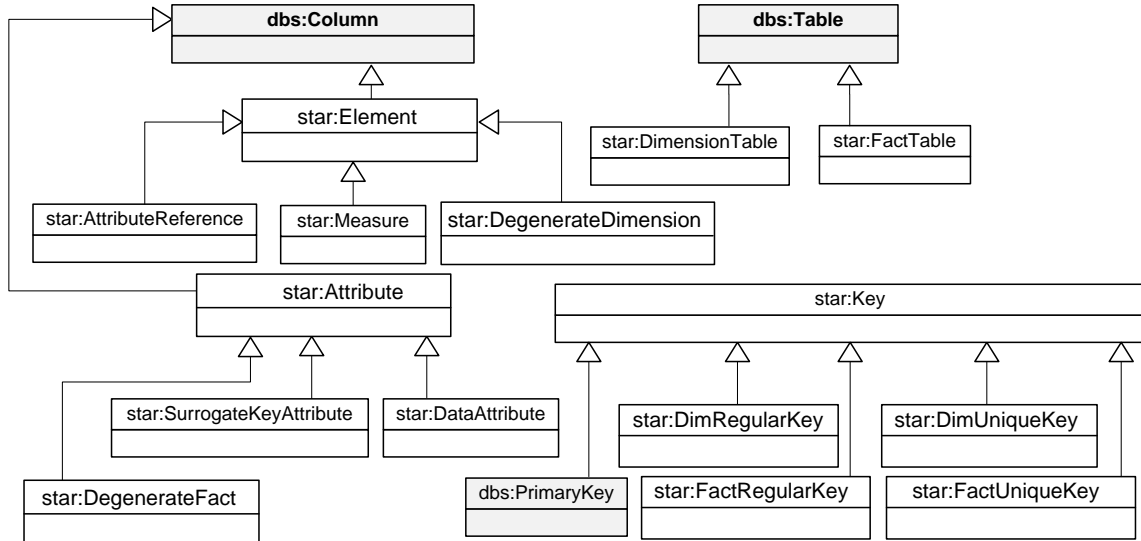


Figure 3.3: Specialization of relational objects in StarMod.

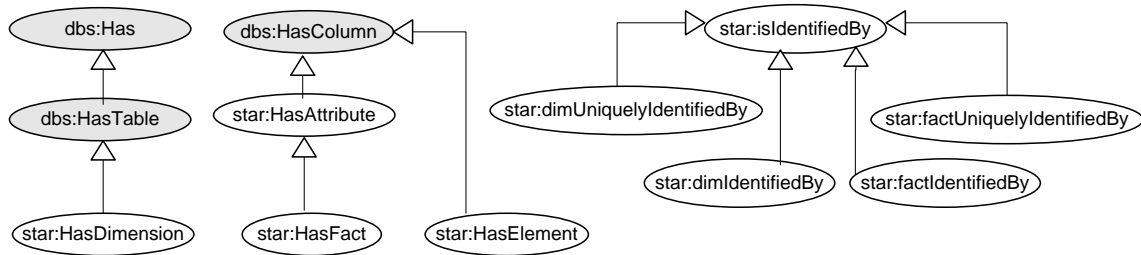


Figure 3.4: Specialization of relationships in relational model in StarMod.

Although, the potentials of an OWL representation are realized when used for its reasoning capability, there are several reasons why the use of OWL is advantageous to writing code in a language such as Java as proposed by Luján-Mora et al. [2006]:

- UML has a formal equivalence with OWL [W3C, 2009].
- UML is also suggested for visual representation of OWL ontologies [Brockmans et al.,

2004].

- There are readily available tools that can convert UML to OWL [Eclipse, 2010].
- RDF statements can be easily extracted from OWL for machine processing.
- The OWL version provides the flexibility for the model to include additional semantic information such as domain ontologies.

The following shows a fragment of StarMod. A complete listing of StarMod is presented in Appendix D.

```
<owl:Class rdf:ID="Star">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#rdf;Bag"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Star Schema</rdfs:label>
</owl:Class>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:ID="hasDimension">
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Has Dimension</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="#has"/>
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Star"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#DimensionTable"/>
</owl:ObjectProperty>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="DimensionTable">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#rdf;Seq"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Dimension Table</rdfs:label>
</owl:Class>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:ID="hasAttribute">
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Has Attribute</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="#has"/>
```

```

<rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#DimensionTable"/>

<rdfs:range rdf:resource="#Attribute"/>

</owl:ObjectProperty>

```

### 3.3.2 Inferring StarMod Properties from Relational Schemas

In this section, we describe a set of heuristics that we use to infer Star properties described earlier in this section. These heuristics use a combination of data types, keys (which also include indexes), and foreign keys. The result is an OWL description of the schema that conforms to StarMod.

**FactTable and DimensionTable:** Similar to Golfarelli et al. [2001] where `xsd:key` and `xsd:keyref` elements are used to establish dimension hierarchies, we say that if the primary key of a table does not appear as foreign key in any table, then we classify the table as a *FactTable*, otherwise it is classified as a *DimensionTable*.

**SurrogateKeyAttribute:** A column whose owning table is a *DimensionTable* is classified as a *SurrogateKeyAttribute*, if it is defined as a primary key and has a constraint for having its value generated.

**DegenerateFact:** Identifying degenerate facts is a difficult task as it requires domain information on the meaning and purpose of the column. In absence of such information, we safely classify a column as a *DegenerateFact* only if its owning table is classified as a *DimensionTable* and its data type is `xsd:decimal` with a restriction defined as `xsd:fractionDigits`.

**DataAttribute:** A column whose owning table is a *DimensionTable* and is not a *SurrogateKeyAttribute* or *DegenerateFact* is classified as *DataAttribute*.

**SurrogateKeyElement:** A column whose owning table is a *FactTable* is classified as a

*SurrogateKeyElement*, if it is defined as part of a key, and has a constraint for having its value generated (similar to the *SurrogateKeyAttribute*).

**SurrogateKeyReference:** A column whose owning table is a *FactTable* is classified as a *SurrogateKeyReference*, if it refers to a *SurrogateKeyAttribute*.

**DegenerateDimension:** Similar to *DegenerateFacts*, accurate classification of degenerate dimensions requires additional semantic information. We safely classify a column as a *DegenerateDimension*, if its owning table is a *FactTable*, and one of the following is true: i) its data type is *xsd:string*, ii) its data type is *xsd:integer* or *xsd:short* or *xsd:decimal*, and is defined as part of a key or a foreign key. A miss-classification is possible where, for example, a column such as POSTCODE defined as a *xsd:short* is not part of a key or foreign key, which is still a degenerate dimension, but by default is classified as a *measure* (described next). This can result in a mismatch if one column is included in the key or the foreign key but its matching column is not. Although degenerate dimensions are used frequently, it is considered to be a good practice to minimize their use and define them as string.

**Measure:** A column whose owning table is a *FactTable* is classified a *Measure*, if one of the following is true: i) it has a data type *xsd:decimal* with the restriction *xsd:fractionDigits*, ii) it has one of the data types *xsd:short*, *xsd:integer* or *xsd:decimal* and is not defined as part of a key or a foreign key. Miss-classification of measures is possible but to a lesser extent, e.g. *no\_of\_cylinders* which does not appear in a key or foreign key and has a data type *xsd:short* is not a measure. Presence of such elements highlight a design shortcoming where non-metric data items are more accurately defined as string.

**Key:** Similar to de Laborda [2005], every *attribute* or *element* that appears in a key is also



made an *attribute* or *element* of a *Key* for the respective dimension or fact table.

**Hierarchies:** As described in Section 2.3.4, dimension hierarchies are not always available and may need to be inferred. For reasons described earlier in Section 3.3, they are not used in the matching process.

**Snowflaked dimensions** exist where a column is classified as *DataAttribute* or *SurrogateKeyAttribute* and refers to a *DataAttribute* or *SurrogateKeyAttribute*. The relationship *refersTo* between surrogate key attributes, and between data attributes indicate that their dimension tables are snowflaked.

### 3.3.3 Implementation of StarMod and Matching of Star Schemas

The input to the process of inferring StarMod from relational schemas is XML schema obtained from an existing relational databases through a tool such as IBM WebSphere [IBM, 2012]. Programs written in XSLT language use heuristics described in Section 3.3.2, to transform the XML schemas (corresponding to the relational schema) to instances of StarMod and Relational.owl described in OWL. Additional XSLT programs are used to transform the OWL predicates into RDF statements which are then directly used by the similarity flooding algorithm. Additional programs were written in Java to fully automate the matching process. Figure 3.5 shows the sequence of processes starting with acquiring schemas to the matching process.

Figure 3.6 shows a Star schema which we will use in as one of the two schemas for our discussion on schema matching.

The following shows an OWL fragment of a StarMod instance inferred using the rules

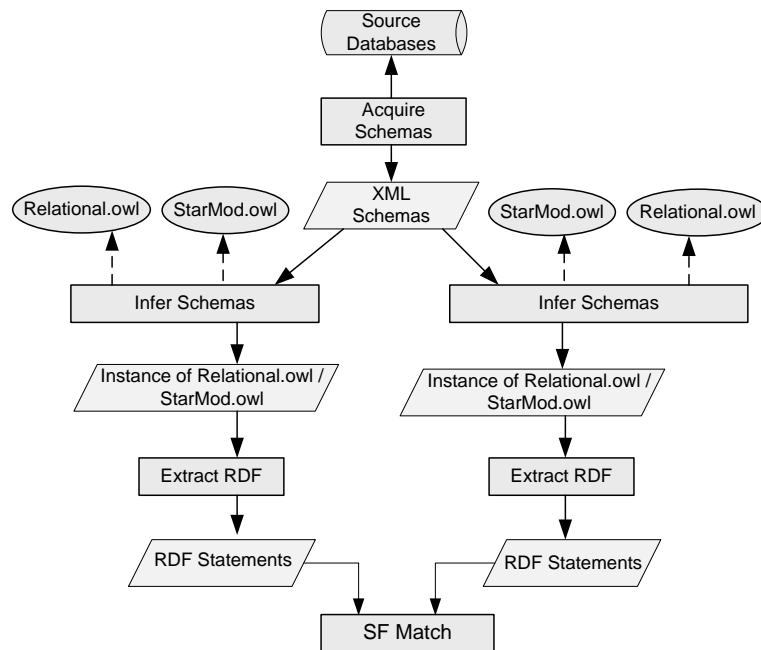


Figure 3.5: Automation of the schema matching process.

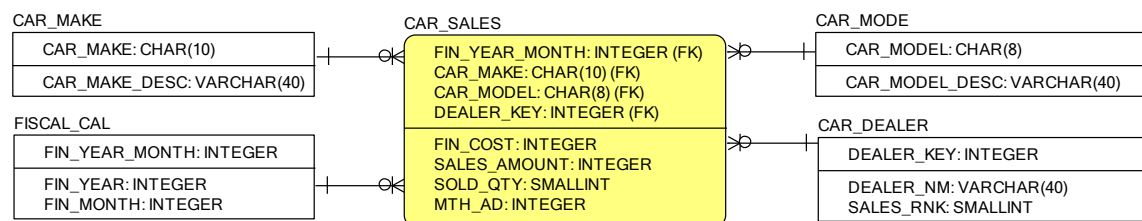


Figure 3.6: The Star schema (identified as PP2) matched against the schema in Figure 3.7.

above for the Star schema shown in Figure 3.6.

```

<rdf:type rdf:resource="#&star;Star"/>

<star:hasDimension rdf:resource="#Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL"/>
<star:hasDimension rdf:resource="#Dimension__CAR_DEALER"/>
<star:hasDimension rdf:resource="#Dimension__CAR_MODEL"/>
<star:hasDimension rdf:resource="#Dimension__CAR_MAKE"/>
<star:hasFact rdf:resource="#Fact__CAR_SALES"/>

</owl:Class>

```

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```
<owl:Class rdf:ID="Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL">

  <rdf:type rdf:resource="&star;Dimension"/>

  <star:name rdf:resource="FINANCIAL_CAL"/>

  <star:hasAttribute rdf:resource="#Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR_MONTH"/>

  <star:hasAttribute rdf:resource="#Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR"/>

  <star:hasAttribute rdf:resource="#Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_MONTH"/>

  <star:dimUniquelyIdentifiedBy>

    <star:PrimaryKey>

      <star:hasAttribute rdf:resource="#Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR_MONTH"/>

    </star:PrimaryKey>

  </star:dimUniquelyIdentifiedBy>

</owl:Class>

<owl:DatatypeProperty rdf:ID="Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR_MONTH">

  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL"/>

  <star:dataFormatType rdf:resource="#DataType__integer"/>

  <star:key rdf:resource="YES"/>

  <star:name rdf:resource="FIN_YEAR_MONTH"/>

  <rdf:type rdf:resource="&star;DataAttribute"/>

</owl:DatatypeProperty>
```

The following shows a subset of RDF statements produced for the above instance of StarMod. Each statement consists of a source, predicate and target.

```
SF, rdf_type, Star
SF, star_hasDimension, Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL
SF, star_hasDimension, Dimension__CAR_DEALER
SF, star_hasDimension, Dimension__CAR_MODEL
SF, star_hasDimension, Dimension__CAR_MAKE
```

## CHAPTER 3. MATCHING STAR SCHEMAS

```
SF, star_hasFact, Fact__CAR_SALES

Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL, rdf_type, Dimension

Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL, star_name, FINANCIAL_CAL

Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL, star_hasAttribute, Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR_MONTH

Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL, star_hasAttribute, Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR

Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL, star_hasAttribute, Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_MONTH

Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL, star_dimUniquelyIdentifiedBy, PK__Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL

PK__Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL, star_type, PrimaryKey

PK__Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL, star_keyedOn, PrimaryKey_on__Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR_MONTH

PrimaryKey_on__Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR_MONTH, star_includesAttribute,

    Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR_MONTH

Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR, rdfs_domain, Dimension__FINANCIAL_CAL

Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR, star_dataFormatType, DataType__integer

Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR, star_name, FIN_YEAR

Att__FINANCIAL_CAL__FIN_YEAR, rdf_type, DataAttribute
```

### 3.4 Evaluation of StarMod in Schema Matching

Our objective is to establish that when compared to using a relational model, using a more precise representation of Star schemas can help improve their match results. We use two of the well known schema matching approaches for which there are readily available implementations. We used two types of schemas in our evaluation: schemas that are based on the Star schema model and those that are based on non-Star relational model.

We used Similarity Flooding (described in Section 2.1.2) for the evaluation because it was flexible and adaptable since it uses RDF statements which can be easily obtained from OWL instances of StarMod.

We also compared the results against those obtained from using COMA++ version (2008c) for the same schemas. This helps us establish how SF using both relational model and StarMod compares with COMA (i.e. COMA++), and whether there is a potential for improving COMA results by using more granular relational properties such as those defined in StarMod.

### 3.4.1 Discussion of Match Results for Example Schemas

Using the two schemas in Figures 3.7 which also appeared in Figure 1.4, and 3.6 as our running example, we compare and discuss their match results suggested by SF, SF\* and COMA. For brevity we refer to SF\* where we use the StarMod, and SF where we use the relational model to describe the schemas. To measure the quality of match results returned from SF, SF\* and COMA, we use the same measure used by Melnik et al. [2002b] to which we referred to as *A-measure* as described in Section 2.1.7. Table 3.1 shows the match results suggested by SF, SF\* and COMA.

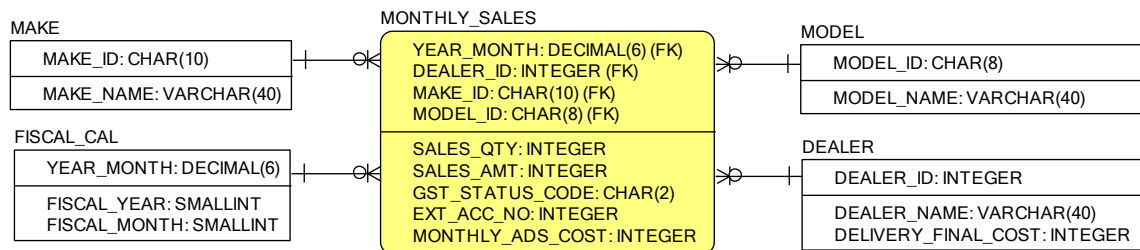


Figure 3.7: Star schema for our running example (identified as PP1).

The first two columns show the elements from the source and target schemas. Columns SF, SF\* and COMA indicate if they considered the pair to be a match when using the StarMod and the relational model respectively. The column Experts shows the match results agreed

Match Results - Formula 'C'		SF*	SF	COMA	Experts
Schema: PP1.xsd	Schema: PP2.xsd				
DEALER.DEALER_ID	CAR.DEALER.DEALER_KEY	✓		✓	✓
DEALER.DEALER_NAME	CAR.DEALER.DEALER_NM	✓		✓	✓
FISCAL_CAL.FISCAL_MONTH	FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_MONTH	✓	✓	✓	✓
FISCAL_CAL.FISCAL_YEAR	FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_YEAR	✓	✓	✓	✓
FISCAL_CAL.YEAR_MONTH	FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_YEAR_MONTH	✓	✓	✓	✓
MAKE.MAKE_NAME	CAR.MAKE.CAR_MAKE_DESC	✓			✓
MAKE.MAKE_NAME	CAR.MAKE.CAR_MAKE			✓	
MAKE.MAKE_ID	CAR.MAKE.CAR_MAKE	✓		✓	✓
MODEL.MODEL_ID	CAR.MODEL.CAR_MODEL	✓		✓	✓
MODEL.MODEL_NAME	CAR.MODEL.CAR_MODEL_DESC	✓			✓
MONTHLY_SALES.DEALER_ID	CAR.SALES.DEALER_KEY	✓		✓	✓
MONTHLY_SALES.MAKE_ID	CAR.SALES.CAR_MAKE	✓		✓	✓
MONTHLY_SALES.MODEL_ID	CAR.SALES.CAR_MODEL	✓		✓	✓
MONTHLY_SALES.MONTHLY_ADS_COST	CAR.SALES.FIN_COST	✓			
MONTHLY_SALES.SALES_AMT	CAR.SALES.SALES_AMOUNT	✓	✓	✓	✓
MONTHLY_SALES.SALES_QTY	CAR.SALES.SOLD_QTY	✓		✓	✓
MONTHLY_SALES.YEAR_MONTH	CAR.SALES.FIN_YEAR_MONTH	✓		✓	✓
DEALER	CAR.DEALER	✓	✓	✓	✓
FISCAL_CAL	FINANCIAL_CAL	✓	✓	✓	✓
MAKE	CAR.MAKE	✓	✓	✓	✓
MODEL	CAR.MODEL	✓	✓	✓	✓
MONTHLY_SALES	CAR.SALES	✓	✓	✓	✓
DEALER.DELIVERY_FINAL_COST	CAR.SALES.FIN_COST		✓	✓	
MONTHLY_SALES.SALES_QTY	CAR.DEALER.SALES_RNK		✓		
MONTHLY_SALES.MONTHLY_ADS_CST	CAR.SALES.MONTH_AD				✓
Number of correct matches		20	9	18	
Total number of matches		21	11	20	21
A-Measure		0.90	0.33	0.76	

Table 3.1: Comparison of match results for the example schemas.

by at least 2 of the 3 experts who manually matched the two schemas. The results from this example show higher values of *A-measure* for SF\* over SF and COMA. Next, we compare the results of the three approaches.

**SF versus SF\*:** SF benefits from relatively limited information such as data type, column name and table name and, hence, it is not able to make sufficient distinction between columns with strong similarity of their names. This has led to significantly lower precision for SF and is particularly visible where columns with identical names appear in dimension and fact tables. On the other hand, stronger classification of tables, columns and relationships by SF\* has resulted in higher values of *A-measure*.

**COMA versus SF and SF\*:** COMA, benefiting from a combination of matchers outper-

forms SF by a significant margin. When however, comparing its results with SF\*, we find that the improved SF\* result competes well with COMA's result. The false positive match between MONTHLY\_SALES.MONTHLY\_ADS\_COST and CAR\_SALES.FIN\_COST returned by SF\* is explained by two factors: (i) Their similarity is increased by the fact that they are both classified as *measures* this prevented a false positive match between CAR\_SALES.FIN\_COST a measure, and DEALER.DELIVERY\_FINAL\_COST a *DataAttribute*. (ii) Both, CAR\_SALES.FIN\_COST and CAR\_SALES.MTH\_AD competing to match against MONTHLY\_SALES.MONTHLY\_ADS\_COST are measures but the former has a much stronger similarity of name with that of the target column.

We also observe that SF\* has better *recall* and *precision* than COMA, however, there are instances where COMA's result could be improved by using specialized properties, e.g. the false negative match between MONTHLY\_SALES.MONTHLY\_ADS\_COST and CAR\_SALES.FIN\_COST could be prevented if these were classified as *Measures*, and DEALER.DELIVERY\_FINAL\_COST which has a false positive match with MONTHLY\_SALES.MONTHLY\_ADS\_COST was classified as a *DataAttribute*. In the next section, we validate our findings by using a larger collection of Star and non-Star schemas.

### 3.4.2 Evaluation of Using StarMod in Matching Schemas on a Larger Scale

We used 18 pairs of schemas, 14 of which were based on those collected from text books, industry and internet resources of which 8 pairs were Star schemas, and 6 pairs were non-Star schemas. We also included our running example and the 3 less complex relational schemas used by Melnik et al. [2002b] in their experiment.

The 18 pairs of schemas were divided into 3 subsets, each of which included 3 pairs

of Star schemas and 3 pairs of non-Star schemas. We used 9 experts from the industry and academics to participate in the manual matching of schemas. Appendix A includes instructions given to the participants for performing this task.

These experts were also divided into 3 equal groups. Each group was allocated a subset of schema pairs. All members of each group were asked to match all schema pairs allocated to their groups. Schema diagrams and DDLs were provided for each schema, however, participants were not given any indication as to whether the schemas were Star or not. Appendix B includes diagrams of the models and their DDLs as provided to the participants. We ran SF and SF\* against the 18 pairs of schemas.

To have confidence in our implementation, we also used the OIM model used by Melnik et al. [2002b] and made sure that results returned by SF were identical to those returned when using the OIM model and matched with the results of the three pairs of schemas used by Melnik.

Table 3.2 includes two sub-tables showing the results of our experiments against non-Star and Star schemas <sup>1</sup>. The equal or higher scores are highlighted in **bold**. In each sub-table, the first column shows the schema pair. The next three columns show the *A-measure* returned from SF, SF\* and COMA. The explanation for negative *A-measure* scores is given in Section 2.1.7. Please see Appendix C for detailed results on the suggested matchings and expected results.

We now compare the three approaches for Star and non-Star based schemas.

**SF versus SF\*:** In respect to the schema pairs involving Star schemas, the match results

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<sup>1</sup>Minor variations compared to the published results at DEXA2011 are due to rounding and review of the calculations.



Non-Star schemas				Star schemas			
Schema Pair	SF	SF*	COMA	Schema Pair	SF	SF*	COMA
M7L, M7R	<b>1.0000</b>	<b>1.0000</b>	0.8000	PP1, PP2	0.3333	<b>0.9048</b>	0.7143
M8L, M9R	0.3000	0.3000	<b>0.5000</b>	T01A, T01B	0.6250	<b>0.8333</b>	<b>0.8333</b>
R05, R05A	0.3750	0.1250	<b>0.6250</b>	T07A, T09A	0.0000	<b>0.3333</b>	-0.1667
M8L, M8R	0.5294	<b>0.7059</b>	0.4706	A01, A02	0.3548	<b>0.6774</b>	0.6129
R01, R02	0.2381	<b>0.5238</b>	0.4286	T02A, T02B	-0.3077	<b>0.0769</b>	0.000
R03, R06	0.2308	<b>0.4615</b>	0.2308	T10, T11	0.3500	<b>0.4500</b>	0.4500
R06, R07	<b>0.2857</b>	0.2143	0.0714	T05A, T05B	0.0476	<b>0.0952</b>	0.0000
R07, R03	0.6667	0.7222	<b>0.8889</b>	T06B, T04	-0.5556	<b>-0.2222</b>	-0.3333
R08A, R08B	0.3529	0.2353	<b>0.5294</b>	T07B, T11B	0.2727	<b>0.4091</b>	0.2273
Mean	0.4421	0.4764	0.505	Mean	0.1139	0.3953	0.2597

Table 3.2: Accuracy measures for schemas used in the evaluation.

show consistent improvement for SF\* over the SF. The results are also consistent with our observations during the running example. In respect to the schema pairs involving non-Star schemas, the results are mixed with an overall similar performance for using SF or SF\*. A closer examination of the schemas shows that SF performs better than SF\* where the topology of tables are very different between the two schemas. This difference (as expected) results in a mismatch between how properties are classified. Conversely, SF\* performs better than SF where there are reference tables (resembling Star models), and where the structure of tables across the two schemas are similar.

**SF\* versus COMA:** In respect to the schema pairs involving Star schemas, we find that *A-measure* for SF\* is higher (by a smaller margin) or the same as COMA. The results are consistent with our findings from the running example showing that COMA's relatively higher number of false positive cases can be reduced by using a more precise classification of relational properties for Star schemas. In respect to the schema pairs involving non-Star schemas, as with SF versus SF\*, the results are again mixed with an overall similar performance for both.

**SF versus COMA:** For Star and non-Star schemas, COMA has an overall better results than SF because of higher number of true positive cases for COMA which is even stronger for Star schemas. This indicates that COMA's matchers appear to make good use of the structural similarity.

The results in Table 3.2 support our hypothesis that using a more precise description of Star schemas improves their match results and can be also effective for arbitrary relational schemas. They also indicate that COMA could benefit from StarMod properties.

Table 3.3 shows the probability values for the corresponding null hypotheses based on the paired 2-tailed *t-test* with 8 degrees of freedom. It shows that results in Table 3.2 are statistically significant in supporting our hypotheses in respect to the performance of SF\* against Star schemas with the probability values being less than 0.05. As for non-Star schemas, the results are not statistically significant enough for the performance of any of the methods over the others.

Non-Star schemas		Star schemas	
Hypothesis	P-Value	Hypothesis	P-Value
SF* performing better over SF	0.5679	SF* performing better over SF	0.0005
COMA performing better over SF	0.3370	COMA performing better over SF	0.0383
COMA performing better over SF*	0.7579	SF* performing better over COMA	0.0283

Table 3.3: Probability values for the null hypotheses.

### Complexity:

The complexity for using StarMod is similar to the complexity of the Similarity Flooding algorithm as described by Melnik et al. [2002a]. In Section 3.3, we described properties of StarMod. These properties are different classifications of the same properties in the relational model. Similarly, the relationships introduced for StarMod and shown in Figure 3.4

are specializations of relationships that exist in the relational model. Therefore the computational complexity for using StarMod is similar to that of the relational model.

### 3.5 Discussion

Considerable research has been done on matching relational schemas. However, the predictable topology and properties of Star schemas motivates us to consider a more precise representation of them for matching purpose.

We proposed StarMod as such a representation and described it using UML and OWL languages. We used the UML version to visualize StarMod and the OWL version to automate the schema matching process.

Our proposed UML version is similar to the one suggested by Luján-Mora et al. [2006] which is aimed at physical properties of Star schemas, and includes additional properties such as degenerates and keys. Our OWL representation of StarMod corresponds to the UML representation and is an extension of `Relational.owl` by de Laborda and Conrad [2005]. It provides the flexibility to include additional domain ontologies for even a more precise description and accurate matching.

We described the inference of Star properties and their applications in matching Star schemas. The main distinction between our approach and previous work is that our approach is model driven and exploits a more comprehensive set of properties. We also described our approach in using Similarity Flooding to match Star schemas represented using StarMod. Existing works do not compare the effectiveness of their approach with others.

We used two well known schema matching algorithms in the evaluation of our app-

roach. Using Similarity Flooding, we demonstrated that a more precise model such as StarMod can improve the quality of match results for Star schemas, and that it could be also effective against arbitrary non-Star relational schemas. Comparing the results with those obtained from COMA++, demonstrates that even though COMA++ performs more accurately than Similarity Flooding when using basic relational properties, it fails to outperform Similarity Flooding when using StarMod.

As we saw in Section 3.3.2, inference of Star properties from relational schemas may not be guaranteed to be accurate for some properties. This problem was more visible in relational schemas than Star schemas, and concerned measures, degenerate dimensions and degenerate facts. Our experiments show that the gained true positives substantially outweigh the side effect resulting in more false positive and false negative cases. The fact that Star schemas described using StarMod properties are implemented in OWL provides the opportunity to augment the schemas with additional domain ontologies to help with the inference of those properties using an OWL reasoner.

In the next chapter, we propose algorithms to infer aggregation hierarchies which we will require for instance matching discussed in Chapter 5.

## Chapter 4

# Inferring Aggregation Hierarchies

"The top entrusts the understanding of detail to the lower levels, whilst the lower levels credit the top with understanding of the general, and so all are mutually deceived."

Karl Marx (1818 - 1883)

Compatibility between dimensions is the key to accurate integration of multidimensional data. It ensures that the integrated data is lossless, summarizable and conforms to the common hierarchy using the matching levels. As discussed in Chapter 2, Torlone describes *coherence*, *consistency* and *soundness* as conditions necessary for compatibility between dimensions. We explained in Section 2.3.2 that schema based aggregation hierarchies are not often available for heterogeneous and external data marts, or even local data marts. In their absence, we propose to infer the aggregation hierarchies for dimension tables from their instances. We formulate the problem of inferring aggregation hierarchies as computing from

data, a minimal directed graph for the roll-up relationships between levels, and propose algorithms to this end.

In Section 4.1, we define multidimensional properties in terms of their relational implementation and describe how they map to their definitions at a conceptual level. In Section 4.2, we introduce algorithms to infer aggregation hierarchies from instances of dimension tables. In Section 4.3, we establish the relationship between the intended hierarchies and the inferred hierarchies. We prove that inferred hierarchies are sufficient for establishing compatibility and summarizability of integrated data. Finally, in Section 4.5, we discuss our experiments and findings.

#### **4.1 Relational Representation of Multidimensional Databases**

The relational implementation of OLAP databases are based on the Star schema model described in Section 1.2.1. In Section 2.4.2, we explained properties of multidimensional databases at a conceptual level. In this section, we define concepts such as dimension, level, member and aggregation hierarchy in the context of their physical implementation in relational multidimensional databases.

As seen in Sections 2.2.1 and 2.4.2, Torlone [2008] defines dimensions in terms of levels and members. A dimension table is the relational implementation of a dimension, and is defined in terms of attributes as opposed to levels.

For simplicity, we assume that each level is associated with a single attribute of a dimension table and, therefore, in this thesis we refer to levels as being dimension attributes. In this case, values of dimension attributes correspond to members of levels. We will infer ag-

gregation hierarchies as being the partial order relationship between dimension attributes.

We name each level the same as its attribute. In some cases, multiple attributes could have the same partial order relationship with every other attribute of the dimension. We refer to these as *co-level attributes*. In such cases, we use a combination of the names of co-level attributes (separated using '/') as the name of the level.

Having mapped the definition of dimension to that of dimension table, we are able to apply Torlone's definition of compatibility and its requirements being coherence, consistency and soundness to ensure the accuracy of integration.

Definition 4.1 below draws from definitions of dimension and hierarchy in [Rafanelli and Shoshani, 1990], [Shoshani, 1997], and [Cabibbo and Torlone, 2005].

**Definition 4.1.** *A dimension table  $D$  has an aggregation hierarchy  $H$  of levels. Given two levels  $l$  and  $l'$  of a dimension table  $D$ , we say level  $l$  rolls-up to level  $l'$  (which we denote as  $l \preceq l'$ ) if we can compute aggregated facts at level  $l'$  from facts at level  $l$ . The roll-up relationship  $\preceq$  forms a partial order over the levels. The aggregation hierarchy  $H$  is a directed acyclic graph (DAG) with no (explicit) transitive edge, where the nodes of the graph are the levels and the edges are those roll-up relationships in the covering relation of the partial order between the levels.*

A dimension table may have multiple hierarchies, although, our proposed algorithm infers all hierarchies, for simplicity in our definitions, we assume a single hierarchy for a dimension table.

**Definition 4.2.** *Given the dimension table  $D$ , its instance  $I(D)$  is a set of tuple  $\{t_1, \dots, t_s\}$  where each tuple  $t_a = \langle v_{a_1}, \dots, v_{a_n} \rangle$  contains  $n$  values, and each value  $v_{a_i}$  is an element from the corresponding domain of attribute  $A_i$ .*

We can define a partial order over the attributes in a dimension table.

**Definition 4.3.** *Given an instance  $I(D)$  of a dimension table  $D(A_1, \dots, A_n)$ , we say  $A_i \leq A_j$  if for every pair of tuples  $t_a = \langle v_{a_1}, \dots, v_{a_n} \rangle$  and  $t_b = \langle v_{b_1}, \dots, v_{b_n} \rangle$  in  $I(D)$ ,  $v_{a_i} = v_{b_i}$  implies  $v_{a_j} = v_{b_j}$ . The  $\leq$  relationship forms a partial order  $P$  over the set of dimension attributes.*

If there is a functional dependency  $A_i \rightarrow A_j$  between two attributes of the relation  $D(A_1, \dots, A_n)$  representing the dimension table, then it follows that  $A_i \leq A_j$  must hold in every instance  $I(D)$ . Furthermore, if two attributes  $A_i$  and  $A_j$  correspond to different levels  $l$  and  $l'$  such that  $l \preceq l'$ , then we require  $A_i \leq A_j$ . Likewise, if two attributes  $A_i$  and  $A_j$  correspond to the same level, then we require  $A_i \leq A_j$  and  $A_j \leq A_i$ .

Where  $I(D)$  conforms to the hierarchy of its dimension table, it also forms a DAG or tree in which each member is a node and the edges are the same as those that connect the members' respective levels.

**Definition 4.4.** *A Schema-defined (or schema based) Aggregation Hierarchy (SAH) is an aggregation hierarchy that is defined as part of the schema of  $D$  and constitutes a constraint on the tuples in any instance  $I(D)$ .*

SAH describes roll-up relationships between levels as intended during the design phase to fit all possible instances. Ideally, an aggregation hierarchy must be defined as part of the schema definition and then implemented as constraints enforced by the DBMS (Database Management System), or by the application that populates the dimension to ensure that these constraints are not violated. For example, Oracle's syntax for creating a dimension table allows specifying the aggregation hierarchy through explicit description of each level,



attributes for each level and the relationship between the levels [Oracle, 2005].

This syntax is not, however, part of the standard SQL syntax and is not supported by all database vendors. Other reasons for dimension hierarchies not being available include absence of design artifacts, and access to heterogeneous dimension tables or those external to the organization. In the following section, we describe algorithms to infer the levels and hierarchies from instances of dimension tables.

## 4.2 Inferring the Partial Order Attributes

There are two major motivating factors for inferring hierarchies from instances of dimension tables: (i) An instance of a dimension table is constrained by its SAH, and (ii) The instance does not need to be interpreted in any way. There is, however, a drawback, that is, the population of a dimension table may be partial. Therefore, the resulting inferred aggregation hierarchies (IAH) may vary from the intended SAH. How similar is the IAH for a dimension table to the SAH for the same dimension table depends on how closely the instance represents the SAH. Whilst, partial population of dimension tables can occur, it is, however, rare in the real world. We will discuss this issue when we establish the viability of IAHs in testing for dimension compatibility in Section 4.4.

**Definition 4.5.** *Given an instance  $I(D)$  of dimension table  $D$ , the inferred partial order of attributes for  $D$  is the set of partial order relationships ( $P$ ) inferred from the partial order relationships between attributes of  $D$  and inferred from  $I(D)$ .*

In line with the definitions in Section 4.1, and in this section, we obtain the IAH in three steps. In the first step, we obtain the partial order between dimension attributes. In the

second step, we remove the transitive partial order relationships and, finally, we obtain the levels and the inferred aggregation hierarchy or hierarchies.

#### 4.2.1 Inferring the Partial Order of Attributes

We propose Algorithm 4.1 for inferring the partial order of attributes. We explain this algorithm using the following example: Let us suppose we wish to determine if  $\text{Country} \leq \text{City}$ . The algorithm first sorts the tuples in  $I(D)$  on  $\text{Country}$ . It then scans the values of  $\text{Country}$  and  $\text{City}$ . As long as the value in  $\text{Country}$  remains the same from one tuple to the next, the value in  $\text{City}$  must also remain the same on the same tuples. If this holds true for the entire  $I(D)$  then the roll-up relationship will hold. Given the sample data for  $\text{Store}$  in Table 4.1, this roll-up relationship does not hold. By scanning  $I(D)$  for  $\text{Country}$  against the remaining attributes we can see that only  $\text{Country} \leq \text{Region}$  holds true. This process is applied for each attributes. The scan of  $I(D)$  for each pair of pair of attributes can, however, stop as soon as it is established that the partial order relationship does not hold.

Figure 4.1 shows the partial order of attributes inferred from the sample data for  $\text{Store}$  in Table 4.1, where dashed lines represent transitive relationships.

Region	Country	Division	City	Locality	Store
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Sydney	Ryde	st1
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Sydney	Ryde	st2
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Melbourne	Epping	st3
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Melbourne	Morang	st4
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Melbourne	Brighton	st5
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div2	Geelong	Hill	st6

Table 4.1: Sample data for a  $\text{Store}$  dimension table.

**The complexity of inferring partial order of attributes:** The algorithm performs a sort for each dimension attribute with the complexity in the order of  $n p \log p$  where  $n$  is the

---

**Algorithm 4.1** Inferring the partial order relationships.

**Input** Tuples  $I(D) = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_p\}$  in the instance of a dimension table  $D(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n)$ ,  
and

 $p$  is the number of tuples.

**Output** Partial order  $P$  of attributes.

 $P := \{\}$ 
**for** each attribute  $A_i$  **do**

Sort  $I(D)$  on  $A_i$ 
**for** each attribute  $A_j$  **do**
**for** each tuple **do**
**if**  $A_i$  on current tuple equals  $A_i$  on the previous tuple **then**
**if**  $A_j$  on current tuple does not equal  $A_j$  on the previous tuple **then**  
exit this loop

**end if**
**end if**
**end for**
**if** end of tuples was reached **then**
 $P := P \cup \{(A_i, A_j)\}$ 
**end if**
**end for**
**end for**


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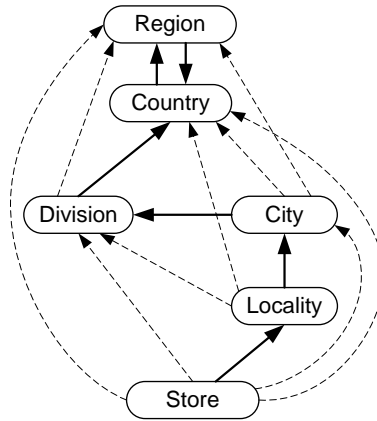


Figure 4.1: The partial order of attributes.

number of attributes and  $p$  is the number of tuples. We also scan  $I(D)$  for every pair of attributes  $(n^2 - 1)$  with the complexity in the order of  $n^2 p$ , though in some cases only a subset of  $I(D)$  is scanned. Therefore, the complexity of the Algorithm 4.1 is  $O(n^2 p + n p \log p)$ .

Observe that Algorithm 4.1 obviously computes all partial order relationships between each pair of levels.

#### 4.2.2 Cover for Partial Order of Attributes

Definition of aggregation hierarchy does not include transitive roll-up relationships as values at each level can be computed from the next immediate child level. In order to remove transitive partial order relationships, we can use existing algorithms [Aho et al., 1972] that remove transitive edges from a directed graph. Figure 4.2 shows the partial order of attributes after removing transitive partial order relationships.

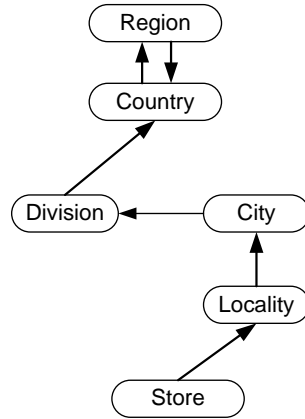


Figure 4.2: The partial order of attributes with no transitive relationship.

#### 4.2.3 The Levels and the Inferred Aggregation Hierarchy

Based on Definition 4.3, the two attributes Country and Region in Figure 4.2 correspond to the same level. We propose Algorithm 4.2 to obtain the levels being disjoint subsets of attributes ( $L$ ), and then associate each attribute with its corresponding level. The result is the inferred aggregation hierarchy over a set of levels with roll-up relationship between

them. The resulting IAH is also an acyclic directed graph.

We assume that  $q = |P|$  and  $r = |L|$ . Statements 2 to 8 of Algorithm 4.2 with complexity of  $q^2$ , add to  $L$ , each attribute of any partial order ( $p_m$ ) as a level, unless there is another partial order ( $p_n$ ) which makes their attributes to correspond to the same level in which case the added level will include both attributes. Statements 9 to 13 with the complexity of  $r^2$  combine those subsets of  $L$  that have at least one common attribute. At this point,  $L$  contains disjoint subsets of attributes that correspond to the same level. Statements 14 to 16 with the complexity of  $q r$  revisit the partial orders (copied into  $H_L$  as roll-ups) and assign to each level, a name that is derived from names of attributes that the level represents. Finally, duplicate roll-ups are removed. The complexity of statement 17 is  $q^2$ . The overall complexity for Algorithm 4.2 is  $O(2q^2 + r^2 + q r)$ .

Figure 4.3 shows the final inferred aggregation hierarchy after grouping co-level attributes and assigning distinct levels.

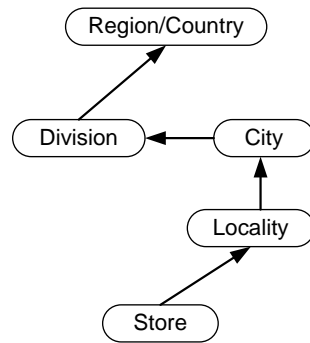


Figure 4.3: The inferred aggregation hierarchy.

**Algorithm 4.2** Identifying levels and roll-ups.**Input**  $P$  is the partial order of attributes with no transitive relationship.**Output**  $H_L$  is the inferred aggregation hierarchy. $L$  is a set of levels corresponding to disjoint subsets of attributes.

---

```

1:  $H_L := P, L = \{\}$ 
2: for each pair of partial order relationships  $\rho_m$  and  $\rho_n$  in  $P$  do
3:   if  $\rho_m = A_i \leq A_j$  and  $\rho_n = A_j \leq A_i$  then
4:      $L := L \cup \{A_i, A_j\}, H_L := H_L - \rho_m, \rho_n$ 
5:   else
6:      $L := L \cup \{A_i\}, \{A_j\}$ 
7:   end if
8: end for
9: for all  $x \in L$  and  $y \in L$  where  $x \neq y$  do
10:  if  $x \cap y \neq \emptyset$  then
11:     $L := L - \{x\}, L := L - \{y\}, L := L \cup \{(x \cup y)\}$ 
12:  end if
13: end for
14: for each partial-order  $p_m = (A_i, A_j)$  in  $H_L$  and each subset of levels  $l_s$  in  $L$  do
15:  Replace any  $A_i$  and  $A_j$  that appear in  $l_s$  with a level name that is a combination of
    attribute names in  $l_s$  (separated by a '/').
16: end for
17: Remove any duplicate roll-up relationship from  $H_L$ .
```

---

**4.3 Inferred Hierarchies Subsume Schema-Defined Hierarchies**

Based on the inferred partial order relationships obtained from Algorithm 4.1 and shown in Figure 4.1, we have  $\text{Country} \leq \text{Region}$  which is a valid partial order relationship, and  $\text{Region} \leq \text{Country}$  which may, indeed, be spurious due to the incomplete instance of *Store* in Table 4.1. If a tuple  $\langle \text{Asia Pacific}, \text{New Zealand}, \text{Div3}, \text{Wellington}, \text{Brooklyn}, \text{st7} \rangle$  is added to the instance of the *Store* in Table 4.1, the second partial order will not hold true. Other spurious partial orders are  $\text{Locality} \leq \text{Division}$  and  $\text{City} \leq \text{Division}$ . This example indicates that as the population of the dimension table grows, the partial order relationships in IAH converge towards those in the SAH. This is formulated in the following

theorem.

**Theorem 4.1.** *Given an instance  $I(D)$  of a dimension table  $D$  and the inferred partial order of its attributes  $P$  derived using Algorithm 4.1, the partial order of attributes  $P'$ , and its covering relation, for the schema-defined aggregation hierarchy for  $D$  must be subgraph of  $P$ .*

*Proof.* It is possible to obtain a covering relation of the partial order over the attributes from the schema-defined hierarchy. We can also obtain the transitive closure of the partial order over the attributes from its covering relation.

If all domain members of each base level of each schema-defined hierarchy are included in a given instance of a dimension table, since all partial order relationships of attributes are captured in Algorithm 4.1, then  $P'$  is equivalent to  $P$ .

Otherwise, suppose that some members of the base levels are missing. While some spurious roll-ups are added, none of the partial orders from  $P$  is removed. The latter point can be proved easily by the fact that the data from which the inferred partial order is derived is constrained by the schema-defined aggregation hierarchy.  $\square$

From the above proof we have the following corollary.

**Corollary 4.1.** *If all domain members of each base level of each schema-defined hierarchy are included in a given instance of a dimension table, the inferred aggregation hierarchy  $H'$  also exists as a schema-defined aggregation hierarchy  $H$ .*

*Proof.* If there is a partial order relationship  $p_i$  in  $H$  but not in  $H'$ , it means that the instance did not conform to the constraint implied by  $p_i$ . If there is a partial order relationship  $p_i$  in  $H'$  but not in  $H$ , it means that the instance lacked the data that supports  $p_i$ .  $\square$

If not all members of base levels are present in a given dimension table, all roll-up relationships in the schema-defined hierarchy are present or implied (by transitive roll-ups) in the inferred aggregation hierarchy.

**Definition 4.6.** *Given two levels  $l_1$  and  $l_2$ , and summary values for  $l_1$ , the roll-up  $\rho = l_1 \preceq l_2$  is summarizable if using  $\rho$  yields correct summary values for  $l_2$ .*

Using either type of the aggregation hierarchies, summary values for each level can be computed by summing the values at the lower level. This is due to the fact that the roll-up relationships either constrain the data, or they are inferred from data. Consequently, using either of them guarantees the summarizability.

#### 4.4 Integration of Matching Dimension Tables using Inferred Aggregation Hierarchies

In this section, we consider the properties of the matching between dimension tables using their SAHs and compare them with the same properties established using their IAHs. Each property may be true or false for either type of hierarchy, resulting in 4 different cases for each property. We examine each case and show that use of inferred aggregation hierarchies is sufficient for establishing compatibility and ensuring that the integrated data is summarizable.

##### 4.4.1 Properties of Compatible Dimension Tables

As discussed in Section 2.4.2, for accurate integration of data marts, the matching between dimensions over their matching levels must be compatible. That is, the matching between



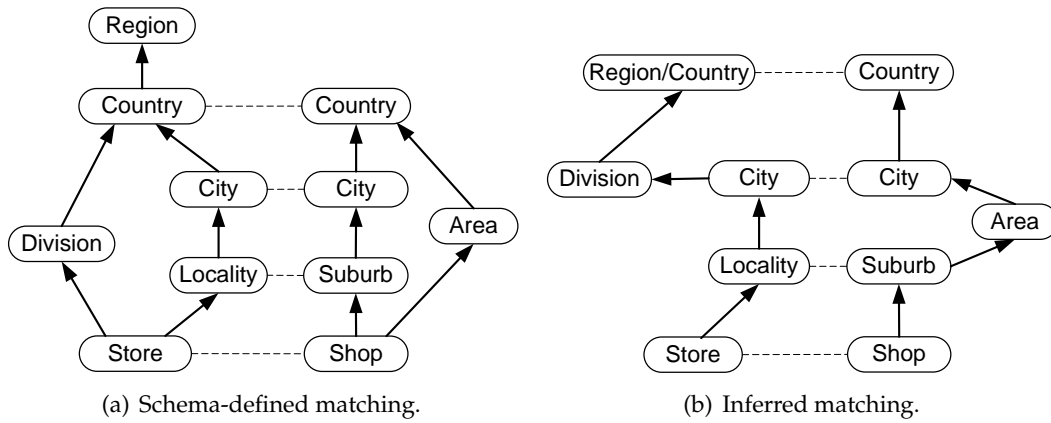


Figure 4.4: Matchings levels in Store and Shop dimension tables.

each pair of matching levels must be coherent, consistent and sound. Similarly, as discussed in Section 4.1, we can apply the requirements of compatibility to dimension tables.

**Example 4.1.** Figure 4.4(a) shows a schema-defined matching between levels of dimension tables  $\text{Store}(\text{Region}, \text{Country}, \text{Division}, \text{City}, \text{Locality}, \text{Store})$ , and  $\text{Shop}(\text{Country}, \text{Area}, \text{City}, \text{Suburb}, \text{Shop})$ . Suppose that the instance for the Store, and Shop are as shown in Tables 4.1 and 4.2. The matching is sound, coherent and consistent.

Country	City	Area	Suburb	Shop
Australia	Sydney	NE	Ryde	st1
Australia	Sydney	NE	Ryde	st2
Australia	Melbourne	NT	Epping	st3
Australia	Melbourne	NT	Morang	st4
Australia	Melbourne	SW	Brighton	st5
Australia	Geelong	NW	Hill	st6

Table 4.2: Sample data for a Shop dimension table.

It is important to ensure that the data remains summarizable after the integration. We make the following observation.

**Theorem 4.2.** Integration based on sound, coherent and consistent matchings ensures summarizability.

*Proof.* We assume that before the integration, instances of dimension tables conform to their hierarchies and are summarizable. The coherence and consistency ensure that the integrating hierarchies are identical and that the data after the integration satisfies roll-up relationships in the original hierarchies. Therefore, for the result of the integration not to be summarizable, it can only be that the instance of least one of the dimension tables is not summarizable.  $\square$

Integration based on the matching levels of the Store and Shop will ensure the correctness of summarization for drill-across queries. When using inferred aggregation hierarchies for integration, the summarizability of facts after integration relies on that, testing for soundness, coherence and consistency between matching levels of inferred aggregation hierarchies succeed.

Let a matching defined using inferred hierarchies be called an *inferred matching*. Similar to a matching defined using schema-defined hierarchies, an inferred matching between dimension tables comprises a set of one-to-one mappings between their matching levels.

**Soundness of inferred matchings:** Sound matching between (schema-defined or inferred) dimension tables requires that for all matching levels, their members match. For example, all members of Locality in Store and those of Suburb in Shop must match.

Since soundness does not depend on the roll-up relationship between levels, obviously testing for soundness using inferred aggregation hierarchies is the same as that using schema-defined aggregation hierarchies.

In the next two sections, we show that testing for coherence and consistency is feasible using inferred aggregation hierarchies.

#### 4.4.2 The Coherence of Inferred Matchings

When inferred aggregation hierarchies are the same as the schema defined hierarchies, matchings defined for inferred hierarchies are the same as those defined for schema defined hierarchies. However, due to the partial population of the dimension tables, the inferred aggregation hierarchy may contain spurious roll-up relationships that are not present in the schema-defined hierarchy. As a result, a matching defined for inferred aggregation hierarchies may be different to the matching defined for schema-defined hierarchies. The following scenarios may arise:

**True coherence:** The coherence of an inferred matching defined on a set of levels is true coherence if the matching on these levels for the schema-defined matching is also coherent. This occurs when the non-spurious as well as the spurious roll-ups (if any) over matching levels are the same between inferred hierarchies.

**Example 4.2.** *Based on the sample data for Store and Shop, their inferred aggregation hierarchies and their matching is shown in Figure 4.4(b). The matching is sound and coherent. In comparison with the matching for schema-defined hierarchies shown in Figure 4.4(a), this matching using inferred hierarchies is truly sound and coherent.*

**True incoherence:** The incoherence of an inferred matching defined on a set of levels is true incoherence if the matching on these levels for the schema-defined matching is also incoherent. This occurs when the inferred hierarchies are the same as schema-defined hierarchies and/or the spurious roll-ups are different between the inferred hierarchies.

**False coherence:** The coherence of an inferred matching on a set of levels is false co-

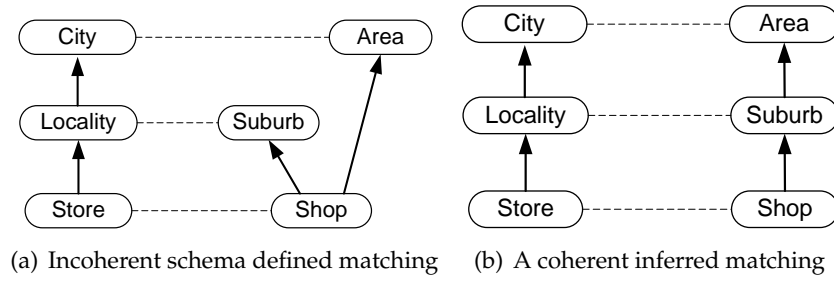


Figure 4.5: A false coherent matching that uses inferred hierarchies.

herence if the matching defined on these levels for the schema-defined hierarchies is not coherent. False coherence occurs when there are some spurious roll-up relationships in one of the inferred hierarchies that are also present in the other inferred hierarchy but as non-spurious roll-ups. In this case the matching is, indeed, coherent for instances from which the hierarchies are inferred.

**Example 4.3.** *The matching on the schema-defined hierarchies shown in Figure 4.5(a) is incoherent, but the inferred matching shown in Figure 4.5(b) is coherent. The inferred matching is a false coherent matching. This is made possible because of the spurious roll-up  $\text{Suburb} \preceq \text{Area}$ .*

**False incoherence:** The incoherence of an inferred matching on a set of levels is false incoherence if the matching defined on these levels for the schema-defined hierarchies is indeed coherent.

False incoherence occurs when the spurious roll-up relationships relate the matching levels differently or some spurious roll-up relationships are missing in only one of the inferred hierarchies.

**Example 4.4.** *Suppose that Division and Area were matching levels in Figure 4.4(a). In this case, the schema-defined matching between Store and Shop remains coherent. However, the inferred*

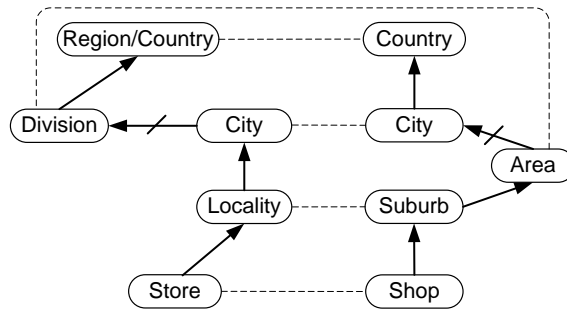


Figure 4.6: False incoherent inferred matching.

matching is incoherent. Figure 4.6 shows spurious roll-ups (denoted by  $\rightarrow$ ) relating matching levels differently.

#### 4.4.3 The Consistency of Inferred Matchings

**True consistency:** The consistency of an inferred matching on a set of levels is true consistency if the matching defined on these levels for the schema-defined hierarchies is also consistent.

**Example 4.5.** Based on Tables 4.1 and 4.2, the result of the integration of the two sample data for Store and Shop satisfy the constraints in the schema-defined and inferred hierarchies for these two dimension tables.

**True inconsistency:** The inconsistency of an inferred matching on a set of levels is true inconsistency if the matching defined on these levels for the schema-defined hierarchies is also inconsistent.

**Example 4.6.** Given the schema-defined matchings for Store and Shop dimension tables (as shown in Figure 4.4(a)), if we considered updating the Store with the tuple <Asia Pacific, Australia, Div3, Melbourne, Chelsea, st8>, and include the tuple <UK, London, WC, Chelsea, st9> in the

dimension *Shop*, then based on their schema-defined hierarchies, the two dimension tables would be coherent but not consistent. The reason is that the data after integration does not reflect the roll-ups  $\text{Locality} \preceq \text{City}$  and  $\text{Suburb} \preceq \text{City}$  present in the original hierarchies of *Store* and *Shop* respectively. The matching using inferred hierarchies would be also inconsistent, if the two tuples were also present in the instance of *Store* (Table 4.3) and *Shop* (Table 4.4) dimension tables.

Region	Country	Division	City	Locality	Store
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Sydney	Ryde	st1
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Sydney	Ryde	st2
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Melbourne	Epping	st3
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Melbourne	Morang	st4
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Melbourne	Brighton	st5
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div2	Geelong	Hill	st6
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div3	Melbourne	Chelsea	st8

Table 4.3: True inconsistency: sample instance for *Store* dimension table.

Country	City	Area	Suburb	Shop
Australia	Sydney	NE	Ryde	st1
Australia	Sydney	NE	Ryde	st2
Australia	Melbourne	NT	Epping	st3
Australia	Melbourne	NT	Morang	st4
Australia	Melbourne	SW	Brighton	st5
Australia	Geelong	NW	Hill	st6
UK	London	WC	Chelsea	st9

Table 4.4: True inconsistency: sample instance for *Shop* dimension table.

**False consistency:** The consistency of an inferred matching on a set of levels is false consistency if the matching defined on these levels for the schema-defined hierarchies is not consistent. This case implies that instances of a pair of dimension tables are not consistent using the schema-defined hierarchies for some roll-up relationships, but they are consistent using the inferred hierarchies. Similar to false coherence, this occurs when for example, the inferred hierarchy for one dimension is the same as the schema-defined hierarchy, but the inferred hierarchy for the other dimension includes spurious roll-ups which makes them to

have a consistent matching. Again, the matching is, indeed, consistent for the purpose of integrating the instances from which the hierarchies are inferred.

**False inconsistency:** The inconsistency of an inferred matching on a set of levels is false inconsistency if the matching defined on these levels for the schema-defined hierarchies is consistent.

**Example 4.7.** Suppose that the roll-up relationships  $\text{Locality} \preceq \text{City}$  and  $\text{Suburb} \preceq \text{City}$  were not defined as part of the schema-defined hierarchies for *Store* and *Shop* respectively. If the sample data for dimension table *Shop* in Table 4.2 included the tuple  $\langle \text{Australia}, \text{Sydney}, \text{NT}, \text{Epping}, \text{st3} \rangle$  in place of  $\langle \text{Australia}, \text{Melbourne}, \text{NT}, \text{Epping}, \text{st3} \rangle$  (resulting in Table 4.6), then the integrated data would conform to the schema-defined hierarchies but not to the inferred hierarchies which do include these roll-ups and are now violated since *Epping* rolls-up to different members in *City*.

Region	Country	Division	City	Locality	Store
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Sydney	Ryde	st1
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Sydney	Ryde	st2
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Melbourne	Epping	st3
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Melbourne	Morang	st4
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div1	Melbourne	Brighton	st5
Asia Pacific	Australia	Div2	Geelong	Hill	st6

Table 4.5: False inconsistency: sample data for *Store* dimension table.

Country	City	Area	Suburb	Shop
Australia	Sydney	NE	Ryde	st1
Australia	Sydney	NE	Ryde	st2
Australia	Sydney	NT	Epping	st3
Australia	Melbourne	NT	Morang	st4
Australia	Melbourne	SW	Brighton	st5
Australia	Geelong	NW	Hill	st6

Table 4.6: False inconsistency: sample data for *Shop* dimension table.

Although, false incoherence and false inconsistency may prevent the integration, what

is critical is that where we do proceed with the integration, the result of the integration will be correct and summarizable. Based on the above, use of IAHs to test for compatibility guarantees the summarizability of data after integration, and therefore, and IAHs are viable for testing compatibility for instances from which the aggregation hierarchies are inferred. Compared to the situation where we are unable to ensure the accuracy of the integration due to the absence of SAHs, this is a significant outcome and a viable solution to the problem. This is summarized in the theorem below.

**Theorem 4.3.** *A sound, coherent and consistent inferred matching is sufficient but not necessary for the summarizability of integration.*

*Proof.* A summarizable integration on the matching levels must have sound, coherent and consistent inferred matching. But, from the above discussions, it can be seen that an inferred matching may present as incoherent or inconsistent based on the current dimension instances, but they are indeed, coherent and consistent and, thus, can be integrated and the result is summarizable. □

## 4.5 Experiments

The purpose of our experiments is to measure the effectiveness of our algorithms for inferring aggregation hierarchies from dimension tables with real life data. For each one of our two experiments, the expected hierarchies are obtained from the business operations manuals. All algorithms are implemented in Java and run on PC with dual core and 2.5 GHz CPU and 3 GB memory.

In each experiment, all data from each dimension table was retrieved into a comma



separated text file. The output from running the first algorithm is a set of pairs of attributes between which there is a partial order relationship. This partial order is then used in the second algorithm which removes the transitive partial order relationships and also infers the paths in the hierarchy. Finally, co-level attributes are grouped into a single level.

The first experiment involves a dimension table with 9 attributes for insurance products from 25 sub-companies with an instance that includes 8,614 rows. The runtime to infer all partial order relationships was 356 milliseconds.

By experimenting with the data related to each company separately, we were able to get the expected hierarchy. In some cases, co-level attributes were not correctly classified as belonging to the same level. For example, `PRODUCT_CLASS_CODE` and `PRODUCT_CLASS_DESC` must actually belong to the same level. However, varying synonymous values appearing in `PRODUCT_CLASS_DESC` prevented this expected grouping. Our first observation was that information on false negative roll-ups could be used for data cleansing.

The second experiment concerns a dimension table called `OCCUPATION` which is based on the ANZSIC standard for occupation codes. This dimension table has also 9 attributes and its instance includes 16,208 rows; the run time for inferring partial orders was 469 milliseconds. The hierarchies in this dimension table were also enforced by the application but separately across different companies. The expected hierarchies were returned after running the algorithm separately against the data for each company.

The following shows the information returned by our algorithms in inferring the hierarchies for only one of the companies. The first segment shows co-level attributes being re-grouped and assigned a new label such as X0. The second segment shows the inferred

hierarchies from the instance of the dimension table.

Co-Level Attributes:

-----

X0 : REPORTING\_CODE, REPORTING\_CODE\_DESC

The unique paths in the hierarchy are:

-----

ANZSIC\_OCCUPATION\_CODE, ANZISC\_CODE\_DESC, COMPANY\_NO

ANZSIC\_OCCUPATION\_CODE, ANZSIC\_OCCUPATION\_FLAG, COMPANY\_NO

ANZSIC\_OCCUPATION\_CODE, X0, STRUCT\_LEVEL\_3, STRUCT\_LEVEL\_2, STRUCT\_LEVEL\_1, COMPANY\_NO

The inferred hierarchies are shown in Figure 4.7.

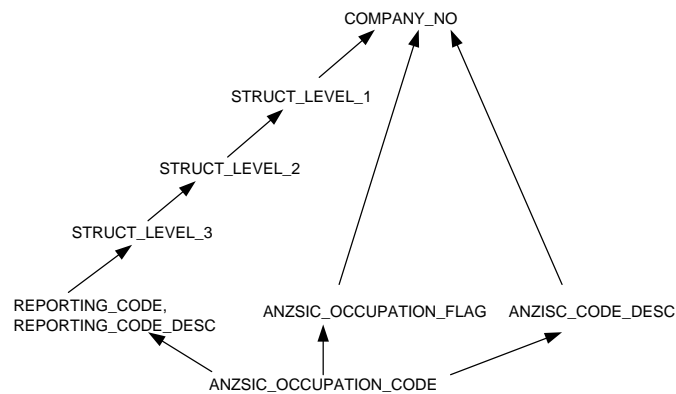


Figure 4.7: Visual representation of the inferred hierarchy from the second experiment.

As we can see from this example, there is a similar problem with ANZSIC\_CODE\_DESC since it should have same partial order relationships as ANZSIC\_OCCUPATION\_CODE, and therefore, these two attributes should have been grouped into a single level. It can be seen that the main hierarchy used for aggregation of data in this experiment is the one with the longest path with the remaining paths being in fact spurious.

When inferring hierarchies using data from other companies, the result includes some variations of spurious paths but they share the main path. This leads to our second observation that inferred hierarchies can be compared by a domain expert to identify spurious

hierarchies to be excluded them from the integration as they can be restrictive in establishing compatibility. The following shows the output of our algorithms for a different company in dimension table OCCUPATION.

```
Co-Level Attributes:
-----
X0 : COMPANY_NO, ANZSIC_OCCUPATION_FLAG
X1 : REPORTING_CODE, REPORTING_CODE_DESC

The unique paths in the hierarchy are:
-----
ANZSIC_OCCUPATION_CODE, X0
ANZSIC_OCCUPATION_CODE, ANZISC_CODE_DESC, X0
ANZSIC_OCCUPATION_CODE, X1, STRUCT_LEVEL_3, STRUCT_LEVEL_2, STRUCT_LEVEL_1, X0
```

We also learn from this experiment that when integrating these dimension tables with their matching dimension tables, their instances may need to be restricted to have a fitting hierarchy for different fragments of data. A less attractive alternative option is to exclude some levels from the integration.

These experiments establish that our algorithms are not only effective in inferring hierarchies, they provide additional information that can be used to enforce compatibility. Another application of inferring hierarchies is to establish if correct indexes and data clusters are defined for the dimension table to improve query performance.

#### 4.6 Dealing with Imprecision and Uncertainty of Data

Imprecision in the context of dimensions occurs when null value is used as members of levels of dimension hierarchies to represent the unknown or not applicable. For example, we may not know the ISBN of a book, or the ISBN may be not applicable, because the book may be sold electronically. When inferring aggregation hierarchies, null values can

be ignored. Consequently the roll-up relationships are only determined using the non-null values in attribute values.

Uncertainty is however, where probability values are assigned to possible values of an attribute (Burdick et al. 2007). Uncertainty may occur in the fact tables, where for example, members of levels in a StoreLocation dimension are clearly defined but the store name is not recorded at the time of capturing the sales transaction. In such case, members of a higher level such as City are used in place of Store (Burdick et al. 2007). In this case, the store could be any of the stores in that city.

It is not however an effective method to construct a dimension whose members have some degree of uncertainty associated with them. This is best managed by capturing the uncertainty in the fact table. For example, if the diagnosis of a particular illness is uncertain and could be one of many, then the hierarchy of the members between the two levels Diagnosis and Illness is designed such that it describes all possible cases, but when capturing the diagnosis for a given patient, then the value of the diagnosis in the fact table is set to the name of the illness instead (Burdick et al. 2007). Extending OLAP functions to support imprecision and uncertainty is not in the scope of this thesis.

A special form of uncertainty in the context of dimensions could be the presence of multi-valued mappings which may cause double counting. For example, the Country (such as Turkey) may not always have a clear relationship with the Continent. In this case, our proposed Algorithm discards the partial order relationship between Country and Continent. There has been some work on preventing double counting resulting from multi-valued mapping (Burdick et al. 2007).

## 4.7 Discussion

In this chapter, we provided formal definitions of a dimension, level and aggregation hierarchy in the context of relational multidimensional databases. We proposed for the aggregation hierarchies to be inferred from instances of dimension tables in three steps. In the first step, the partial order of attributes is computed using the cardinality of every pair of attributes. In the second step, transitive partial order relationships are identified and removed. Finally, attributes with bidirectional partial order relationship are grouped into a single level with each remaining attribute being also assigned to a single level. The result may include multiple hierarchies.

Inferring dimension hierarchies can be compared with discovering functional dependencies used to discover key attributes. Our proposed algorithm is less complex as it discovers relationships between single dimension attributes. This is because levels with composite attributes are rare, and using data only to identify such levels potentially increases the number of false positive partial order relationships. Future work is required to use both domain ontologies and data to infer levels with composite attributes.

Existing works use physical metadata, domain ontologies, and UML schemas as sources of information to infer dimension hierarchies. The problem with these approaches is that these may not be available either. Moreover, they are likely to produce false negative partial order relationships. That is, we may find that there is no partial order relationship between some levels when in fact there is such relationship. Using lexical repositories is even more problematic because members are often labeled in abbreviated forms and may include numbers.

Jensen et al. [2004] discover dimension hierarchies from data. This approach requires some SQL test and does not eliminate transitive relationships.

The more representative is the population of a dimension table of its domain, the closer is the inferred hierarchy to the intended schema based hierarchy. Therefore, the inferred hierarchy may not be the same as the schema defined hierarchy. We established the relationship between the two hierarchies as the former subsuming the latter. This implies that there are the same or more roll-up relationships that would need to match between the inferred hierarchies to satisfy the requirements for coherence and consistency.

We explained that using our approach to infer hierarchies will not lead to any false negative partial order relationship, but some discovered partial order relationships may well be false positive. This may result in the test for *coherence* and *consistency* to be false negative which would restrict the integration, that is, only levels involved in the mismatching roll-up relationships would be excluded from the integration. We emphasized, however, that the accurate integration of dimension tables if we decide to do so, is more critical.

As a result, there are two important characteristics of the inferred hierarchies: (i) They can guarantee the summarizability of the integrated data, and (ii) they ensure that the matching between the integrating dimension tables is *coherent* and *consistent*.

We used two real life dimension tables for inferring their hierarchies. These experiments showed effectiveness of our algorithms and that they can provide useful information for data cleansing and enforcing compatibility.

Having inferred aggregation hierarchies, in the next chapter, we use the hierarchies to match instances of dimension tables and enforce strictness.

## Chapter 5

# Enforcing Strictness: Beyond Instance Matching For Dimensions

"Man's mind, once stretched by a new idea, never regains its original dimensions."

Oliver Wendell Holmes (1841 - 1935)

In the previous chapters, we addressed inferring dimension hierarchies and schema matching as precursors to automate the integration of data marts. The next step is the matching of instances of dimension tables and relies on the results of the previous steps.

Many approaches have been proposed in the literature for matching instances of relational tables, but they do not address the problem of matching instances of dimension tables specifically. Furthermore, the relationship between inaccurate results from instance matching and the non-strictness problem in the integrated data has been overlooked.

We assume that our original instances of dimension tables are strict, in other words, any case of multi-valued mapping or any special case of single-valued mapping is resolved in each instance before the integration. Having made this assumption, we may still have the problem where the integrated data is not strict. We show in this chapter that in most cases, this problem is related to incorrect cases during the instance matching, and that by enforcing strictness we also reduce false positive cases.

In Section 5.1, we identify cases where non-strictness occurs during the integration of dimension tables resulting in inconsistency in data. In Section 5.2, we motivate the need to resolve inconsistencies after the integration. In Section 5.3, we discuss suitability of matching algorithms that exploit hierarchies for the purpose of matching instances of dimension tables. In Sections 5.4 and 5.6, we propose algorithms to enforce strictness against the integrated result. Experiments described in Section 5.7 on real life data demonstrates the effectiveness of our proposed approach.

## 5.1 Case Analysis

In this section, we discuss scenarios that result in non-strictness when integrating dimension tables with strict instances. We consider the following cases:

- This case concerns the presence of a multi-valued mapping (which we refer to as *m-mapping*) across integrating dimension tables. This is a true non-strict case. For example, there is only one river called 'Rhine' as a member of a level which contains rivers in Germany, but when integrated with a similar dimension table with a matching level whose members include rivers in Netherlands, the result is no longer strict.



Given that the two matching levels are from the same domain, such cases are in fact rare and mostly occur when the population of at least one of the dimension tables is not fully representative of its domain, in other words they are partially populated. One suggested solution is to discard such tuples [Wijsen, 2006]. In Section 2.5.3, we discussed other approaches to address this problem. The algorithm we propose to enforce strictness results in excluding such tuples.

- There is a variation of *m-mapping* which involves synonym members (i.e. same members labeled differently) being related to different parent members. This is a special case of *m-mapping*, where the data is not strict, even though the roll-up constraints appear to be satisfied. Where such synonym cases are identified correctly, same solution as for multi-valued mapping is applicable. Discovery of false positive match between synonym members must be resolved during instance matching and is outside the scope of this chapter.
- There are *homonym* members relating to different parent members. As we explained in Section 2.2.2, this case does not result in double counting but results in over-estimation of measures for ambiguous members. This is of course, if there is no (false) positive match between them. Where there is a false positive match between them, we treat this case in a similar way to the multi-valued mapping case. An example is where the product category Keyboard in an Electronic department is falsely matched with Keyboard in a Musical department. This case in fact accounts for most of the non-strict cases. Discarding such matchings enforces the strictness and reduces false positive

cases.

- This is where the perceived non-strict case is in fact caused by false negative match pairs at the parent level. This is a false non-strict case. In this case, the instance matching algorithm fails to identify the matching pair and the integrated result appears to be strict. For example, let us suppose that a product `Prod_x` relates to product categories `Keyboard` and `KBD`, and that the two product categories are in fact the same but the matching algorithm has identified them as being different. Improving the match results to recover missing matching pairs is not in the scope of our work. Discovery of false negative matchings must be resolved during instance matching and is outside the scope of this chapter. Our proposed algorithm to enforce strictness also discards the true positive match between these members (i.e. products labeled `prod_a`). This side effect has a negative impact on the recall. In Section 5.7, we discuss the extent of this side effect.

## 5.2 Motivating Example

In this section we describe our motivating example used throughout this chapter. It concerns a hypothetical departmental store that sells run out model products it buys from other stores. The store needs to regularly integrate its dimension table `Product` with purchased items in the dimension table `Item`. Manual matching of large dimension tables such as `Product` and `Item` which potentially contain thousands of members with inconsistent labels is not feasible. Figures 5.1 and 5.2 show sample instances of those dimension tables. Each instance conforms to its hierarchy, and therefore, is strict.

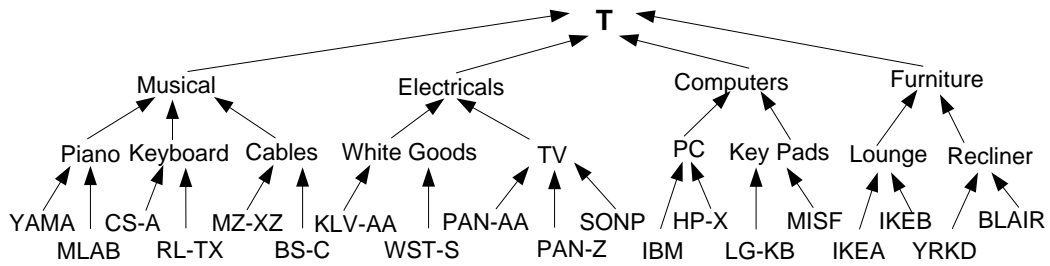


Figure 5.1: An instance of dimension table Product.

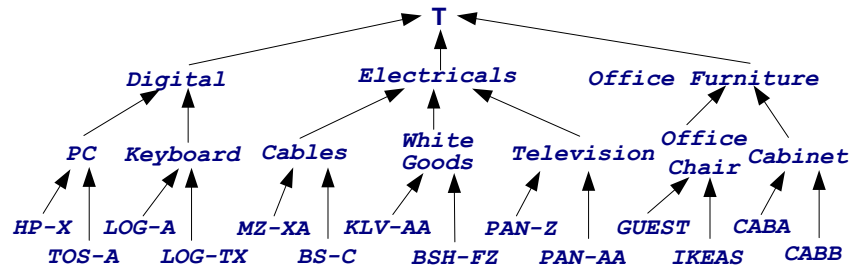


Figure 5.2: An instance of dimension table Item.

Figure 5.3 represents the ideal matchings between the two instances as determined by a domain expert. For simplicity, we omit non-matching leaf nodes and sub-trees containing mismatching nodes. Members of levels of dimension table Item appear in italicized font. The followings illustrate examples of non-strict cases which we address:

- A product identified as BS-C is an electrical cable as well as a musical (audio) cable. This is a case of *m-mapping* and illustrates that a perfect match does not necessarily guarantee strictness. As part of enforcing strictness we will discard such matching. Where the integration is by intersection, this would amount to deletion of inconsistent tuples from the integrated result.
- There are two different product categories both labeled Keyboard, one of them is a

musical keyboard and the other is a computer keyboard. We will be also discarding the match between these two categories during the enforcing of strictness.

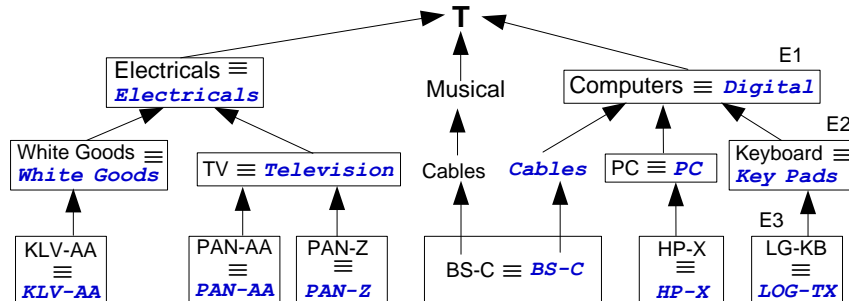


Figure 5.3: Ideal matchings between Product and Item.

### 5.3 Exploiting Hierarchies for Instance Matching

Apart from the similarity between labels, roll-up relationships between levels provide the most significant clue in finding matching members. For example, if the cities in United States and US are more similar to one another than to the cities of any other country, then United States and US are likely to be the same country even though they have very different labels. If majority of cities in the US and AUS are different, then the two countries are likely to be different and in return, their two Melbourne cities are also likely to be different cities, even though, they have the same label and their two countries have similar labels. Therefore, it is intuitive that the similarity between members of the child levels influences the similarity of the members at the parent levels and the similarity between members of the parent levels to influence the similarity of the members at the child levels.

As discussed in Chapter 2, similarity flooding (SF) calculates similarity scores between

nodes of two graphs  $G$  and  $G'$ . The result is the connectivity graph  $\hat{G}$  whose nodes represent pairs of matching members. We represent each node in  $\hat{G}$  as  $(m \in l, m' \in l')$  with an associated similarity score  $\sigma$ .  $m$  and  $m'$  are suggested matching members and  $\sigma$  is a relative measure of similarity between  $m$  and  $m'$ .  $l$  and  $l'$  are matching levels in  $G$  and  $G'$ .

Similarity flooding is an iterative fixed point computation algorithm that propagates similarity scores between nodes of  $G$  and  $G'$  through the common edges. It is based on the intuition that nodes of two graphs are similar when their adjacent (i.e. parent and child) nodes are similar. The similarity scores are relative to all other match candidates in the range of 0 to 1. The algorithm stops when the change in similarity scores becomes insignificant. Finally, the best match candidates are selected.

We name the edges (i.e. roll-ups) in  $G$  and  $G'$  the same to enable the creation of the connectivity graph and to also limit the calculation of the initial string matching to members of matching levels. The suggested matching pairs for our motivating example, as shown in Figure 5.4, are obtained using this algorithm. Members of levels of dimension table *Item* appear in italicized font. Solid rectangles and dashed ovals indicate true positive (TP) and false positive (FP) matches respectively. Rounded scores outside of each node are  $\sigma$  values returned from SF. Note, that with the matching results from similarity flooding, the result is not strict, e.g. *Keyboard*  $\equiv$  *Keyboard* rolls-up to *Digital* and *Keyboard*.

## 5.4 Enforcing Strictness

Instance matching algorithms, in general, can produce false positive matching cases and do not enforce strictness. In this section, we describe the causes of non-strictness with respect

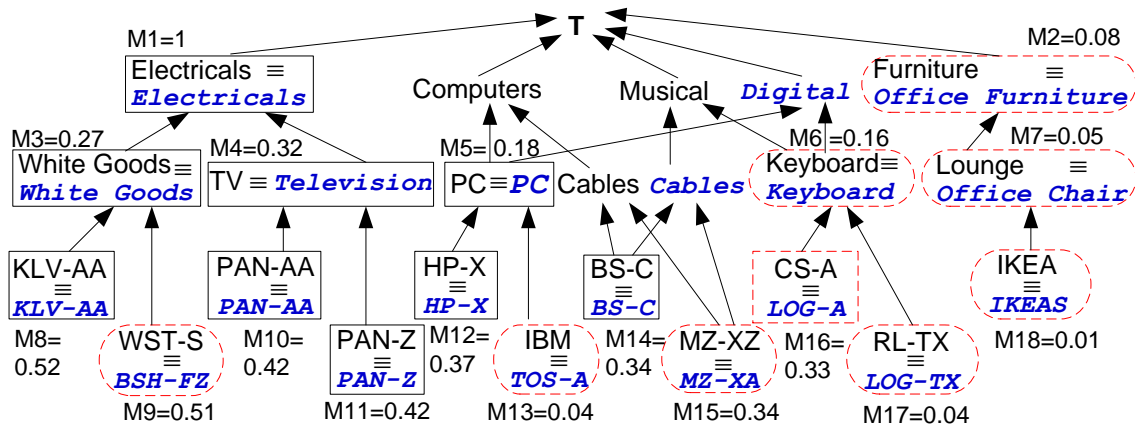


Figure 5.4: Suggested matchings between Product and Item.

to inaccurate matchings and inconsistent data. To illustrate the causes of non-strictness, let us compare the ideal match results in Figure 5.3 with the suggested match results in Figure 5.4:

- The suggested match Keyboard  $\equiv$  Keyboard (i.e. the node labeled as M6), a *homonym* case, is false and leads to non-strictness. Similarly, if one of the members in this suggested match was instead labeled Key Board, then it would be a false synonym case and it would also lead to non-strictness.
- The suggested match BS-C  $\equiv$  BS-C (M14) is true positive and leads to non-strictness.
- The suggested match WST-S  $\equiv$  BSH-FZ (M9) is a false positive but does not lead to non-strictness.
- The suggested match PC  $\equiv$  PC (M5) is a true positive match, but the false negative match between their respective parent members makes it to be perceived as *non-strict*.
- The suggested match TV  $\equiv$  Television (M4) is a true positive match involving *synonym*

members and does not lead to non-strictness.

- The matching pair `Cables`  $\equiv$  `Cables` is a true negative match involving *homonym* members. It is a special case of single-valued mapping which is discussed in Section 2.2.2. The approach we take is to re-label the members to resolve the ambiguity and address the apparent non-strictness.

In summary, the causes of non-strictness are due to *m-mapping*, or false positive matchings at the parent or child levels.

Next, we explain our main idea of enforcing strictness. We said in the previous section that similarity scores propagate through the levels. The matching pairs at the higher levels are less likely to be false positive than pairs at the lower levels because the number of members in levels decreases as we move up the hierarchy, and the similarity scores at the lower levels propagate to the higher levels. Therefore, the matching pairs at the root level are likely to be more accurate than at any other level.

For these reasons, we start at the root level and assume that the match results at this level are correct. At every level lower and for each matching (child) pair, we expect that their parent members also match, otherwise, we discard the matching child pair. This will discard those matchings that result in *s-mapping* and *m-mapping* cases. This amounts to deletion of inconsistent tuples when integration is by intersection and nullifying of the corresponding attributes when integrating by union.

Algorithm 5.1 follows a top-down iterative process. The input to the algorithm is the connectivity graph  $\hat{G}$  (e.g. Figure 5.4) returned from some instance matching algorithm that exploits the (common) hierarchy  $H = \{l_1 \equiv l'_1 \preceq l_2 \equiv l'_2, l_2 \equiv l'_2, \dots\}$  between matching lev-

els. For simplicity we will use the levels in one of the hierarchies to refer to both matching levels. The output  $\hat{T}$  a subgraph of  $\hat{G}$  is strict. Lines 8-9 include in  $\hat{T}$  a pair of matching members only if their parent members are determined to be matching in the previous iteration. Figure 5.5 shows the matching pairs after applying this algorithm. The scores outside of each node will be described in Section 5.6.

---

**Algorithm 5.1** Enforcing strictness on match results.

---

**Input:** Association graph  $\hat{G}$ , hierarchy  $H$

**Output:** Strict connectivity graph  $\hat{T}$  a subgraph of  $\hat{G}$ .

---

```

1: Insert into  $\hat{T}$  nodes in  $\hat{G}$  relating to the root level of  $H$ 
2: for each roll-up relationship  $l_\alpha \preceq l_\beta$  in  $H$  do
3:    $C$  = matching child pairs in  $\hat{G}$  relating to the level  $l_\alpha$ 
4:    $P$  = matching parent pairs in  $\hat{T}$  relating to the level  $l_\beta$ 
5:   for each matching pair  $n_i = (m_1 \in l_\alpha, m'_1 \in l'_\alpha)$  in  $C$  do
6:      $m_2$  = the parent member for  $m_1$ 
7:      $m'_2$  = the parent member for  $m'_1$ 
8:     if the pair  $(m_2 \in l_\beta, m'_2 \in l'_\beta)$  is in  $P$  then
9:       Insert  $n_i$  into  $\hat{T}$  connecting it to its parent.
10:    end if
11:  end for
12: end for
13: Remove childless nodes from  $\hat{T}$ .
```

---

If we have perfect matching between two dimension tables and the result of the integration is not strict, then Algorithm 5.1 would eliminate the *m-mapping* cases as the only possible cases of non-strictness. However, *m-mapping* is not common in the context of integrating strict dimension tables, as it would indicate that the data was not originally strict with the inconsistencies hidden in separate instances.



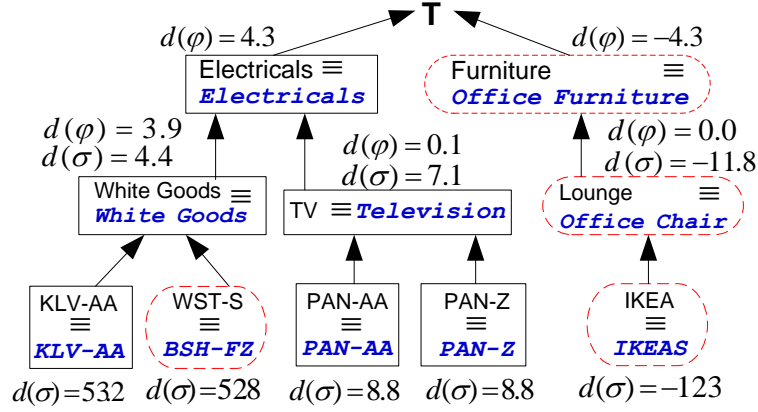


Figure 5.5: Matching pairs from Figure 5.4 after Algorithm 5.1.

### 5.5 The Effect of Enforcing Strictness on Match Quality

Table 5.1 summarizes the effects of Algorithm 5.1 on the ideal match results. The effects will show in the precision and recall which we will use to measure the performance of our algorithms. Columns 2 and 3 indicate the truth or falsehood of the (mis) matching parent and child pairs. Column 4 describes the effect of the algorithm on the ideal match results. Column 5 gives an example of the case by referring to the nodes in Figures 5.3 and 5.4, where applicable. There is no example applicable to cases involving FN and TN at the parent or child level (except for where both are FN), as they do not appear in the suggested or ideal match results.

Cases 5, 8 and 9 are highlighted with \* to indicate a *m-mapping* case. In cases 5, 8 and 12 strictness is not enforced due to a false positive or true negative match at the parent level. These represent false strict cases. In Section 5.6 we propose an algorithm to reduce these cases. In case 6, we are unable to remove the mismatching child pair because strictness is not enforced, again due to the incorrect match at the parent level. In case 9, a *m-mapping*

	Parent Pair	Child Pair	Effect	Example
1	TP	TP	Nil	$M3 \preceq M1$
2		FP	Nil	$M13 \preceq M5$
3		TN	Nil	Not applicable
4		FN	Nil	Not applicable
5*	FP	TP	Nil	<i>See section 5.6</i>
6		FP	Mismatching child pair not removed	$M18 \preceq M2$
7		TN	Nil	Not applicable
8*		FN	Nil	<i>See section 5.6</i>
9*	TN	TP	True matching child pair removed	Not applicable
10		FP	False matching child pair removed	Not applicable
11		TN	Nil	Not applicable
12		FN	Nil	<i>See section 5.6</i>
13	FN	TP	True matching child pair removed	Not applicable
14		FP	False matching child pair removed	Not applicable
15		TN	Nil	Not applicable
16		FN	Nil	$E3 \preceq E2$

Table 5.1: Impact of Algorithm 5.1 on ideal match results.

case, strictness is enforced at the expense of removing a true matching child pair which reduces the recall. In case 10, strictness is enforced and as a positive side effect, a false positive match is also removed which improves the precision. In case 13, although, the algorithm removes a true positive match, the result becomes strict. This also reduces the recall but also alerts a human expert to a possible false negative match at the parent level. Case 14 is interesting because although the application of the algorithm is not warranted, the net effect is the removal of a false positive match.

To summarize the effects of Algorithm 5.1: (i) strictness is guaranteed, (ii) the precision is improved by reducing the false positives, and (iii) the recall may be reduced. Given the intuition behind the algorithm supported by our findings from experiments in Section 5.7, the improved precision clearly outweighs possible reduction in the recall.

## 5.6 Reducing False Strictness

In Section 5.5, we saw the three cases (5, 8 and 12) where child members form seemingly strict M:1 roll-up relationships. Matching algorithms tend to be greedy in finding matchings. An example of this case is the pair `Lounge`  $\equiv$  `Office Chair` in Figure 5.5. The similarity score for this pair (as shown in Figure 5.4) is very low in comparison with other pairs at the same level and yet the pair is selected as a match. The following explains this match: (i) The matching score for this pair is not incremented by the string similarity between the labels of its members but rather by the similarity score of its (only) child pair `IKEA`  $\equiv$  `IKEAS`; (ii) The string similarity between labels of the pair `IKEA`  $\equiv$  `IKEAS`, and the missing correct matching member to `IKEA` in `Item`, or the missing correct matching member to `IKEAS` in `Product` helps the pair to be a winning match; (iii) The missing correct match to `Lounge` in `Item`, or the correct match to `Office Chair` in `Product` helps the pair to be a winning match.

Moreover, the pair `Furniture`  $\equiv$  `Office Furniture` is the root of a leaner branch with fewer descendants when compared to other pairs at the Department level. This is indicative of the lower degree of match between the descendants of the members of this pair.

Given the above observations, our aim is to identify pairs that are selected as matching but more due to the missing correct matching members in the other instance. This problem is more apparent where only a small percentage of members from each instance match. It occurs in SF and is also reported to occur in state of the art duplicate detection algorithms in XML documents in the context of missing data [Pavel and Euzenat, 2004].

These false positive cases can potentially result in false strict cases (5 and 8 in Table 5.1). In Figure 5.5, even if the pair `IKEA`  $\equiv$  `IKEAS` were truly matching, we would still want

to remove the pair as it would be a *m-mapping* case. However, the false positive match between the parent members would not allow this to occur and, hence, the result would be falsely strict.

In this section, we propose an algorithm to discard matching pairs such as Lounge  $\equiv$  Office Chair described above. Reducing these false positive matchings can potentially reduce occurrences of false strict cases. The algorithm is based on the observations described above, and hence, our heuristic, that if a matching pair has a very low similarity score  $\sigma$  and also its parent pair has a very low *match factor* (described next), then it is likely to be a false positive match.

*Match factor* measures the strength of a matching pair  $(m, m')$  in respect to both, the match degrees for the child and leaf members of  $m$  and  $m'$ . It is based on the intuition that members of false positive matching pairs are less likely to succeed in having as many number of their descendant members matching.

For a given pair of matching members  $m$  and  $m'$ , the *child match degree* ( $\varphi_1$ ) measures the degree of the child members of  $m$  having a match with child members of  $m'$ .  $\hat{T}$  is the connectivity graph after applying Algorithm 5.1.

$$\varphi_1(m, m') = \frac{|\text{Child nodes of } (m, m') \text{ in } \hat{T}| \times 2}{|\text{Child nodes of } m_1 \text{ in } G| + |\text{Child nodes of } m'_1 \text{ in } G'|}$$

Similarly, for a given pair of matching members  $m$  and  $m'$ , the *leaf match degree* ( $\varphi_2$ ) measures the degree of the leaf members of  $m$  having a match with leaf members of  $m'$ .

$$\varphi_2(m, m') = \frac{|\text{Leaf nodes of } (m, m') \text{ in } \hat{T}| \times 2}{|\text{Leaf nodes of } m_1 \text{ in } G| + |\text{Leaf nodes of } m'_1 \text{ in } G'|}$$

The *match factor* is  $\varphi = \varphi_1 \times \varphi_2$ . The intuition is to reward/penalize the match degree

for the child nodes by how successful they are in having their leaf nodes have a match. For example,  $\varphi(\text{Electricals} \equiv \text{Electricals}) = 4/5 \times 8/11 = 0.58$  and  $\varphi(\text{Furniture} \equiv \text{Office Furniture}) = 0.5 \times 0.25 = 0.125$ .

Following from the observations above, matching pairs involving missing matching members have a much lower  $\sigma$  and  $\varphi$  than other matching pairs at the same level. To determine the threshold for these values, we use the outlier detection method and borrow the method introduced by Knorr and Ng [1998]. They consider a value to be an outlier if its distances ( $d$ ) from normal distribution is equal to, or more than 3 standard deviations from the mean. For our purpose, where we want to identify much weaker matching pairs, we consider a value to be an outlier, if its distances ( $d$ ) from normal distribution is 3 standard deviations below the mean. In Figure 5.5,  $d(\sigma)$  and  $d(\varphi)$  are shown for each pair of matching members.

Algorithm 5.2 follows a bottom-up approach. Again, the input to this algorithms is the connectivity graph  $\hat{T}$  returned from Algorithm 5.1. At each level, we remove those matching pairs whose similarity score is an outlier and whose parent pair has a *match factor* that also happens to be an outlier. Similar to Algorithm 5.1, the order of complexity for Algorithm 5.2 is  $L \times N$  where  $L$  is the number of levels and  $N$  is the number of matching pairs at each level. Again, for simplicity we use the levels in one of the hierarchies to refer to both matching levels.

Applying Algorithm 5.2 to our example in Figure 5.5, the matching pair Lounge  $\equiv$  Office Chair is discarded as a false positive match since its matching score, as well as the *match factor* of its parent pair, are both considered outliers. This will first result in re-

---

**Algorithm 5.2** Reducing weak matching pairs.
 

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**Input:** Association graph  $\hat{T}$ , hierarchy  $H$ 
**Output:**  $\hat{S}$  a subgraph of  $\hat{T}$ 

```

1:  $\hat{S} = \hat{T}$ 
2: for each roll-up relationship  $l_i \preceq l_{i+1}$  in  $H$  do
3:    $C =$  matching pairs from  $\hat{T}$  relating to level  $= l_i$ 
4:   Calculate  $d(\sigma)$  for  $m$  and  $m'$  for each pair of  $C$ .
5:    $P =$  matching pairs from  $\hat{T}$  relating to level  $= l_{i+1}$ 
6:   Calculate  $d(\varphi)$  for  $m$  and  $m'$  for each node of  $P$ .
7:   for each node  $n_j$  of  $C$  do
8:     if  $d(\sigma)$  for  $n_j$  is  $\leq Threshold$  then
9:        $n'' =$  parent node of  $n_j$  in  $P$ 
10:      if  $d(\varphi)$  for  $n''$  is  $\leq Threshold$  then
11:        Remove descendants of  $n_j$  from  $\hat{S}$ .
12:        Remove  $n_j$  from  $\hat{S}$ .
13:      end if
14:    end if
15:  end for
16: end for
17: Remove childless nodes from  $\hat{S}$ .
```

---

removal of its only child pair Lounge  $\equiv$  Office Chair followed by the removal of the pair itself (i.e. Lounge  $\equiv$  Office Chair). Finally, its parent pair Furniture  $\equiv$  Office Furniture is removed since it has no other child. Figure 5.6 shows the result of applying Algorithm 5.2 to the result of Algorithm 5.1 shown in Figure 5.5.

## 5.7 Experiments

The purpose of this set of experiments is to:

- i. measure the performance of SF in matching instances of dimensions with different degrees of noise;
- ii. measure the performance of SF in matching instances of dimensions with different de-

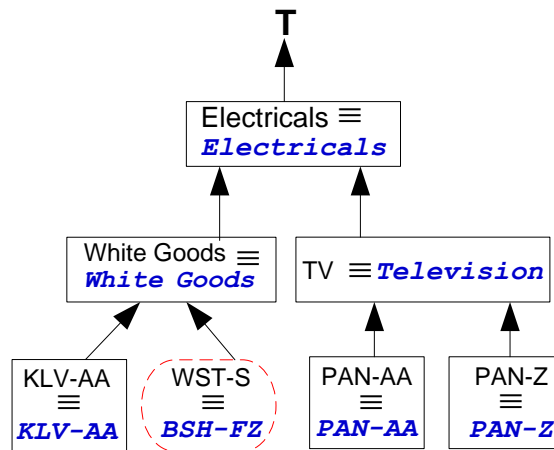


Figure 5.6: Matching pairs from Figure 5.5 after Algorithm 5.2.

- grees of missing matching members;
- iii. demonstrate that integration of strict (instances of) dimension tables can result in non-strictness;
  - iv. demonstrate that Algorithm 5.1 can effectively enforce strictness and reduce false positive matches;
  - v. demonstrate that using instances of dimensions with high volume of mismatching members can increase the number of false positive cases;
  - vi. demonstrate that where instances of dimensions have a high volume of mismatching members, Algorithm 5.2 can help identify false positive matching cases that could not be identified using Algorithm 5.1;
  - vii. determine the strength of SF in dealing with multiple and ragged hierarchies.

**Source of data:** We used the Mondial geographical web data base [May, 1999] with about 4600 distinct members. There are three hierarchies in this data set: (i)  $City \preceq Province \preceq Country \preceq Continent$ , (ii)  $City \preceq Province \preceq Country \preceq GovernmentStyle$ , (iii)  $City \preceq Sea$ . Some cities do not belong to any province but do belong to some countries making the first two hierarchies to be ragged. This condition is present where a member of a level does not have a parent member in its immediate parent level but in an ancestor level.

**Target:** We used the source as the basis to create an instance of the target dimension table. DirtyXML [Puhlman, 2004] is a tool that is primarily used to produce duplicate elements in XML files for the purpose of duplicate detection. Unfortunately, it could not be used for our purpose because it provided no mechanism to track changes to labels. This is necessary to facilitate the calculation of precision and recall. We used this tool for the purpose of reducing members but developed a program to introduce noise into labels. Similar to DirtyXML, our program randomly applies insertion, deletion, duplication and swapping of characters. More importantly, it tracks changes by recording the labels before and after the changes.

In Section 5.7.1, we measure the performance of SF, and our proposed Algorithms 5.1 and 5.2 when using a single hierarchy. In Section 5.7.2, we measure the performance of SF when using multiple hierarchies.

### 5.7.1 Using A Single Hierarchy

To avoid the bias that the use of multiple hierarchies may introduce, we use the same single hierarchy ( $City \preceq Province \preceq Country \preceq GovernmentStyle$ ) for all experiments described in this section. Tables 5.2 and 5.3 show precision and recall values obtained from the initial



matching (by SF), after applying Algorithm 5.1, and after applying both Algorithms 5.1 and 5.2. Table 5.4 shows F-measure values calculated using the precision and recall values. The highest value for each case is shown in bold.

Each case uses a different degree of reduction resulting in missing matching members, and noise. The larger the reduction, the higher is the degree of missing matching members between the two instances. The experiments are designed to measure the performance of these 3 algorithms in respect to different amounts of noise and missing matching members.

**Performance measures for SF:** We can see that in cases 1 to 12, where there is a low to medium degree of missing matching members, the precision is impressively high above 0.94. These cases indicate that SF performs extremely well in matching instances even with a large level of noise.

In cases 13 to 16, where the degree of missing matching members is increased to 75%, the precision drops to below 0.84. In cases 13 and 14, the precision remains relatively lower even though there is no or little noise introduced. Nevertheless, precision, and in particular the recall is generally higher where there is less noise. These cases also support our initial finding that instance matching algorithms tend to produce more false positives where there is a high degree of missing matching members between the two instances.

**Performance measures for SF + Algorithm 5.1:** In all cases, Algorithm 5.1 has consistently reduced the number of false positive cases resulting in higher precision (when compared to before applying the algorithm) except for cases 1 and 2 where the precision has remained almost unchanged. The increase in the precision is a positive side effect of enforcing strictness which is the primary objective of Algorithm 5.1.

Case No	Reduction	Noise	Precision		
			SF	SF+ALG1	SF+ALG1+ALG2
1	00%	00%	0.9879	0.9878	<b>0.9884</b>
2	00%	25%	0.9825	0.9813	<b>0.9836</b>
3	00%	50%	0.9751	<b>0.9831</b>	<b>0.9831</b>
4	00%	75%	0.9693	<b>0.9696</b>	0.9688
5	25%	00%	0.9820	0.9820	<b>0.9827</b>
6	25%	25%	0.9740	0.9798	<b>0.9805</b>
7	25%	50%	0.9622	0.9770	<b>0.9779</b>
8	25%	75%	0.9519	0.9864	<b>0.9951</b>
9	50%	00%	0.9530	0.9585	<b>0.9589</b>
10	50%	25%	0.9492	0.9564	<b>0.9597</b>
11	50%	50%	0.9718	0.9913	<b>0.9932</b>
12	50%	75%	0.9415	0.9488	<b>0.9520</b>
13	75%	00%	0.8248	0.8577	<b>0.9151</b>
14	75%	25%	0.8333	0.8726	<b>0.9485</b>
15	75%	50%	0.8102	0.8774	<b>0.9022</b>
16	75%	75%	0.7976	0.8522	<b>0.8950</b>

Table 5.2: Precision values for different degrees of noise and missing members.

The recall is slightly reduced in most cases. The main reason for this is that some true positive matchings at the child level are discarded due to false negative matchings at their parent levels. For each pair of tuples across the two instances, a pair of tuples will not match unless all of their attribute values match. Therefore, discarding the match at the child level, when there is no match at the parent level, will not reduce the extent of the data integration any further. Moreover, the report on missing matching parents can provide valuable information to review what could be false negative cases.

The overall F-measure, a reflection of both precision and recall is not greatly impacted. These cases demonstrate that whilst, Algorithm 5.1 enforces the strictness, it can improve the precision by reducing the number of false positive cases. These two important benefits come with the cost of a slight reduction in the recall.

Case No	Reduction	Noise	Recall		
			SF	SF+ALG1	SF+ALG1+ALG2
1	00%	00%	<b>0.8510</b>	0.8475	0.8405
2	00%	25%	<b>0.7606</b>	<b>0.7606</b>	0.7424
3	00%	50%	<b>0.8651</b>	0.8476	0.8453
4	00%	75%	<b>0.6221</b>	0.5923	0.5514
5	25%	00%	<b>0.7496</b>	0.7455	0.7289
6	25%	25%	<b>0.9197</b>	0.9057	0.8926
7	25%	50%	<b>0.8538</b>	0.8339	0.8261
8	25%	75%	<b>0.7603</b>	0.7221	0.5650
9	50%	00%	<b>0.8908</b>	0.8881	0.8806
10	50%	25%	<b>0.8376</b>	0.8349	0.8091
11	50%	50%	<b>0.8000</b>	0.7782	0.6975
12	50%	75%	<b>0.7156</b>	0.6719	0.6650
13	75%	00%	<b>0.9648</b>	0.9606	0.9586
14	75%	25%	<b>0.9420</b>	0.9359	0.9228
15	75%	50%	<b>0.8822</b>	0.8719	0.8574
16	75%	75%	0.7976	<b>0.8057</b>	0.7591

Table 5.3: Recall values for different degrees of noise and missing members.

**Performance measures for SF + Algorithm 5.1 + Algorithm 5.2:** The precision has consistently improved for the vast majority of cases. As for recall, there are slight reductions, largely where there is a greater level of noise. This is also visible from the F measures in Table 5.4.

Cases 13 to 16 involve a high degree of missing match candidates between the two instances. A good sign for the presence of such a condition is that we have a relatively lower precision to start with. In these cases, where the precision resulting from the previous two methods were around 0.80, the precision has significantly improved to around 0.90.

Therefore, consistent with our hypothesis, Algorithm 5.2 improves the precision by reducing even further, the number of false positive cases which Algorithm 5.1 fails to identify. Again, there is a slight reduction in the recall value.

Case No	Reduction	Noise	F-Measure		
			SF	SF+ALG1	SF+ALG1+ALG2
1	00%	00%	<b>0.9144</b>	0.9123	0.9085
2	00%	25%	<b>0.8574</b>	0.8570	0.8461
3	00%	50%	<b>0.9168</b>	0.9103	0.9090
4	00%	75%	<b>0.7578</b>	0.7354	0.7028
5	25%	00%	<b>0.8502</b>	0.8476	0.8370
6	25%	25%	<b>0.9461</b>	0.9413	0.9345
7	25%	50%	0.9048	<b>0.9779</b>	0.8956
8	25%	75%	<b>0.8454</b>	0.8338	0.7208
9	50%	00%	0.9209	<b>0.9220</b>	0.9181
10	50%	25%	0.8899	<b>0.8915</b>	0.8780
11	50%	50%	<b>0.8776</b>	0.8719	0.8195
12	50%	75%	<b>0.8132</b>	0.7867	0.7830
13	75%	00%	0.8893	0.9062	<b>0.9363</b>
14	75%	25%	0.8843	0.9031	<b>0.9355</b>
15	75%	50%	0.8447	0.8595	<b>0.8792</b>
16	75%	75%	0.7976	<b>0.8282</b>	0.8215

Table 5.4: F-Measure results for different degrees of noise and missing members.

### 5.7.2 Using Multiple Hierarchies

In this part of the experiment, we use all three hierarchies listed earlier in Section 5.7, but use the SF algorithm only. This is because Algorithms 5.1 and 5.2 use a single hierarchy; however, both algorithms can be applied in multiple iterations, each time, using a different hierarchy.

With respect to Algorithm 5.1, to ensure that the instance of the dimension table is strict for all hierarchies, in each iteration, the input  $\hat{G}$  is set to the output  $\hat{T}$  from the previous iteration. With respect to Algorithm 5.2, it is possible that the same matching pair is removed when using one hierarchy but, not when using another. A simple approach to unify the result is to finalize the removal of a match between a pair of members, only if it is removed by using every hierarchy in which the owning level appears.

**Performance measures for SF:** The sample we used to measure SF's strength in dealing with multiple hierarchies included 25% reduction and noise in both instances. The precision, recall and F-measures were 0.9790, 0.7031 and 0.8409 respectively. The precision returned from SF is very close to being perfect, but not the recall. The reason for the poor recall in this case can be explained by the fact that the similarity score for a matching child pair is much more likely to be distributed into more than one parent pair and, hence, the number of true positives is lower.

We then tried the same sample, but using a single hierarchy ( $City \preceq Province \preceq Country \preceq GovernmentStyle$ ). The precision, recall and F-measures using a single hierarchy are 0.9740, 0.9197 and 0.9461 respectively. Whilst, the precision remains the same, the recall has improved significantly. The comparison indicates that SF does not perform as well with multiple and ragged hierarchies as with single hierarchies.

## 5.8 Discussion

In this chapter we addressed the problem of enforcing strictness in integration of originally strict dimension tables, and also thereby, reduce the number of false positive cases during the instance matching. To the best of our knowledge, there is no previous algorithm specifically for matching instances of dimension tables that exploits dimension hierarchies. Moreover, current research has overlooked enforcing strictness against the integrated result and the relation between non-strictness and the accuracy of instance matching results. Through our experiment, we have shown the effectiveness of similarity flooding in matching instances of dimension tables and its weakness in dealing with multiple hierarchies.

We proposed an algorithm which enforces strictness against the integrated data from strict dimension tables and also reduces the number of false positive cases. It discards any matching child pair with more than one parent matching pair in the connectivity graph that is created from the graph representation of the two instances. This algorithm exploits the fact that the inconsistencies resulting from integration of strict dimension tables are more likely to be the result of false positive cases during the initial instance matching.

We proposed a second algorithm that can help discard false positive matchings that could not be discarded using the first algorithm. This algorithm is designed to address the problem associated with instances that have high degree of missing matching members.

In our experiments, we used a real life geographical web database to show the effectiveness of our approach and algorithms. We showed that in presence of noise in data, our first algorithm is effective in improving the precision with very limited impact on recall.

We also showed that our second algorithm is also effective in improving the precision where there is a large volume of missing matching members from either of instances. A side effect of this algorithm is, however, that the recall value is mildly reduced where there is a low level volume of missing matching members with some noise introduced. Future work is required to improve the match factor used in this algorithm to reduce the impact on the recall value. Moreover, the similarity flooding algorithm could be also enhanced to improve its match quality where the instances include multiple hierarchies.

## Chapter 6

# Extending the Scope of Integration

“What counts in making a happy marriage is not so much how compatible you are, but how you deal with incompatibility.”

Leo Nikolaevich Tolstoy (1828 - 1910)

One of the problems we face with integrating heterogeneous data marts is that they have some common but not identical information. In Section 2.4, we described conformity as well as compatibility as the requirements for the integration of dimensions. These require dimensions to be similar in terms of their schemas, hierarchies and instances. In Chapters 3, 4, and 5, we described our approach for matching data mart schemas, inferring aggregation hierarchies and matching instances of dimensions.

The schema matching approach discussed in Chapter 3 returns matching dimension attributes irrespective of their hierarchies or their data. The starting maximal subset of compatible dimensions ( $X$ ) to be integrated is limited to these matching dimension attributes.

In the next step, aggregation hierarchies are inferred using the approach described in this chapter from matching dimensions identified during the schema matching process. Matching hierarchies are those with matching levels consisting of matching dimension attributes ( $X$ ). Any dimension attribute not included in the matching levels are excluded from  $X$ .

During the next and final step, using the hierarchies inferred, we match instances of the corresponding dimensions using the approach described in this chapter. We then apply Algorithm 5.1 to enforce the strictness, and Algorithm 5.2, if there is a prior knowledge that there is a large volume of mismatching members between the two instances.

By this time, we have a final maximal subset of compatible dimension attributes to form the basis of the integration in terms of schema and data. During the course of these steps, we had to however, exclude some dimension attributes. The purpose of this chapter is to maximize the scope of the integration by salvaging as many dimension attributes that were excluded because they did not fit into the common hierarchy. We see two challenges in meeting this objective: (i) to enforce compatibility between some of dimension attributes that do not fit into the common hierarchy and thereby extend  $X$ ; (ii) relate  $X$  to the exclusive non compatible dimension attributes in each of the original data marts.

Next, we re-visit the requirements for dimension compatibility explained in Section 4.1:

- The matching between some levels may be coherent and consistent but not sound. It is more difficult to have soundness in particular when dealing with heterogeneous dimension tables. This is where the requirement for soundness can be restrictive.
- The existing drill-across operation returns the common data only. It ignores the data related to levels that have no match, or their matchings are not coherent and con-



sistent. This is not effective when users need to link the common data back to the exclusive data in each data mart.

In this chapter, the problems above are investigated, and the following contributions are made:

- In order to maximize the scope of the integration, we relax the requirements for compatible dimension tables by excluding the requirement for soundness.
- We introduce measures to quantify the loss of data in respect to levels which do not have a sound matching. These are used in identifying lossless fragments of the combined data by applying OLAP operations such as slicing, dicing and roll-up guided by those measures.
- We extend the navigation operation drill-across to return the data related to exclusive levels in original data marts.
- We propose an extension to pivot tables to support the extended result of drill-across.

In Section 6.1, the problems addressed in this chapter are further elaborated. In Section 6.2, a less restrictive requirement for integrating dimension tables is proposed. In Sections 6.3, 6.4, and 6.5, we introduce methods for measuring the loss of data. In Section 6.7, we describe the extension to drill-across. In Section 6.8, we discuss extending pivot tables (at a conceptual level) to support the extended drill-across.

## 6.1 Motivation

Organizations often end up with a large number of data marts over similar subject areas which need to be consolidated [Business Objects and Teradata, 2007]. Their consolidation enables users to benefit from combined related information and also reduces the need for building new data marts. Moreover, there are data marts from external sources, for instance, the Bureau of Statistics and agencies collecting marketing information, which are of interest and when combined, can add value to local data marts.

Consider the Star schemas in Figures 6.1 and 6.2. The matching between the two Time dimension tables as well as the matching between Product and Item dimension tables are coherent and consistent over all of their levels, whereas, Invoice and Accessory are exclusive to their data marts. The two fact tables have their own exclusive measures.

The first problem highlighted in the preamble to this chapter is that even though the matching between the two Product and Item dimension tables is coherent and consistent, it is not considered a perfect matching since the matchings between their levels are not sound. This can be seen from their instances in Tables 6.1 and 6.2, where for example, the member Musical in the level Department in dimension table Product, does not appear in its matching level Area in dimension table Item.

Table 6.1 shows the same instance of the Product dimension table as in Figure 5.1 after re-labeling of some members to resolve the ambiguities for synonym and homonym members. Similarly, Table 6.2 shows the same instance of the Item dimension table as in Figure 5.2 after making similar changes.

We assume that there is a coherent and consistent matching between all matching lev-

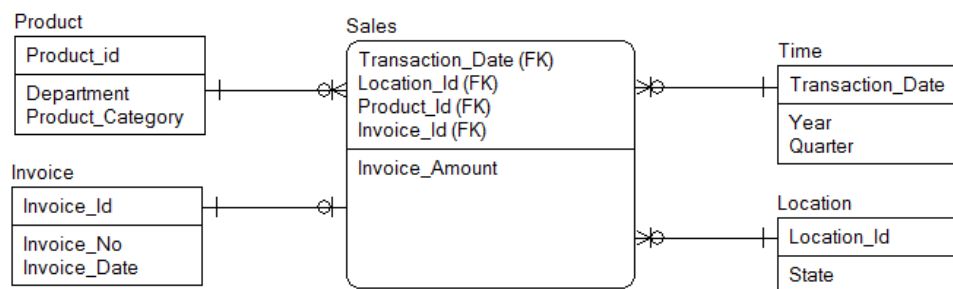


Figure 6.1: Star schema for Sales data mart.

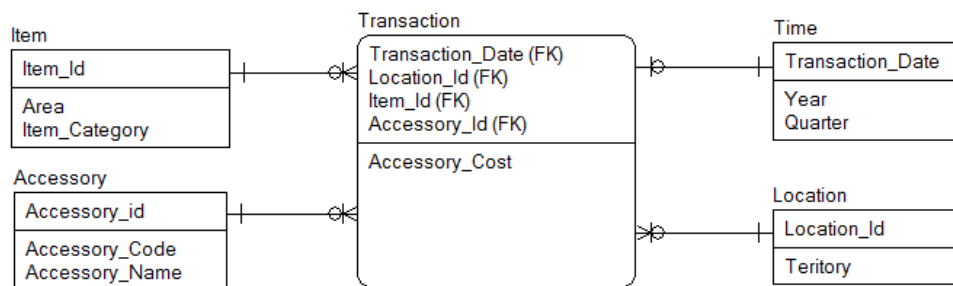


Figure 6.2: Star schema for Transaction data mart.

els of Product and Item, between Time and Time, and between Location and Location dimension tables.

Absence of soundness results in loss of data during the integration. The loss is not, however, uniform with respect to each data mart. In order to maximize the scope of the integrated data, we propose to relax the requirement for compatibility by excluding soundness. At the same time, several measures are provided to quantify the loss resulting from the absence of soundness. By quantifying the loss for all levels and their combinations, a user is able to benefit from partial integration by locating lossless fragments of data through OLAP operations. For example, if a user is interested in combined data from Figures 6.1 and 6.2 for all Product\_Category/Item\_Category but only only for the member Computers/Digital of

Department	Product_Category	Product_Id
Musical	Piano	YAMA
Musical	Piano	MLAB
Musical	Musical Keyboard	CS-A
Musical	Musical Keyboard	RL-TX
Musical	Musical Cables	MZ-XZ
Musical	Musical Cables	Musical BS-C
Electricals	White Goods	KLV-AA
Electricals	White Goods	WST-S
Electricals	Television/TV	PAN-AA
Electricals	Television/TV	PAN-Z
Electricals	Television/TV	SONP
Computers/Digital	PC	IBM
Computers/Digital	PC	HP-X
Computers/Digital	Digital Keyboard	LOG-TX/LG-KB
Computers/Digital	Digital Keyboard	MISF
Furniture	Lounge	IKEA
Furniture	Lounge	IKEB
Furniture	Recliner	YRKD
Furniture	Recliner	BLAIR

Table 6.1: An instance of dimension table Product in Sales data mart.

Department	Item_Category	Item_Id
Computers/Digital	PC	HP-X
Computers/Digital	PC	TOS-A
Computers/Digital	Digital Keyboard	LOG-A
Computers/Digital	Digital Keyboard	LOG-TX/LG-KB
Electricals	Electrical Cables	MZ-XA
Electricals	Electrical Cables	BS-C
Electricals	White Goods	KLV-AA
Electricals	White Goods	BSH-FZ
Electricals	Television/TV	PAN-Z
Electricals	Television/TV	PAN-AA
Office Furniture	Office Chair	GUEST
Office Furniture	Office Chair	IKEAS
Office Furniture	Cabinet	CABA
Office Furniture	Cabinet	CABB

Table 6.2: An instance of dimension table Item in Transaction data mart.

the level Department/Area, then there is no loss.

As for the second problem, it is often necessary to relate the common data back to the data related to non-compatible dimensions in the original data marts. For example, once we know the total Invoice\_Amt and Accessory\_Cost for all matching states and product/items,

then we would have to refer to the original sources when we need to know their respective invoice and accessory details. This is obviously a tedious manual task. To overcome this problem, the existing operation of drill-across is extended to also return the data related to levels that have no matching, or their matchings are not coherent or consistent. We also propose to extend pivot tables to support the extended operation of drill-across.

## 6.2 Non-Compatible but Combinable Dimension Tables

Definitions for perfect matching dimensions, and  $\mu$ -compatible dimensions were explained in Section 2.4.2. Once again, Torlone [2008] defines two dimensions  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  as being  $\mu$ -compatible, if there are lossless expressions  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  over dimensions  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  such that  $\mu$  is a perfect matching. This up-front use of a single pair of expressions to enforce soundness as Torlone suggests, is not however, sufficient to effectively exploit the common data.

It is important to note that the loss resulting from the absence of soundness may occur with respect to only one of the data marts or both. A user may wish to continue with the integration despite the loss in another data mart, and therefore a perfect matching may not be necessary. Also, it is possible that the data marts use *factless facts* (i.e. fact tables that have no measure) [Kimball and Ross, 2002], in which case, there would be no need for aggregated measures. But more importantly, there may be many different expressions that make the matching between levels of two dimensions to be sound.

We propose to remove soundness from the requirements of compatibility, and at the same time introduce measures to quantify the loss and, thereby, allow users decide where the integration is meaningful. By providing the loss measures to users, they are able to

discover lossless expressions which may vary for different fragments of data.

To be able to use compatibility in the context of relational implementation of multidimensional data, we make the same assumptions as in Section 4.1. Again, for simplicity but without loss of generality, it is assumed that each level of any dimension table is associated with a single attribute, and therefore, we can use levels to refer to attributes.

**Definition 6.1.** *Two levels  $l_1$  and  $l_2$  are combinable if, and only if, they match and their matching is coherent and consistent.*

**Definition 6.2.** *Two dimension tables  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  are combinable if the matching  $\mu$  over their matching levels is combinable.*

This requirement does not require the matching levels to have identical members. Therefore, every pair of compatible dimension tables is also combinable. However, not every pair of combinable dimension tables is compatible.

Relaxing the requirement for compatibility means that we need to identify where the loss of data occurs. In the next section, several measures are introduced to calculate the loss resulting from integration of combinable (but not compatible) levels.

In the next section, several measures are introduced to calculate the loss resulting from integration of combinable (but not compatible) levels. The methods defined in the next section rely on the following information obtained during the instance matching in Chapter 5: (i) the number of distinct instances of each dimension attribute from each dimension, and (ii) the number of matching distinct instances between each pair of dimension attributes.

### 6.3 Absolute Loss Ratio

The *absolute loss ratio* is calculated for a pair of combinable levels. It measures the degree of mismatch between members of two such levels. It is applicable to where there is a need to minimize the loss regardless of whether members have any corresponding fact. For example, inclusion of all employees from an `Employee` dimension table which represent the organization hierarchy is required for browsing of the complete employee hierarchy regardless of whether some employees have made any sales or not.

It is calculated by dividing the number of distinct matching members of the two levels divided over the number of distinct members of the level belonging to the data mart for which the loss is calculated. The loss measures are not symmetrical, they are relative to each data mart. The intuition is that the user may be concerned with the loss in only one of the data marts.

The following calculates the absolute loss ratio  $\Delta_{DM}$  for a pair of combinable levels  $l_i$  in  $D$  and  $l'_j$  in  $D'$ , with respect to data mart  $DM$ .

$$\Delta_{DM}(D(A_i : l_i), D'(A'_j : l'_j)) = 1 - \frac{|\pi_{A_i}(D) \cap \pi_{A'_j}(D')|}{|\pi_{A_i}(D)|} \quad (6.1)$$

Based on the instances in Tables 6.1 and 6.2,  $\Delta_{\text{Sales}}(\text{Department}, \text{Area})$  is 0.5 (i.e.  $1 - 2/4$ ), and 0.33 (i.e.  $1 - 2/3$ ) for  $\Delta_{\text{Transaction}}(\text{Department}, \text{Area})$ . In other words, 33% of the members of `Department` in the `Sales` data mart have no match in the level `Area` of `Transaction`.

Pre-calculation of loss ratios for all levels and their combinations is useful for considera-

tion during the integration. Figure 6.3 shows the absolute ratios calculated for all combinations of levels with respect to the Sales data mart shown in Figure 6.3(a), and with respect to Transaction data mart shown in Figure 6.3(b), and based on their instances in Tables 6.1 and 6.2.

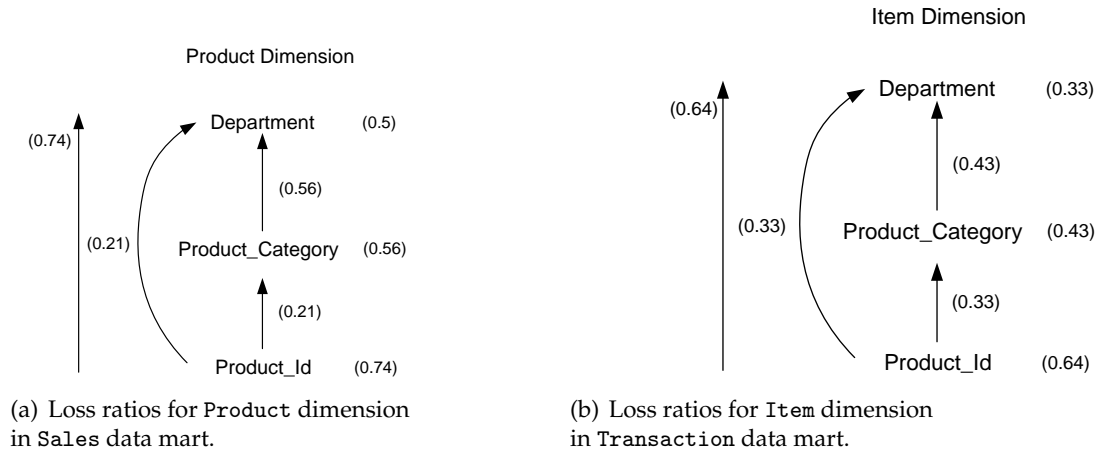


Figure 6.3: Absolute loss ratios for levels of Product and Item dimension tables.

#### 6.4 Relative Loss Ratio

Not all members of levels have a corresponding fact in their fact table. The *relative loss ratio* excludes those tuples of a dimension table that do not refer to any tuple in the fact table. Therefore, this ratio is either the same or less than the absolute loss ratio for the same pair of levels.

Unlike absolute loss ratio where users are interested in the complete set of members, relative loss ratio is applicable to where we are more interested in the measures than matching members of levels. The following relational algebra shows calculation of relative loss ratio ( $\delta_{DM}$ ) with respect to a data mart ( $DM$ ).  $F$  and  $F'$  are fact tables to which  $D$  and  $D'$  refer to



respectively.

$$\delta_{DM}(D(A_i : l_i), D'(A' : l'_j)) = 1 - \frac{|\pi_{A_i}(D \bowtie F) \cap \pi_{A'_j}(D' \bowtie F')|}{|\pi_{A_i}(D \bowtie F)|}$$

Consider Tables 6.3 and 6.4 as some instances of the two schemas in Figures 6.1 and 6.2. For simplicity, Sales data mart (represented as data cube C1) is summarized over State, Product\_Category and Invoice\_No, and Transaction data mart (represented as data cube C2) is summarized over State, Item\_Category and Accessory\_Code. It is assumed that there were no sales made for products in the state of Vic and, hence, they do not appear in Sales data mart. The relative loss ratios calculated for the two combinable levels (State, Area) and (Product\_Category, Item\_Category), and their combinations are shown below in Figure 6.4. No partial order relationship is assumed between these two levels.

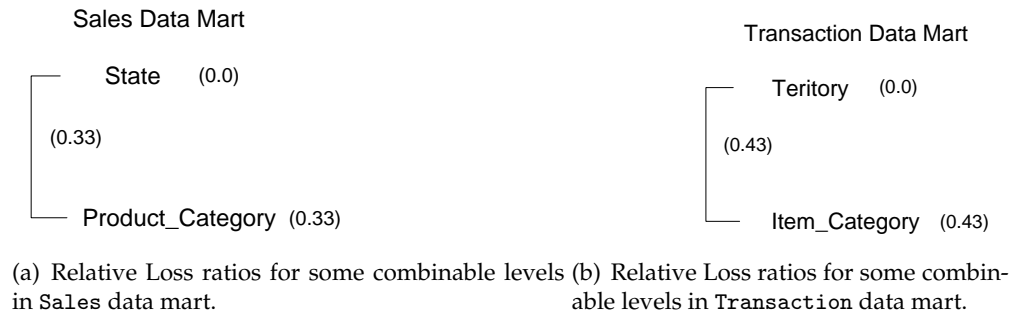


Figure 6.4: Relative loss ratios for some combinable levels from Sales and Transaction data marts.

Compared to absolute loss ratio (shown in Figure 6.3), the relative loss for (Product\_Category, Item\_Category) is less for the same levels, and there is no loss for (State, Area) with respect to either of the two data marts.

State	Product_Category	Invoice_No	Invoice_Amt
NSW	White Goods	INV0077	800
NSW	White Goods	INV0088	900
NSW	Television/TV	INV0099	1200
NSW	Television/TV	INV0012	1400
NSW	Television/TV	INV0014	2100
SA	PC	INV0016	1100
SA	PC	INV0018	1200
SA	Digital Keyboard	INV0032	1300
SA	Digital Keyboard	INV0034	3100
NT	Lounge	INV0036	4200
NT	Lounge	INV0038	1900
NT	Recliner	INV0042	1800
NT	Recliner	INV0044	600

Table 6.3: Sales data mart, an instance of the schema in Figure 6.1.

State	Item_Category	Accessory_Code	Accessory_Cost
SA	PC	A#0010	150
SA	PC	A#0022	50
SA	PC	A#0023	55
SA	Digital Keyboard	A#0044	70
SA	Digital Keyboard	A#0056	60
NSW	Electrical Cables	A#0060	10
NSW	Electrical Cables	A#0025	100
NSW	White Goods	A#0035	50
NSW	White Goods	A#0015	20
NSW	Television/TV	A#0040	60
NSW	Television/TV	A#0090	70
WA	Office Chair	A#0011	10
WA	Office Chair	A#0012	10
NT	Cabinet	A#0019	20
NT	Cabinet	A#0077	30

Table 6.4: Transaction data mart, an instance of the schema in Figure 6.1.

## 6.5 Constrained Loss Ratio

If there is still unacceptable loss using the relative loss ratios, then we can consider customized lossless expressions for different levels. The loss ratio calculated after applying such expressions is a *constrained loss ratio* (denoted by  $\chi_{DM}$ ), and can be based on the absolute or relative loss ratio. For example, members of Quarter in Sales may be Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, but 1, 2, 3, 4 as members of the same level in Transaction data mart. In this case, a con-

straint such as  $\sigma_{(\text{substring}(\text{Sales.Time.Quarter},2,1))}(\text{Sales.Time})$  can eliminate the loss.

A similar application of the constrained loss ratio is to use expressions that align the domains of levels and, thereby, reduce their loss ratio. For example, given the level `PostCode`, and the level `Locality` which includes a combinations of city and post code, we can have an expression that derives `PostCode` from `Locality` making the two levels to have a sound matching.

## 6.6 Exploiting Dimension Hierarchies for Calculation of Loss Ratios

In calculating the loss ratio for all levels and dimensions, we can exploit dimension hierarchies to save in calculations.

**Lemma 6.1.** *Given the coherent and consistent matching  $\mu$  between the two dimension tables  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  over their matching levels  $L = l_1, l_2, \dots, l_n$  and  $L' = l'_1, l'_2, \dots, l'_n$ , the loss ratios for the two dimension tables using all of their combinable levels from the root of their hierarchies down to the matching levels  $l_i$  and  $l_j$  is equal to the loss ratios for  $l_i$  and  $l_j$ .*

*Proof.* There are two scenarios to consider:

- There are members of  $l_i$  and  $l_j$  that do not match, but their parent members at some levels of  $L$  and  $L'$  do match. This case will not affect the result since the mismatch between  $l_i$  and  $l_j$  is taken into consideration anyhow.
- There are members of  $l_i$  and  $l_j$  that do match but their parent members at some levels of  $L$  and  $L'$  do not match. This case is not possible, otherwise, the matching between the two levels will not be consistent. □

The two levels  $l_i$  and  $l_j$  may be base levels in which case the loss for these levels is the same as the loss for their respective dimension tables. If we roll-up measures to a higher level, then it is considered the new base level. This will give us a loss ratio that is bound to be less than or equal to the loss ratio at a lower level. This can be easily seen by the proof of Lemma 6.1. By doing so, we raise the granularity of data, but we are more likely to have a lossless integration.

It is also possible to calculate loss ratio for a combination of levels between which there may or may not be a partial order relationship. For example, levels from Product/Item and Location dimension tables do not necessarily have a partial order relationship between them. In this case, where in the formula, we calculate the number of common values of attributes, we require that all of the values of matching attributes match. For example, using Department, Product\_Category and Product\_Id, the absolute loss ratio is 0.74 (that is  $1 - 5/19$ ) for the Sales data mart and 0.64 (that is  $1 - 5/14$ ) for the Transaction data mart.

The above is also applicable to situations where the levels in the source or target data marts belong to different dimension tables. Calculation of loss ratios at each level of a hierarchy as well as, for different combination of levels, provides users with the information they need to perform the slice, dice and roll-up operations to have a potentially lossless integration.

Whilst, absolute and relative loss ratios can be used before and during the integration and visualization, the expressions used to calculate constrained loss ratios are more easily discovered by using OLAP operations during the visualization. In Section 6.8.1, it is shown how loss ratios can be included in the visualization of the integrated data to guide these

operations.

## 6.7 Extending Drill-Across to Non-Combinable Levels

The main motivation for extending drill-across is to extend the data analysis space by including the data corresponding to the non-combinable levels and linking them to the common data. The non-compatible levels are those whose attributes were found to be mismatching during the schema matching, or were found to be causing incoherence for the inferred hierarchies. Consider  $C1$ , tuples of a fact table  $F$  that refers to  $p$  dimension tables and is summarized over  $s$  levels, with its first  $k$  attributes corresponding to combinable levels.  $F$  has  $i$  measures ( $m$ ):

$$C1 = \gamma_{(A_1, \dots, A_k, A_{k+1}, \dots, A_s), \text{Sum}(m_1, \dots, m_i)} (D_1 \bowtie F, \dots, D_p \bowtie F).$$

The symbol  $\gamma$  denotes summarization. Similarly,  $C2$  represents tuples of a fact table  $F'$  with  $q$  dimension tables summarized over  $t$  levels, with its first  $k$  attributes corresponding to combinable levels.  $F'$  has  $j$  measures ( $n$ ):

$$C2 = \gamma_{(A'_1, \dots, A'_k, A'_{k+1}, \dots, A'_t), \text{Sum}(n_1, \dots, n_j)} (D'_1 \bowtie F, \dots, D'_q \bowtie F').$$

Resulting from drill-across between the two data marts owning  $F$  and  $F'$ , is the integrated fact table  $X$  whose tuples are obtained through a natural join using the combinable levels:  $X = \pi_{A_1, \dots, A_k, \text{Sum}(m_1, \dots, m_i, n_1, \dots, n_j)} \sigma_{A_1=A'_1, \dots, A_k=A'_k} (C1 \bowtie C2)$ .

We propose to extend drill-across to also return  $C1'$  and  $C2'$  which are subsets of  $C1$  and  $C2$ , being restricted to matching members of combinable levels, and summarized over their non-combinable levels:  $C1' = \gamma_{(A_{k+1}, \dots, A_s), \text{Sum}(m_1, \dots, m_i)}$  and  $C2' = \gamma_{(A'_{k+1}, \dots, A'_t), \text{Sum}(n_1, \dots, n_j)}$ .

Figure 6.5 is a visualization of drill-across between the two data marts represented as

data cubes  $C1$  and  $C2$ . The result  $X$  includes the combined measures summarized over the combinable levels (State /Area) and (Product\_Category /Item\_Category).

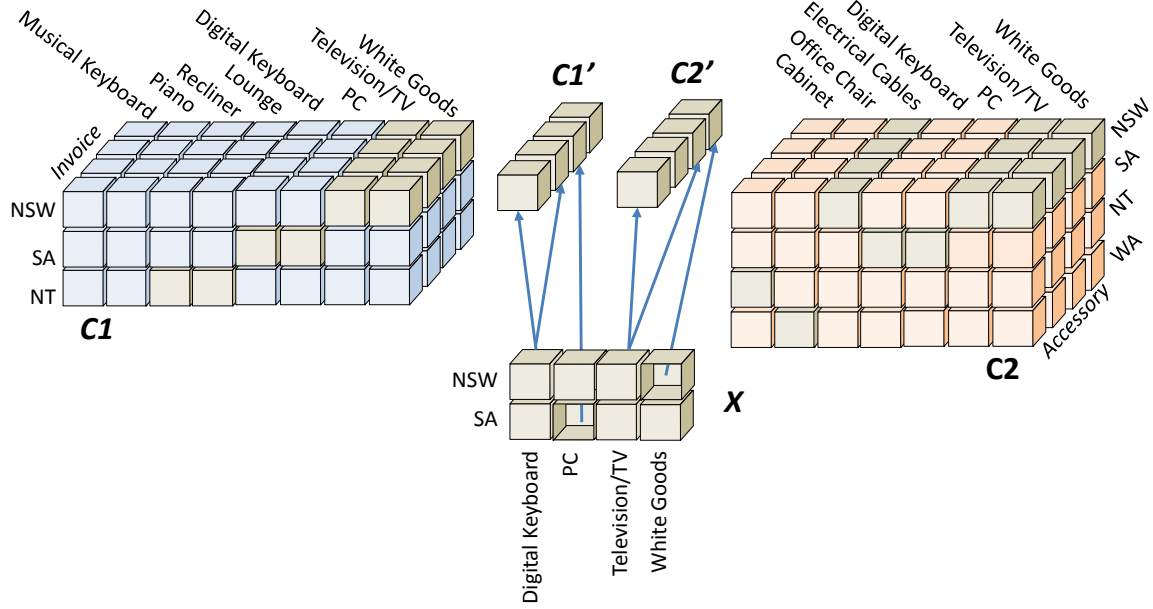


Figure 6.5: Extending drill-across.

For simplicity, let us assume that the matching members of the  $k$  combinable levels are in the first  $g$  tuples of  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_g\}$  being  $x_1 = \langle v_{1,1}, \dots, v_{1,k} \rangle, \dots, x_g = \langle v_{g,1}, \dots, v_{g,k} \rangle$ , where  $v$  denotes value of the dimension attribute, with its first subscript referring to the attribute, and its second subscript referring to the value of the attribute. Each tuple in  $X$  relates to some tuples in  $C1'$ , and some tuples in  $C2'$ , that is:

$$x_1 : \pi_{A_{k+1}, \dots, A_s}, \text{Sum}(m_1, \dots, m_i) \mid \sigma_{A_1=v_{1,1}, \dots, A_k=v_{1,k}}, \dots,$$

$$x_g : \pi_{A_{k+1}, \dots, A_s}, \text{Sum}(m_1, \dots, m_i) \mid \sigma_{A_1=v_{g,1}, \dots, A_k=v_{g,k}} \text{ and}$$

$$x_1 : \pi_{A'_{k+1}, \dots, A'_t}, \text{Sum}(n_1, \dots, n_j) \mid \sigma_{A'_1=v_{1,1}, \dots, A'_k=v_{1,k}}, \dots,$$

$$x_g : \pi_{A'_{k+1}, \dots, A'_t}, \text{Sum}(n_1, \dots, n_j) \mid \sigma_{A'_1=v_{g,1}, \dots, A'_k=v_{g,k}}$$

The symbol ":" is means "relates to".

**Example 6.1.** *Given the sample data in Tables 6.1,6.2, the common data X is:*

State/Area	Product_Category/Item_Category	Invoice_Amt	Accessory_Cost
NSW	Television/TV	4700	130
NSW	White Goods	1700	70
SA	PC	2300	255
SA	Digital Keyboard	4400	130

Table 6.5: Data related to combinable levels.

A given tuple  $\langle SA, PC \rangle$  in the combined data area (X) relates to the following tuples from C1' representing the data related to a non-combinable level Invoice\_No from the Sales data mart, and to C2' the data related to a non-combinable level Accessory\_Code in the Transaction data mart:

Invoice_No	Invoice_Amt
INV0016	1100
INV0018	1200

Accessory_Code	Accessory_Cost
A#0010	150
A#0022	50
A#0023	55

Table 6.6: Data related to non-combinable levels.

## 6.8 Visualizing the Extended Drill-Across

The benefit of extending drill-across is only realized if the device for visualizing multidimensional data can support it. In this section, we describe at a conceptual level how these three related data, namely the common data X and the data related to the non-combinable levels (i.e. C1' and C2'), can be shown using pivot tables.

A pivot table is a tabular representation of multidimensional data. Although, more flexible data structures such as trees would be more suitable to visualize multidimensional data [Vinnik and Mansmann, 2006], for simplicity, we use pivot tables to show X, C1' and C2'.

We propose that the visualization of multidimensional data using pivot tables includes a Parent Pivot Table (PPT) corresponding to  $X$ , and multiple Child Pivot Tables corresponding to sub-cubes of  $C1'$  and  $C2'$ . For each tuple in the PPT, there are one, or more tuples in each of the CPTs. In this respect, there is a nested relation between the tuples represented by the parent and child pivot tables.

Figure 6.6 shows a conceptual layout of nested pivot tables related to the three areas of data. Highlighted areas show one tuple from the common data ( $X$ ) linked to some tuples from  $C1'$  and  $C2'$ .

PPT (X)				CPTs ( $C1'_{1,...}$ )		CPTs ( $C2'_{1,...}$ )	
State /Area	Product Category /Item Category	Invoice Amt	Accessory Cost	Invoice No	Invoice Amt	Accessory Code	Accessory Cost
NSW	White Goods	1700	70	INV0077	800	A#0035	50
				INV0088	900	A#0015	20
				Total	1700	Total	70
	Television - TV	4700	130	INV0099	1200	A#0040	60
				INV0012	1400	A#0090	70
				INV0014	2100	Total	130
	Total	6400	200	Total	4700		
					6400		200
SA	PC	2300	255	INV0016	1100	A#0010	150
				INV0018	1200	A#0022	50
				Total	2300	A#0023	55
						Total	255
	Digital Keyboard	4400	130	INV0032	1300	A#0044	70
				INV0034	3100	A#0056	60
	Total	6700	385	Total	4400	Total	130
					6700		385
Total		13100	585		13100		585

Figure 6.6: Nesting pivot tables.

OLAP operations such as slicing, dicing, roll-up, and roll-in against the PPT will require re-grouping of data in CPTs. Any OLAP operation against the CPT does not affect the PPT,



however, the same operation has to be applied against the remaining sibling CPTs.

### 6.8.1 Inclusion of Loss Ratio in Visualization of Multidimensional Data

Inclusion of loss ratio during the visualization of integrated results enables users to interactively select lossless fragments of data through OLAP operations roll-up, slice and dice.

For example, Figure 6.7 shows relative loss ratios for State and Product.Category individually, and also for both of them. It also shows the constrained loss ratios where State/Area is restricted to a certain member.

$\delta_{Sales}((State, Area), (Product\_Category, Item\_Category)) = 0.33,$ $\delta_{Transaction}((State, Area), (Product\_Category, Item\_Category)) = 0.43$			
State/Area	Product Category/Item Category		
$\delta_{Sales}(State, Area) = 0,$ $\delta_{Transaction}(State, Area) = 0.25$	$\delta_{Sales}(Product\_Category, Item\_Category) = 0.33,$ $\delta_{Transaction}(Product\_Category, Item\_Category) = 0.43$	Invoice Amt	Accessory Cost
NSW	White Goods	1700	70
	Television - TV	4700	130
	$\chi_{Sales}(Product\_Category, Item\_Category) = 0,$ $\chi_{Transaction}(Product\_Category, Item\_Category) = 0.33$		
	Total	6400	200
SA	PC	2300	255
	Digital Keyboard	4400	130
	$\chi_{Sales}(Product\_Category, Item\_Category) = 0,$ $\chi_{Transaction}(Product\_Category, Item\_Category) = 0$		
	Total	6700	385
Total		13100	585

Figure 6.7: Exploiting loss ratios during the data visualization.

The example shows that there is no loss related to the Sales data mart when using both levels. Also, if we restrict the State/Area to SA, then there is no loss related to either data marts for the level Product.Category/Item.Category.

## 6.9 Discussion

In this chapter, the concept of combinable dimension tables was introduced. It has similar requirements to dimension compatibility, but does not require soundness, and therefore, extends the scope of integrating data marts. The main motivation is to empower users to manage the soundness and maximize the scope of the integrated data.

As discussed in Section 2.4.2, Torlone's definition of  $\mu$ -compatible dimensions provides limited flexibility for extending the scope of the integration, but remains restrictive and difficult to use because: (i) it still makes soundness (in some limited way) to be a pre-condition for compatibility as a requirement for accurate integration; (ii) it is difficult to find and formulate lossless expressions before the integration; (iii) there may be many lossless expressions for different levels with coherent and consistent matchings; (iv) the concern for loss of data may be limited to only one of the data marts; (v) the loss may have no impact on the accuracy of aggregated measures.

Therefore, upfront application of a single pair of expressions cannot be effective. Instead, combinable levels and methods for calculating the loss ratio were introduced. These measures are used to calculate three types of measures of loss resulting from integration of non-combinable levels. They guide the user determine where lossless integration can be achieved using roll-up, slice, dice or a combination of these operations.

Whilst, expressions that correspond to these operations can be applied before the integration, they are more effectively exploited when applied interactively during the visualization of the integrated data. This is particularly true with constrained loss ratio which requires discovery of lossless expressions.

The operation drill-across was extended to return the data related to non-combinable levels to relate them to the common data. The motivation for this extension is to be able to analyze the common and related exclusive data together. The extended operation for relational tables was described using relational algebra, future work is required to define the extended drill-across for MOLAP databases.

A conceptual view of how pivot tables could be extended to support the extended drill-across was discussed. Future work is however, required to apply the extension to more suitable visualization techniques.

Beyond the use of loss ratio to maximize the scope of the integration, they could be also effective if used in matching Star schemas. In Section 2.1.2, we explained that in similarity flooding algorithm, the initial similarity values for each pair of nodes (that is tables, columns, indexes, etc.) is obtained using the similarity between their labels. A more attractive alternative is to include the use of similarity ratio (that is  $1 - \Delta$ ) for the initial similarity value between dimension attributes. Future work is required to investigate the effectiveness of this approach.

## Chapter 7

# Conclusions and Future Work

"Be yourself and think for yourself; and while your conclusions may not be infallible, they will be nearer right than the conclusions forced upon you."

Elbert Hubbard (1856 - 1915)

In this thesis, we have taken several key steps towards automating the integration of multidimensional databases. The proposed solutions empower data analysts to reduce their reliance on experts such as database practitioners and developers, and therefore, reduce costs, and shorten the time required to deliver integrated data to data analysts. In this section, we summarize our key findings and contributions, and discuss directions for future work.

### 7.1 Representation and Matching of Star Schemas

We started with schema matching for Star schemas in Chapter 3. We emphasized that although Star schemas are in fact relational schemas, their distinct and predictable properties allow us describe them more precisely. The immediate benefits of a more precise description of Star schemas are that it makes them more understandable by humans and provides a more clear mapping to the structure of multidimensional data.

A more significant benefit is that we are able to get improved results with matching of Star schemas. We extended the relational properties with properties of Star schemas, and provided a description of Star schemas using UML diagram as well as OWL language. We referred to this extended representation as StarMod. We used the UML version for visual description of StarMod and the OWL version for automating the schema matching process.

We described a set of rules which we use to infer instances of the OWL version of StarMod from relational schemas. For this purpose, we have implemented the inference rules in XML transformation language (XSLT). OWL schemas are then further transformed to RDF statements used by similarity flooding algorithm for matching.

To demonstrate that using instances of StarMod improves the match results of Star schemas, we ran experiments using 18 pairs of Star and non-Star schemas. We repeated our experiments against both specifications of the same schemas (i.e. using the relational properties as well as StarMod). We used similarity flooding, a well known graph matching algorithm because it provided flexible representation of the schemas using RDF, and a basic implementation of it was available to use.

Our experiments show consistently higher accuracy when using StarMod compared

with using basic relational properties. They also show that StarMod can be effective in matching arbitrary relational schemas.

We then compared the match results obtained from using relational as well as StarMod against those of COMA++ which is also a well known schema matching algorithm for relational schemas. We found that although COMA outperforms similarity flooding when using relational properties, it fails to outperform similarity flooding using StarMod. This raises the opportunity for future work to examine improving COMA++ by using StarMod properties.

Increase in the number of distinct properties resulting from the specialization of the properties adds to the computation time, future work is required to measure the impact. Discovery of StarMod properties such as degenerate dimensions and facts using physical properties is imprecise and requires additional semantic information. This would reduce the number of false positive and false negative cases. At the same time, instances of StarMod implemented using OWL language have the potential to be augmented with additional domain ontologies to help infer those properties more accurately and precisely.

## 7.2 Inferring Aggregation Hierarchies

A precursor to instance matching is the availability of aggregation hierarchies. The absence of a standard representation of these hierarchies as part of schema definition is the main reason why they may not be available. It is even less likely for these hierarchies to be available for heterogeneous dimensions.

In Chapter 4, we introduced algorithms to infer aggregation hierarchies from data. The

problem with other sources of information such as domain ontologies, UML schemas and ER diagrams is that they may not be available either, or may return false negative partial order relationships. The fact that hierarchies are enforced either by the application or the data base management system (DBMS) makes the data to be indicative of its structure.

The first part of our proposed process to infer hierarchies is the identification of the partial order relationships between every pair of dimension attributes. The result will include redundant transitive relationships which we eliminate in the second phase of the process. Some dimension attributes have identical relationship with all other attributes. As part of the final phase, we group such attributes into a single level and assign distinct levels to the remaining dimension attributes.

If a dimension is only partially populated, we may find partial order relationships that are, in fact false and, hence, the partial order relationships in intended hierarchies are always subsets of those in inferred hierarchies. Consequently, inferred aggregation hierarchies subsume the intended hierarchies.

This leads us to the conclusion that if the matching is compatible using the inferred hierarchies, then it must be also compatible using the intended hierarchies. Therefore, using the inferred hierarchies would be sufficient to validate the matching between dimensions in terms of coherence and consistency.

Presence of false spurious partial order relationships may falsely result in the matchings to be found incoherent and/or inconsistent. What is however critical is that where we do proceed with the integration based on the inferred hierarchies, the integrated result is accurate.

A limitation of our approach is that it does not cover rare cases where a level is a composition of multiple dimension attributes. For example, there may be no partial order relationship between dimension attributes *State*, *Locality* and *Postcode*, but there may be one between *State* and  $\{\textit{Locality}, \textit{Postcode}\}$ . Using data alone to discover such levels is not sufficient because we may group unrelated attributes into a level. Future work could consider using both, domain information as well as data to identify such levels.

### 7.3 Instance Matching

The schema match results and dimension hierarchies are keys to identifying matching members in matching levels. In Chapter 5, we addressed the problem of instance matching for dimension tables. We explained that the hierarchical structure of multidimensional data provides significant clues to identifying matching members and, hence, we are interested in algorithms that exploit hierarchies.

We demonstrated through experiments with real life data that similarity flooding algorithm was very effective in matching instances of dimensions because the algorithm effectively exploits the hierarchical relationship between levels. In fact, compared with our experience with using similarity flooding for schema matching, we found that this algorithm is far more effective in matching instances of dimensions.

We argued that where original dimensions are strict, any non-strict case resulting from the integration is more likely to be due to incorrect instance matching results. This meant that we could enforce strictness and reduce the number of false positive cases at the same time. Our first algorithm in this section was designed to achieve this objective.



A side effect of using algorithms that exploit hierarchies is that the number of false positive cases increases with the increase in missing matching members in either of the instances. Our second algorithm addresses this problem by discarding those suggested matchings whose similarity scores as well as match factors of their parent matching pairs (in the connectivity graph) are outlier values. To calculate the match factor, we take into consideration, the number of matching pairs at the child and at the leaf levels. This is based on the intuition that accidental matching pairs contribute much less to the similarity scores of their descendants and ascendants.

Our experiments show that where the volume of missing data is not significant, the first algorithm is able to improve the precision with little impact on the recall despite SF performing well with very high precision and recall values. They also show that where the problem of missing data is significant, similarity flooding does not perform as well. This is where our second algorithm is able to improve the result significantly.

Our experiments also show that similarity flooding does not perform as well where there are multiple hierarchies in a dimension. Future work is required to investigate instance matching algorithms that recognize and exploit multiple hierarchies.

It was shown that our second algorithm can have a negative impact on the recall value. This occurs where the problem associated with missing data is not significant. Future work is required to improve the calculation of the match factor and identify possible relationship(s) between the threshold we use in the second algorithm, and the values of precision and recall.

#### 7.4 Extending the Scope of Integration

In the previous chapters, we proposed methods for matching Star schemas and their instances, and for inferring aggregation hierarchies. These methods provide the necessary information to establish what is compatible between dimensions and what is not. The compatible dimensions form the basis for the integration of data marts using the drill-across operation. In this chapter, we have taken further steps towards the extending the scope of the integration beyond the compatible dimensions.

First, we relaxed the requirements for compatibility, and introduced combinable levels and dimensions. For the matching between levels to be combinable we require that the matching between them is coherent and consistent only. The definition of  $\mu$ -compatible dimensions offers some relief for soundness, but is not sufficient as it considers a single pair of lossless expressions for the integration to be accurate.

Second, to exploit lossless fragments of integrated data, we proposed several methods for measuring the loss resulting from the absence of soundness. These measures are used to guide the user in performing OLAP operations such as roll-up, slice and dice to identify lossless fragments of data.

As for levels that are not combinable or have no match, they are still valuable data that need to be linked to the common data. Existing navigation (or integration) operator drill-across only returns data related to combinable levels. Third, we extend the operation drill-across to also return the data related to non-combinable levels.

The benefit of the extended drill-across is only realized if the visualization of multidimensional data supports it. It was shown in Chapter 6 (at a conceptual level), that this could

be achieved by nesting pivot tables which include a parent pivot table for the common data and multiple child pivot tables for the data related to non-combinable levels.

We described the extended operation of drill-across in relational algebra for ROLAP databases. Future work is required to provide a formal framework for MOLAP databases, and to consider more sophisticated graphical techniques to show the data related to combinable and non-combinable levels in separate panes (or windows), and at the same time enable OLAP operations against one pane to be cascaded to other dependent panes.

Future direction would include a framework that brings these solutions together, and use a web service enabled discovery and retrieval of heterogeneous data marts.

In summary, our contributions help shift the problem of integrating heterogeneous data marts away from experts to data analysts. This will reduce costs and significantly saves time to deliver the integrated data to data analysts which will in turn allow the business to react to events promptly.

## **Appendix A**

# **Instructions to Participants for Matching Schemas**

This appendix contains instructions to the participants in the manual matching of schemas.

## APPENDIX A. INSTRUCTIONS TO PARTICIPANTS for MATCHING SCHEMAS

Dear Participant,

Thank you for participating in this experiment. Please refer to the document entitled “*Plain Language Statement*”, if you wish to read again what is expected from you and what your rights are.

This document contains the following pages:

- Page 1 (This page): instructions and Introduction
- Page 2: A sample schema matching task to help you fill in the match results table

### **Instructions:**

By now you have signed and returned the consent form. Following is a summary of steps you need to take:

1. There are six tasks in your package. Each task has two parts:
  - a. The first part requires you to study the two schemas appearing in page 1 of every task. You are then required to fill in a table that appears on page 2 of every task. You will use this table to record the best match candidates.
  - b. The second part also appears on page 2. It requires you to respond to 3 multiple choice questions about the task itself.
2. Return the answer sheet to the principal investigator using the envelope provided to you.

### **Important:** Please note the following concerning the schema matching tasks:

- Your match results must cover columns as well as tables.
- A column/table in the schema on the left hand side may not match with any column/table from the schema on the right hand side, in which case no entry is required in the match results table.
- A column/table in the schema on the left hand side may match with none, one or more column or table in the schema on the right hand side.
- If a column/table in the schema on the left hand side matches with more than one column/table from the schema on the right hand side, then they must be listed separately in the match result table. Please refer to the sample schema matching task on next page.

Explanation of the notations used for the relationships in the models:



For every row in the parent table there may be zero, one or more rows in the child table. The foreign key column in the child table is part of the primary key (i.e. identifying relationship).



For every row in the parent table there may be zero, one or more rows in the child table. The foreign key column in the child table is **not** part of the primary key (i.e. non-identifying relationship).

## **Appendix B**

# **Schemas for Evaluation of StarMod**

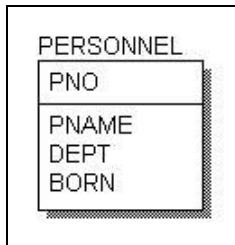
This appendix contains details of the schemas provided to the participants to match manually. Each of the 18 pairs of the schemas are identified using a reference name also used in chapter 3 for reference purpose. The visual representation and the DDL of each schema is provided.

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

### Pair 1

#### Left Hand Schema Id: M7L

##### Model:

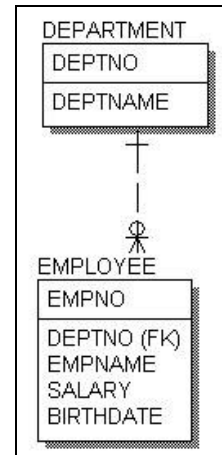


##### DDL:

```
1 CREATE TABLE M07L.PERSONNEL (
2   PNO INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY
KEY,
3   PNAME CHAR(40),
4   DEPT CHAR(40),
5   BORN DATE,
6   PRIMARY KEY (PNO)
);
```

#### Right Hand Schema Id: M7R

##### Model:



##### DDL:

```
a CREATE TABLE M7R.DEPARTMENT (
b   DEPTNO INTEGER NOT NULL ,
c   DEPTNAME VARCHAR(70),
d   PRIMARY KEY (DEPTNO) );

e CREATE TABLE M7R.EMPLOYEE (
f   EMPNO INTEGER NOT NULL ,
g   EMPNAME VARCHAR(50) ,
h   DEPTNO INTEGER ,
i   SALARY DECIMAL(15,2) ,
j   BIRTHDATE DATE,
   PRIMARY KEY (EMPNO),
   FOREIGN KEY (DEPTNO)
REFERENCES M7R.DEPARTMENT
);
```

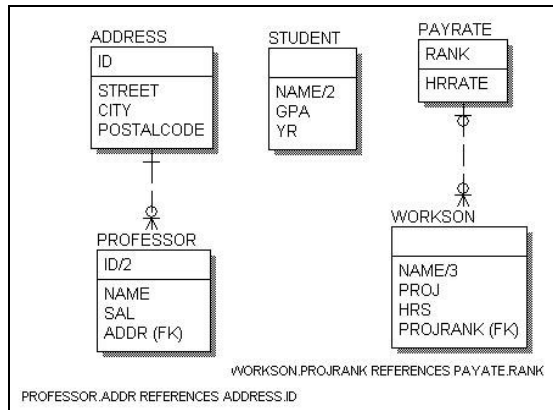


## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

### Pair 2

#### Left Hand Schema Id: M8L

##### Model:



##### DDL:

```

1  CREATE TABLE M8L.ADDRESS (
2      ID INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY
3      STREET CHAR(40),
4      CITY CHAR(40),
5      POSTALCODE INTEGER );

6  CREATE TABLE M8L.PROFESSOR (
7      ID INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY
8      NAME CHAR(40),
9      SAL DOUBLE,
10     ADDR INT,
11     FOREIGN KEY (ADDR) REFERENCES
12         M8L.ADDRESS(ID) );

11 CREATE TABLE M8L.STUDENT (
12     NAME CHAR(40),
13     GPA DOUBLE,
14     YR INTEGER );

15 CREATE TABLE M8L.PAYRATE (

```

```

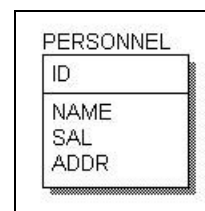
16     RANK INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY
17     HRRATE DOUBLE );

18 CREATE TABLE M8L.WORKSON (
19     NAME CHAR(40),
20     PROJ CHAR(40),
21     HRS INTEGER,
22     PROJRANK INT,
23     FOREIGN KEY (PROJRANK) REFERENCES
24     M8L.PAYRATE(RANK) );

```

#### Right Hand Schema Id: M9R

##### Model:

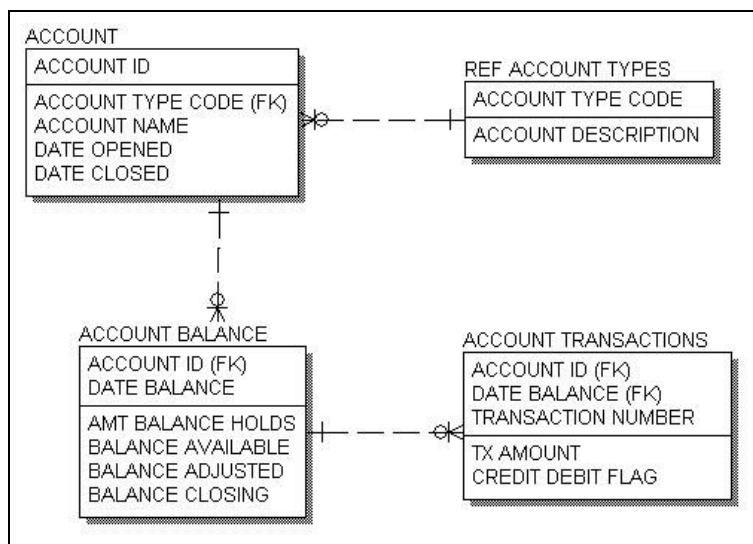


##### DDL:

```

a  CREATE TABLE M9R.PERSONNEL (
b      ID INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY
c      NAME CHAR(40),
d      SAL DOUBLE,
e      ADDR CHAR(40)
);

```

**Pair 3****Left Hand Schema Id: R05****Model:****DDL:**

```

1  CREATE TABLE R05.REF_ACCOUNT_TYPES (
2     ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE    CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
3     ACCOUNT_DESCRIPTION   VARCHAR(40),
4     PRIMARY KEY (ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE) );

5  CREATE TABLE R05.ACCOUNT (
6     ACCOUNT_ID            INTEGER NOT NULL,
7     ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE     CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
8     ACCOUNT_NAME          VARCHAR(50),
9     DATE_OPENED           DATE,
10    DATE_CLOSED            DATE,
11    PRIMARY KEY (ACCOUNT_ID),
12    FOREIGN KEY (ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE) REFERENCES
13        R05.REF_ACCOUNT_TYPES );

14 CREATE TABLE R05.ACCOUNT_BALANCE (
15     ACCOUNT_ID            INTEGER NOT NULL,
16     DATE_BALANCE          DATE NOT NULL,
17     AMT_BALANCE_HOLDS     DOUBLE PRECISION,
18     BALANCE_AVAILABLE     DOUBLE PRECISION,
19     BALANCE_ADJUSTED      DOUBLE PRECISION,
20     BALANCE_CLOSING       DOUBLE PRECISION,
21    PRIMARY KEY (ACCOUNT_ID, DATE_BALANCE),
22    FOREIGN KEY (ACCOUNT_ID) REFERENCES R05.ACCOUNT );

23 CREATE TABLE R05.ACCOUNT_TRANSACTIONS (
24     ACCOUNT_ID            INTEGER NOT NULL,
25     DATE_BALANCE          DATE NOT NULL,
26     TRANSACTION_NUMBER     INTEGER NOT NULL,
27     CREDIT_DEBIT_FLAG     CHAR(1),
28    PRIMARY KEY (ACCOUNT_ID, DATE_BALANCE, TRANSACTION_NUMBER)
  
```

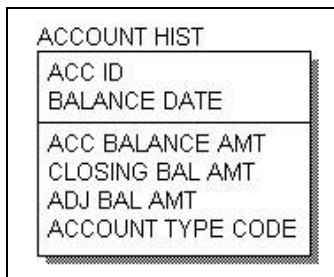
## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
22  TX_AMOUNT          DOUBLE PRECISION,  
    PRIMARY KEY (ACCOUNT_ID, DATE_BALANCE, TRANSACTION_NUMBER),  
    FOREIGN KEY (ACCOUNT_ID, DATE_BALANCE) REFERENCES  
        R05.ACCOUNT_BALANCE );
```

### Pair 3

#### Right Hand Schema Id: R05A

#### Model:



#### DDL:

```
a  CREATE TABLE R05A.ACCOUNT HIST (  
b    ACC_ID              INTEGER NOT NULL,  
c    BALANCE_DATE        DATE NOT NULL,  
d    ACC_BALANCE_AMT     DOUBLE PRECISION,  
e    CLOSING_BAL_AMT     DOUBLE PRECISION,  
f    ADJ_BAL_AMT         DOUBLE PRECISION,  
g    ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE   CHAR(4),  
    PRIMARY KEY (ACC_ID, BALANCE_DATE) );
```

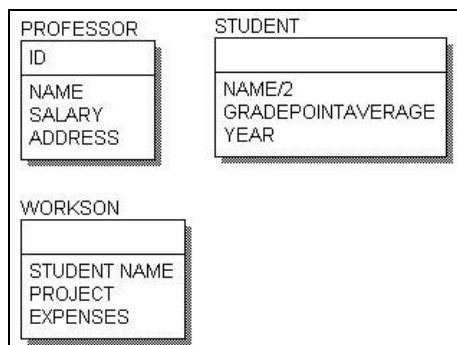
**Pair 4**

**Left Hand Schema Id: M8L**

As per left hand schema of pair 2.

**Right Hand Schema Id: M8R**

**Model:**



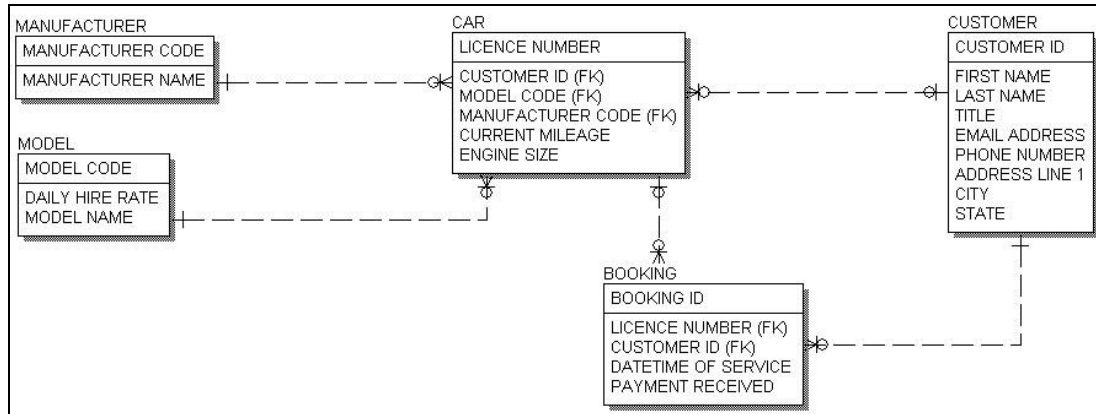
**DDL:**

```

a  CREATE TABLE M8R.PROFESSOR (
b      ID INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY,
c      NAME CHAR(40),
d      SALARY DOUBLE,
e      ADDRESS CHAR(40)
    );

f  CREATE TABLE M8R.STUDENT (
g      NAME CHAR(40),
h      GRADEPOINTAVERAGE DOUBLE,
i      YEAR INTEGER
    );

j  CREATE TABLE M8R.WORKSON (
k      STUDENTNAME CHAR(40),
l      PROJECT CHAR(40),
m      EXPENSES DOUBLE
    );
    
```

**Pair 5****Left Hand Schema Id: R01****Model:****DDL:**

```

1  CREATE TABLE R01.CUSTOMER (
2    CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
3    FIRST_NAME           VARCHAR(30),
4    LAST_NAME            VARCHAR(40),
5    TITLE                 CHAR(4),
6    EMAIL_ADDRESS        VARCHAR(40),
7    PHONE_NUMBER         VARCHAR(20),
8    ADDRESS_LINE_1       VARCHAR(60),
9    CITY                 VARCHAR(30),
10   STATE                VARCHAR(30),
11   PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) );

12 CREATE TABLE R01.MODEL (
13   MODEL_CODE           CHAR(5) NOT NULL,
14   DAILY_HIRE_RATE      DECIMAL(5,2),
15   MODEL_NAME          VARCHAR(40),
16   PRIMARY KEY (MODEL_CODE) );

17 CREATE TABLE R01.MANUFACTURER (
18   MANUFACTURER_CODE    CHAR(5) NOT NULL,
19   MANUFACTURER_NAME    VARCHAR(40),
20   PRIMARY KEY (MANUFACTURER_CODE) );

21 CREATE TABLE R01.CAR (
22   LICENCE_NUMBER       VARCHAR(15) NOT NULL,

```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```

21  CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER,
22  MODEL_CODE           CHAR(5),
23  CURRENT_MILEAGE      INTEGER,
24  ENGINE_SIZE          DECIMAL(3,2),
25  MANUFACTURER_CODE    CHAR(5),
    PRIMARY KEY (LICENCE_NUMBER),
    FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES R01.CUSTOMER,
    FOREIGN KEY (MODEL_CODE) REFERENCES R01.MODEL,
    FOREIGN KEY (MANUFACTURER_CODE) REFERENCES R01.MANUFACTURER );

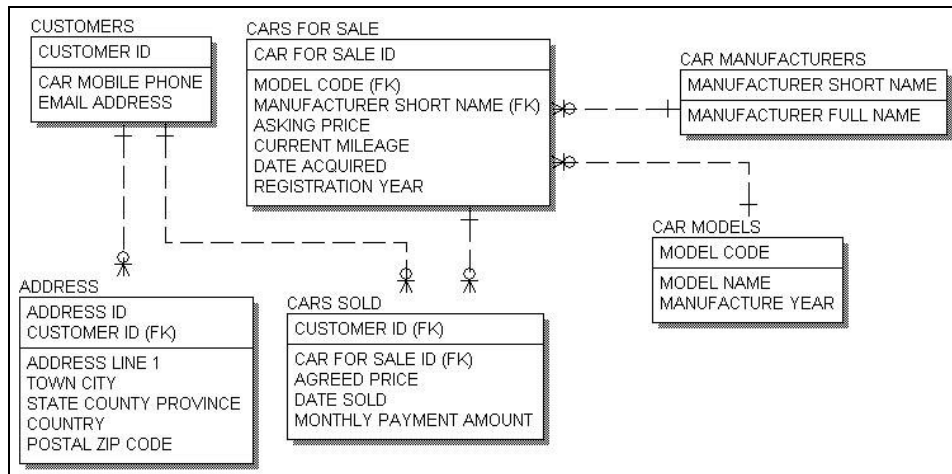
26  CREATE TABLE R01.BOOKING (
27  BOOKING_ID           INTEGER NOT NULL,
28  CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER,
29  LICENCE_NUMBER        VARCHAR(15),
30  DATE_OF_SERVICE      DATE,
31  PAYMENT_RECEIVED      DOUBLE,
    PRIMARY KEY (BOOKING_ID),
    FOREIGN KEY (LICENCE_NUMBER) REFERENCES R01.CAR,
    FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES R01.CUSTOMER );

```

### Pair 5

#### Right Hand Schema Id: R02

#### Model:



## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

### DDL:

```
a  CREATE TABLE R02.CAR_MODELS (
b      MODEL_CODE          CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
c      MODEL_NAME          VARCHAR(30),
d      MANUFACTURE_YEAR    SMALLINT,
      PRIMARY KEY (MODEL_CODE)    );

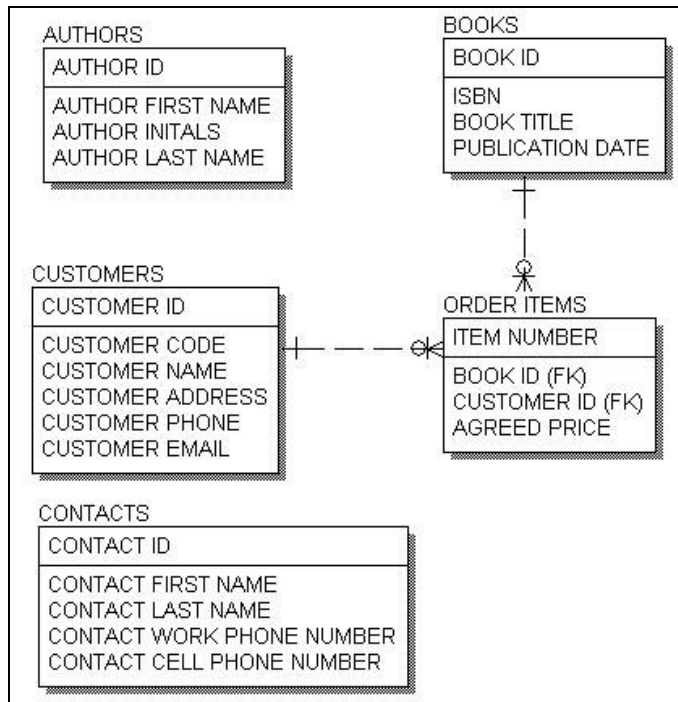
e  CREATE TABLE R02.CAR_MANUFACTURERS (
f      MANUFACTURER_SHORT_NAME VARCHAR(10) NOT NULL,
g      MANUFACTURER_FULL_NAME VARCHAR(40),
      PRIMARY KEY (MANUFACTURER_SHORT_NAME)    );

h  CREATE TABLE R02.CARS_FOR_SALE (
i      CAR_FOR_SALE_ID      INTEGER NOT NULL,
j      ASKING_PRICE         DOUBLE PRECISION,
k      MODEL_CODE          CHAR(4),
l      CURRENT_MILEAGE      INTEGER,
m      MANUFACTURER_SHORT_NAME VARCHAR(10),
n      DATE_ACQUIRED        DATE,
o      REGISTRATION_YEAR    SMALLINT,
      PRIMARY KEY (CAR_FOR_SALE_ID),
      FOREIGN KEY (MODEL_CODE) REFERENCES R02.CAR_MODELS,
      FOREIGN KEY (MANUFACTURER_SHORT_NAME) REFERENCES
          R02.CAR_MANUFACTURERS    );

p  CREATE TABLE R02.CUSTOMERS (
q      CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
r      CAR_MOBILE_PHONE     VARCHAR(20),
s      EMAIL_ADDRESS        VARCHAR(40),
      PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID)    );

t  CREATE TABLE R02.CARS_SOLD (
u      CAR_FOR_SALE_ID      INTEGER,
v      CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
w      AGREED_PRICE         DOUBLE PRECISION,
x      DATE_SOLD            DATE,
y      MONTHLY_PAYMENT_AMOUNT DOUBLE PRECISION,
      PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID),
      FOREIGN KEY (CAR_FOR_SALE_ID) REFERENCES R02.CARS_FOR_SALE,
      FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES R02.CUSTOMERS    );

z  CREATE TABLE R02.ADDRESS (
aa     ADDRESS_ID           INTEGER NOT NULL,
bb     CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
cc     ADDRESS_LINE_1       VARCHAR(60),
dd     TOWN_CITY            VARCHAR(30),
ee     STATE_COUNTY_PROVINCE VARCHAR(40),
ff     COUNTRY              VARCHAR(40),
gg     POSTAL_ZIP_CODE       VARCHAR(15),
      PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID, ADDRESS_ID),
      FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES R02.CUSTOMERS    );
```

**Pair 6****Left Hand Schema Id: R03****Physical Model:****DDL:**

```

1  CREATE TABLE R03.BOOKS (
2      BOOK_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
3      ISBN              VARCHAR(30),
4      TITLE             VARCHAR(40),
5      BOOK_PUBLICATION_DATE DATE,
6      PRIMARY KEY (BOOK_ID) );

7  CREATE TABLE R03.CUSTOMERS (
8      CUSTOMER_ID       INTEGER NOT NULL,
9      CUSTOMER_CODE     CHAR(3),
10     CUSTOMER_NAME      VARCHAR(30),
11     CUSTOMER_ADDRESS   VARCHAR(80),
12     CUSTOMER_PHONE     VARCHAR(20),
13     CUSTOMER_EMAIL     VARCHAR(20),
14     PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) );

15 CREATE TABLE R03.ORDER_ITEMS (
16     ITEM_NUMBER        SMALLINT NOT NULL,
17     BOOK_ID            INTEGER NOT NULL,
18     CUSTOMER_ID        INTEGER NOT NULL,
19     AGREED_PRICE       DOUBLE PRECISION,
20     PRIMARY KEY (ITEM_NUMBER, BOOK_ID, CUSTOMER_ID) );
  
```



## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```

PRIMARY KEY (ITEM_NUMBER),
FOREIGN KEY (BOOK_ID) REFERENCES
    R03.BOOKS,
FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES
    R03.CUSTOMERS );

18 CREATE TABLE R03.CONTACTS (
19     CONTACT_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
20     CONTACT_FIRST_NAME  VARCHAR(30),
21     CONTACT_LAST_NAME   VARCHAR(30),
22     CONTACT_WORK_PHONE_NUMBER VARCHAR(20),
23     CONTACT_CELL_PHONE_NUMBER VARCHAR(20),
    PRIMARY KEY (CONTACT_ID) );

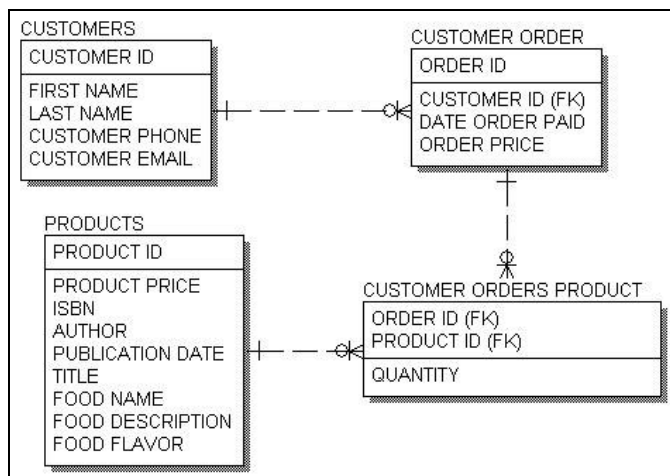
24 CREATE TABLE R03.AUTHORS (
25     AUTHOR_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
26     AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME  VARCHAR(40),
27     AUTHOR_INITIALS    CHAR(2),
28     AUTHOR_LAST_NAME   VARCHAR(40),
    PRIMARY KEY (AUTHOR_ID) );

```

### Pair 6

#### Right Hand Schema Id: R06

#### Physical Model:



#### DDL:

```

a CREATE TABLE R06.PRODUCTS (
b     PRODUCT_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
c     PRODUCT_PRICE       DOUBLE PRECISION,
d     BOOK_ISBN           VARCHAR(30),

```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
e      BOOK_AUTHOR          VARCHAR(40),
f      PUBLICATION_DATE     DATE,
g      BOOK_TITLE           VARCHAR(40),
h      FOOD_NAME            VARCHAR(30),
i      FOOD_DESCRIPTION      VARCHAR(60),
j      FOOD_FLAVOR          VARCHAR(20),
      PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_ID) );

k  CREATE TABLE R06.CUSTOMERS (
l      CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
m      FIRST_NAME           VARCHAR(30),
n      LAST_NAME            VARCHAR(30),
o      CUSTOMER_PHONE       VARCHAR(20),
p      CUSTOMER_EMAIL       VARCHAR(30),
      PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) );

q  CREATE TABLE R06.CUSTOMER_ORDER (
r      CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
s      ORDER_ID             CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
t      DATE_ORDER_PAID      DATE,
u      ORDER_PRICE          DOUBLE PRECISION,
      PRIMARY KEY (ORDER_ID),
      FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES
          R06.CUSTOMERS );

v  CREATE TABLE R06.CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT (
w      ORDER_ID             CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
x      PRODUCT_ID           INTEGER NOT NULL,
y      QUANTITY             SMALLINT,
      PRIMARY KEY (ORDER_ID, PRODUCT_ID),
      FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_ID) REFERENCES
          R06.PRODUCTS,
      FOREIGN KEY (ORDER_ID) REFERENCES
          R06.CUSTOMER_ORDER );
```

## Pair 7

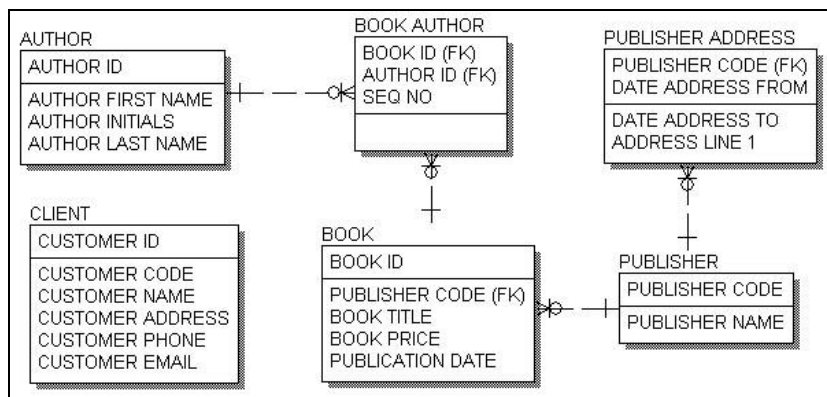
### Left Hand Schema Id: R06

As pair right hand schema of pair 6.

## Pair 7

### Right Hand Schema Id: R07

#### Physical Model:



#### DDL:

```

a  CREATE TABLE R07.CLIENT (
b      CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
c      CUSTOMER_CODE        CHAR(4),
d      CUSTOMER_NAME        CHARACTER(30),
e      CUSTOMER_ADDRESS     VARCHAR(120),
f      CUSTOMER_PHONE       CHAR(10),
g      CUSTOMER_EMAIL       VARCHAR(15),
      PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) );

h  CREATE TABLE R07.PUBLISHER (
i      PUBLISHER_CODE       CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
j      PUBLISHER_NAME       VARCHAR(40),
      PRIMARY KEY (PUBLISHER_CODE));

k  CREATE TABLE R07.PUBLISHER_ADDRESS (
l      PUBLISHER_CODE       CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
m      DATE_ADDRESS_FROM   DATE NOT NULL,
n      DATE_ADDRESS_TO     DATE,
o      ADDRESS_LINE_1      VARCHAR(80)
    
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
PRIMARY KEY (PUBLISHER_CODE, DATE_ADDRESS_FROM),
FOREIGN KEY (PUBLISHER_CODE) REFERENCES R07.PUBLISHER );

p CREATE TABLE R07.BOOK (
q   BOOK_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
r   PUBLISHER_CODE   CHAR(4),
s   BOOK_TITLE       VARCHAR(40),
t   BOOK_PRICE       DECIMAL(6,2),
u   PUBLICATION_DATE DATE,
    PRIMARY KEY (BOOK_ID),
    FOREIGN KEY (PUBLISHER_CODE) REFERENCES R07.PUBLISHER );

v CREATE TABLE R07.AUTHOR (
w   AUTHOR_ID        INTEGER NOT NULL,
x   AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME VARCHAR(30),
y   AUTHOR_INITIALS   CHAR(3),
z   AUTHOR_LAST_NAME  CHARACTER(30),
    PRIMARY KEY (AUTHOR_ID) );

aa CREATE TABLE R07.BOOK_AUTHOR (
bb  BOOK_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
cc  AUTHOR_ID        INTEGER NOT NULL,
dd  SEQ_NO           SMALLINT,
    PRIMARY KEY (BOOK_ID, AUTHOR_ID, SEQ_NO),
    FOREIGN KEY (BOOK_ID) REFERENCES R07.BOOK,
    FOREIGN KEY (AUTHOR_ID) REFERENCES R07.AUTHOR );
```

### Pair 8

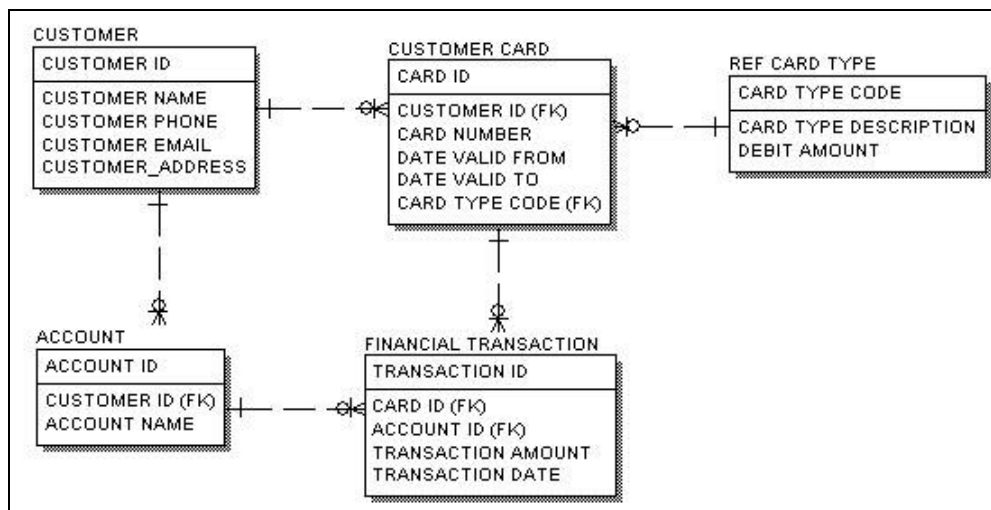
#### Left Hand Schema Id: R07

AS per right hand schema of pair 7.

### Pair 8

#### Right Hand Schema Id: R03

As per left hand schema of pair 6.

**Pair 9****Left Hand Schema Id: R08A****Physical Model:****DDL:**

```

1  CREATE TABLE R08A.REF_CARD_TYPE (
2      CARD_TYPE_CODE      CHAR(1) NOT NULL,
3      CARD_TYPE_DESCRIPTION VARCHAR(40),
4      DEBIT_AMOUNT        DOUBLE PRECISION,
5      PRIMARY KEY (CARD_TYPE_CODE) );

6  CREATE TABLE R08A.CUSTOMER (
7      CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
8      CUSTOMER_NAME        CHARACTER(40),
9      CUSTOMER_PHONE       CHAR(10),
10     CUSTOMER_EMAIL        VARCHAR(30),
11     CUSTOMER_ADDRESS      VARCHAR(80),
12     PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) );

13  CREATE TABLE R08A.CUSTOMER_CARD (
14     CARD_ID               INTEGER NOT NULL,
15     CUSTOMER_ID           INTEGER NOT NULL,
16     CARD_NUMBER           CHARACTER(28),
17     DATE_VALID_FROM       DATE,
18     DATE_VALID_TO        DATE,
19     CARD_TYPE_CODE        CHAR(1) NOT NULL,
20     PRIMARY KEY (CARD_ID),
21     FOREIGN KEY (CARD_TYPE_CODE) REFERENCES R08A.REF_CARD_TYPE,
22     FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES R08A.CUSTOMER );
  
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

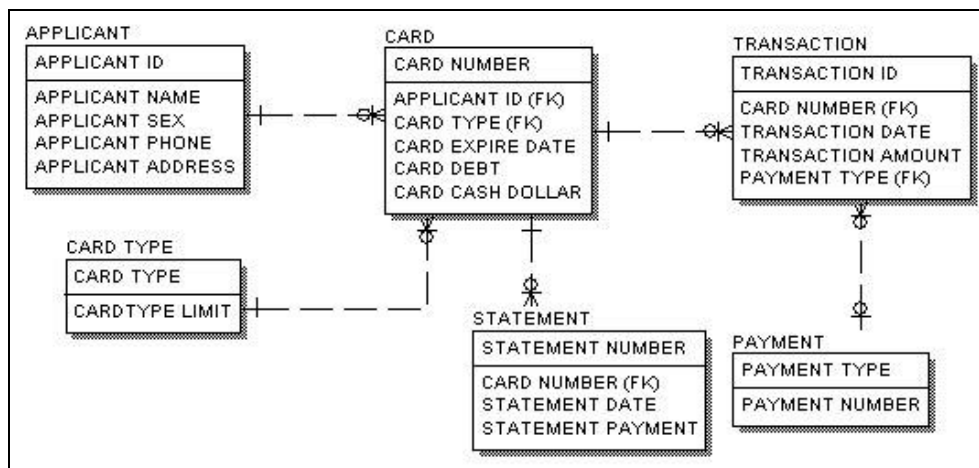
```
18 CREATE TABLE R08A.ACCOUNT (
19     ACCOUNT_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
20     ACCOUNT_NAME        VARCHAR(40),
21     CUSTOMER_ID         INTEGER NOT NULL,
22     PRIMARY KEY (ACCOUNT_ID),
23     FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES R08A.CUSTOMER );

22 CREATE TABLE R08A.FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION (
23     TRANSACTION_ID      VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
24     CARD_ID             INTEGER NOT NULL,
25     TRANSACTION_AMOUNT  DOUBLE PRECISION,
26     ACCOUNT_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
27     TRANSACTION_DATE    DATE,
28     PRIMARY KEY (TRANSACTION_ID),
29     FOREIGN KEY (CARD_ID) REFERENCES R08A.CUSTOMER_CARD,
30     FOREIGN KEY (ACCOUNT_ID) REFERENCES R08A.ACCOUNT );
```

### Pair 9

#### Right Hand Schema Id: R08B

#### Physical Model:



## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

### DDL:

```
a  CREATE TABLE R08B.APPLICANT (
b      APPLICANT_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
c      APPLICANT_NAME        VARCHAR(40),
d      APPLICANT_SEX         CHAR(1),
e      APPLICANT_PHONE       VARCHAR(15),
f      APPLICANT_ADDRESS     VARCHAR(80),
      PRIMARY KEY (APPLICANT_ID) );

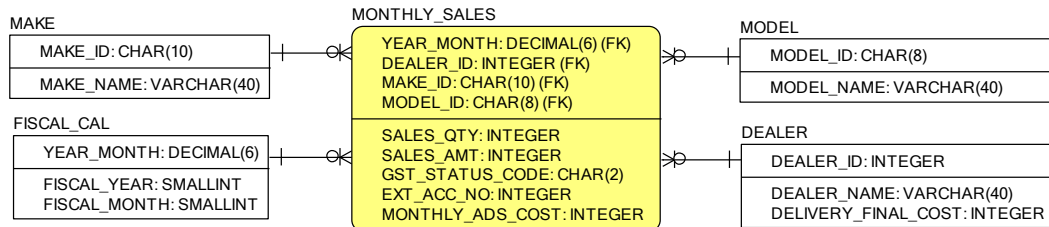
g  CREATE TABLE R08B.CARD_TYPE (
h      CARD_TYPE             CHAR(1) NOT NULL,
i      CARDTYPE_LIMIT        DOUBLE PRECISION,
      PRIMARY KEY (CARD_TYPE) );

j  CREATE TABLE R08B.CARD (
k      CARD_NUMBER           VARCHAR(28) NOT NULL,
l      CARD_EXPIRE_DATE      DATE,
m      APPLICANT_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
n      CARD_DEBT              DOUBLE PRECISION,
o      CARD_TYPE              CHAR(1) NOT NULL,
p      CARD_CASH_DOLLAR      DOUBLE PRECISION,
      PRIMARY KEY (CARD_NUMBER),
      FOREIGN KEY (APPLICANT_ID) REFERENCES R08B.APPLICANT,
      FOREIGN KEY (CARD_TYPE) REFERENCES R08B.CARD_TYPE );

q  CREATE TABLE R08B.PAYMENT (
r      PAYMENT_TYPE          CHAR(1) NOT NULL,
s      PAYMENT_DESCRIPTION    VARCHAR(40),
      PRIMARY KEY (PAYMENT_TYPE) );

t  CREATE TABLE R08B.TRANSACTION (
u      TRANSACTION_ID        VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
v      CARD_NUMBER           VARCHAR(28) NOT NULL,
w      TRANSACTION_DATE      DATE,
x      TRANSACTION_AMOUNT    DOUBLE PRECISION,
      PAYMENT_TYPE            CHAR(1) NOT NULL,
      PRIMARY KEY (TRANSACTION_ID),
      FOREIGN KEY (CARD_NUMBER) REFERENCES R08B.CARD,
      FOREIGN KEY (PAYMENT_TYPE) REFERENCES R08B.PAYMENT );

y  CREATE TABLE R08B.STATEMENT (
z      STATEMENT_NUMBER      INTEGER NOT NULL,
aa     CARD_NUMBER           VARCHAR(28) NOT NULL,
bb     STATEMENT_DATE        DATE,
cc     TRANSACTION_ID        VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
dd     STATEMENT_PAYMENT     DOUBLE PRECISION,
      PRIMARY KEY (STATEMENT_NUMBER),
      FOREIGN KEY (CARD_NUMBER) REFERENCES R08B.CARD );
```

**Pair 10****Left Hand Schema Id: PP1****DDL**

```

1 CREATE TABLE PP1.FISCAL_CAL (
2     YEAR_MONTH DECIMAL(6,0) NOT NULL ,
3     FISCAL_YEAR SMALLINT ,
4     FISCAL_MONTH SMALLINT ),
  PRIMARY KEY (YEAR_MONTH);

5 CREATE TABLE PP1.MAKE (
6     MAKE_ID CHAR(10) NOT NULL ,
7     MAKE_NAME VARCHAR(40),
  PRIMARY KEY (MAKE_ID) );

8 CREATE TABLE PP1.MODEL (
9     MODEL_ID CHAR(8) NOT NULL ,
10    MODEL_NAME VARCHAR(40),
  PRIMARY KEY (MODEL_ID) );

11 CREATE TABLE PP1.DEALER (
12    DEALER_ID SMALLINT NOT NULL ,
13    DEALER_NAME VARCHAR(40) ,
14    DELIVERY_FINAL_COST INTEGER,
  PRIMARY KEY (DEALER_ID) );

-- The key values for the DEALER_ID are generated by the Database Manager
-- sequentially starting from 1 and incremented by 1 for each row.
ALTER COLUMN DEALER_ID
  GENERATED ALWAYS AS IDENTITY START WITH 1, INCREMENT BY 1

15 CREATE TABLE PP1.MONTHLY_SALES (
16    YEAR_MONTH DECIMAL(6,0) NOT NULL ,
17    MAKE_ID CHAR(10) NOT NULL ,
18    MODEL_ID CHAR(8) NOT NULL ,
19    DEALER_ID SMALLINT NOT NULL ,
20    SALES_QTY SMALLINT ,
21    SALES_AMT INTEGER ,
22    MONTHLY_ADS_CST INTEGER ,
23    GST_STATUS_CODE CHAR(2) ,
24    EXT_ACC_NO INTEGER,

```



## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

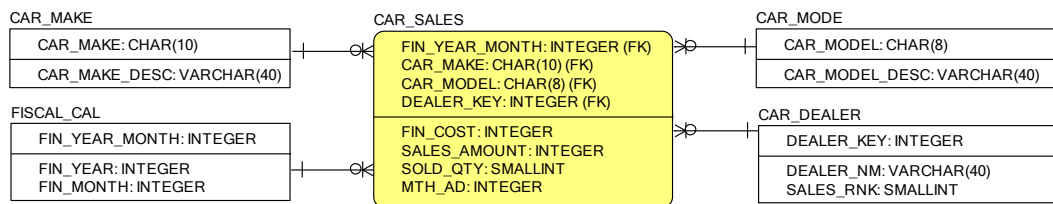
```

PRIMARY KEY (YEAR_MONTH, DEALER_ID, MODEL_ID, MAKE_ID),
FOREIGN KEY (YEAR_MONTH) REFERENCES PP1.FISCAL_CAL (YEAR_MONTH),
FOREIGN KEY (MAKE_ID) REFERENCES PP1.MAKE (MAKE_ID),
FOREIGN KEY (MODEL_ID) REFERENCES PP1.MODEL (MODEL_ID),
FOREIGN KEY (DEALER_ID) REFERENCES PP1.DEALER (DEALER_ID) );

```

### Pair 10

#### Right Hand Schema Id: PP2



### DDL

```

a CREATE TABLE PP2.FINANCIAL_CAL (
b   FIN_YEAR_MONTH INTEGER NOT NULL ,
c   FIN_YEAR INTEGER ,
d   FIN_MONTH SMALLINT,
   PRIMARY KEY (FIN_YEAR_MONTH)
) ;

e CREATE TABLE PP2.CAR_DEALER (
f   DEALER_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL ,
g   DEALER_NM VARCHAR(40) ,
h   SALES_RNK SMALLINT,
   PRIMARY KEY (DEALER_KEY)
) ;

-- The key values for the DEALER_KEY are generated by the Database
-- Manager and sequentially starting from 1 and incremented by 1 for
-- each row.
ALTER COLUMN DEALER_KEY
GENERATED ALWAYS AS IDENTITY START WITH 1, INCREMENT BY 1

i CREATE TABLE PP2.CAR_MAKE (
j   CAR_MAKE CHAR(10) NOT NULL ,
k   CAR_MAKE_DESC VARCHAR(40),
   PRIMARY KEY (CAR_MAKE)
) ;

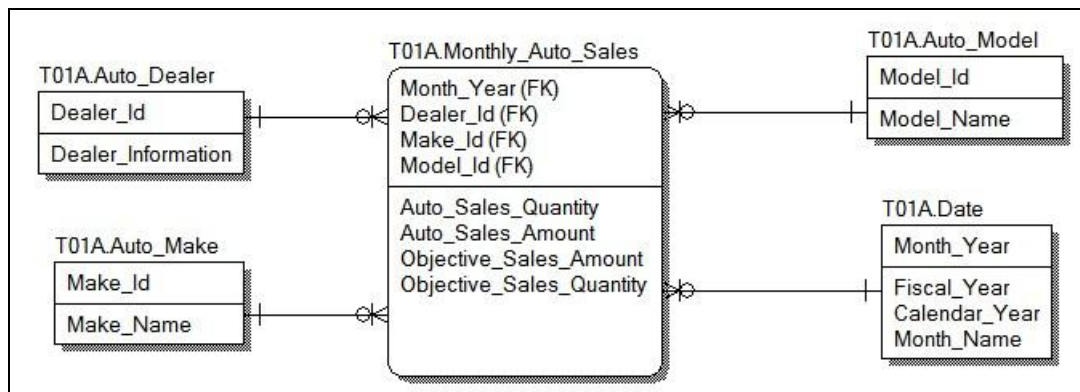
l CREATE TABLE PP2.CAR_MODEL (
m   CAR_MODEL CHAR(8) NOT NULL ,
n   CAR_MODEL_DESC VARCHAR(40),
   PRIMARY KEY (CAR_MODEL)
) ;

o CREATE TABLE PP2.CAR_SALES (

```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
p  FIN_YEAR_MONTH INTEGER NOT NULL,
q  DEALER_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
r  CAR_MODEL CHAR(8) NOT NULL,
s  CAR_MAKE CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
t  FIN_COST INTEGER NOT NULL,
u  SALES_AMOUNT INTEGER NOT NULL,
v  MONTH_AD INTEGER NOT NULL,
w  SOLD_QTY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
   FOREIGN KEY (DEALER_KEY) REFERENCES PP2.CAR_DEALER (DEALER_KEY),
   FOREIGN KEY (CAR_MODEL)  REFERENCES PP2.CAR_MODEL (CAR_MODEL),
   FOREIGN KEY (CAR_MAKE)   REFERENCES PP2.CAR_MAKE  (CAR_MAKE),
   FOREIGN KEY (FIN_YEAR_MONTH) REFERENCES
                               PP2.FINANCIAL_CAL (FIN_YEAR_MONTH)
);
```

**Pair 11****Left Hand Schema Id: T01A:****DDL**

```

1  CREATE TABLE T01A.AUTO_DEALER (
2      DEALER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
3      DEALER_INFORMATION VARCHAR(100) NOT NULL,
4      PRIMARY KEY (DEALER_ID) );

5  CREATE TABLE T01A.AUTO_MAKE (
6      MAKE_ID           CHAR(8) NOT NULL,
7      MAKE_NAME         VARCHAR(20),
8      PRIMARY KEY (MAKE_ID) );

9  CREATE TABLE T01A.AUTO_MODEL (
10     MODEL_ID          CHAR(8) NOT NULL,
11     MODEL_NAME        VARCHAR(30),
12     PRIMARY KEY (MODEL_ID) );

13 CREATE TABLE T01A.DATE (
14     MONTH_YEAR        DECIMAL(6) NOT NULL,
15     FISCAL_YEAR        SMALLINT NOT NULL,
16     CALENDAR_YEAR     SMALLINT NOT NULL,
17     MONTH_NAME        CHARACTER(10) NOT NULL,
18     PRIMARY KEY (MONTH_YEAR) );

19 CREATE TABLE T01A.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES (
20     MONTH_YEAR        DECIMAL(6) NOT NULL,
21     DEALER_ID         INTEGER NOT NULL,
22     MAKE_ID           CHAR(8) NOT NULL,
23     MODEL_ID          CHAR(8) NOT NULL,
24     AUTO_SALES_QUANTITY INTEGER NOT NULL,
25     AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT INTEGER NOT NULL,
26     OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT INTEGER,
27     OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY INTEGER,
28     PRIMARY KEY (MAKE_ID, MONTH_YEAR, DEALER_ID, MODEL_ID),
  
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

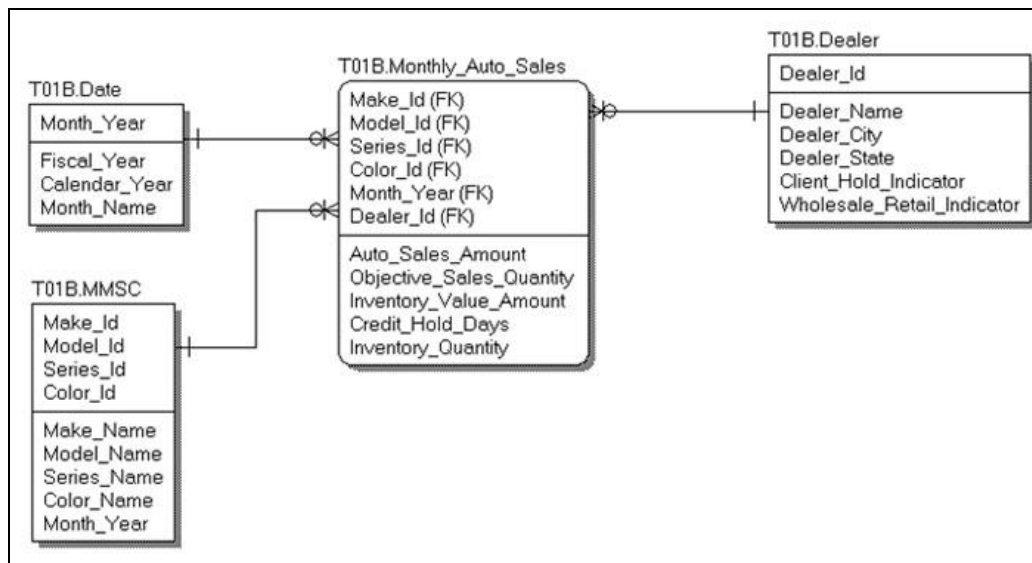
```

FOREIGN KEY (MODEL_ID) REFERENCES T01A.AUTO_MODEL,
FOREIGN KEY (DEALER_ID) REFERENCES T01A.AUTO_DEALER,
FOREIGN KEY (MONTH_YEAR) REFERENCES T01A.DATE,
FOREIGN KEY (MAKE_ID) REFERENCES T01A.AUTO_MAKE );

```

### Pair 11

#### Right Hand Schema Id: T01B:



### DDL

```

a CREATE TABLE T01B.DATE (
b     MONTH_YEAR          INTEGER NOT NULL,
c     FISCAL_YEAR          SMALLINT,
d     CALENDAR_YEAR        SMALLINT,
e     MONTH_NAME           CHAR(10),
      PRIMARY KEY (MONTH_YEAR) );

f CREATE TABLE T01B.DEALER (
g     DEALER_ID            SMALLINT NOT NULL,
h     DEALER_NAME          VARCHAR(40),
i     DEALER_CITY          VARCHAR(40),
j     DEALER_STATE         VARCHAR(40),
k     CLIENT_HOLD_INDICATOR CHAR(1),
l     WHOLESALE_RETAIL_INDICATOR CHAR(1),
      PRIMARY KEY (DEALER_ID) );

m CREATE TABLE T01B.MMSC (
n     MAKE_ID              CHAR(6) NOT NULL,
o     MODEL_ID             CHAR(6) NOT NULL,

```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```

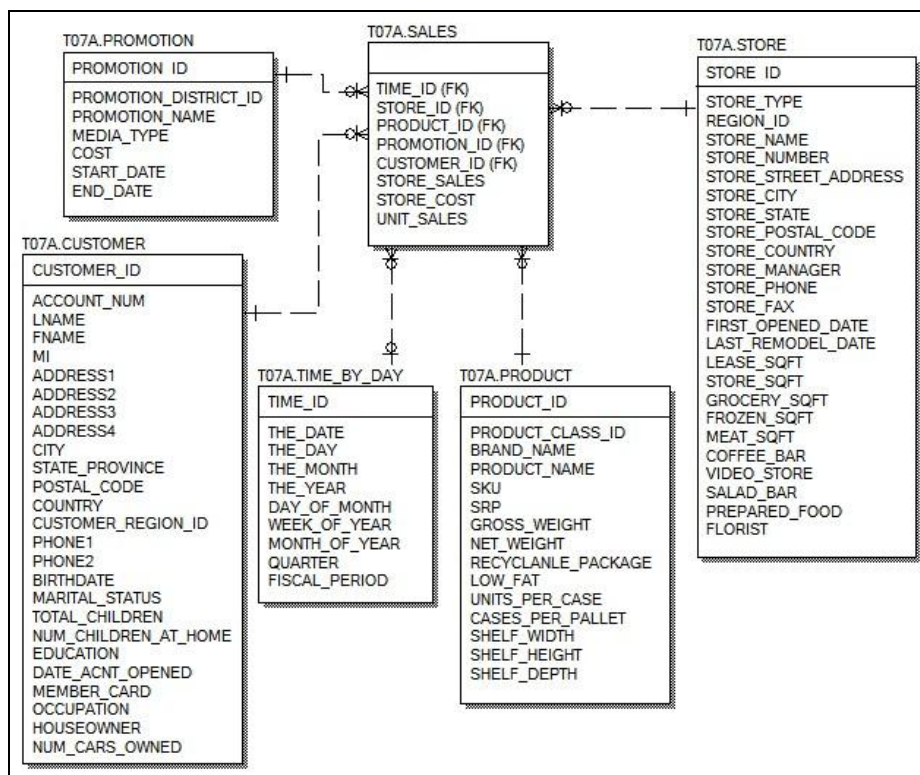
p      SERIES_ID          CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
q      COLOR_ID           CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
r      MAKE_NAME          VARCHAR(40),
s      MODEL_NAME         VARCHAR(40),
t      SERIES_NAME        VARCHAR(40),
u      COLOR_NAME         VARCHAR(40),
v      MONTH_YEAR         DECIMAL(6),
      PRIMARY KEY (MAKE_ID, MODEL_ID, SERIES_ID, COLOR_ID) );

w  CREATE TABLE T01B.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES (
x      MAKE_ID            CHAR(6) NOT NULL,
y      MODEL_ID           CHAR(6) NOT NULL,
z      SERIES_ID          CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
aa     COLOR_ID           CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
bb     MONTH_YEAR         INTEGER NOT NULL,
cc     DEALER_ID          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
dd     AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT  DECIMAL(11,2),
ee     OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY SMALLINT,
ff     INVENTORY_VALUE_AMOUNT DECIMAL(11,2),
gg     OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT DECIMAL(11,2),
hh     CREDIT_HOLD_DAYS   INTEGER,
ii     INVENTORY_QUANTITY SMALLINT,
      PRIMARY KEY (MONTH_YEAR, DEALER_ID, MAKE_ID, MODEL_ID,
                  SERIES_ID, COLOR_ID),
      FOREIGN KEY (MAKE_ID, MODEL_ID, SERIES_ID, COLOR_ID)
                  REFERENCES MMSC,
      FOREIGN KEY (DEALER_ID) REFERENCES T01B.DEALER,
      FOREIGN KEY (MONTH_YEAR) REFERENCES T01B.DATE );

```

## Pair 12

## Left Hand Schema Id: T07A



## DDL

```

1  CREATE TABLE  T07A.CUSTOMER      (
2    CUSTOMER_ID  INTEGER NOT NULL,
3    ACCOUNT_NUM  DOUBLE  NOT NULL,
4    LNAME        VARCHAR(100) ,
5    FNAME        VARCHAR(50)  ,
6    MI          VARCHAR(20)   ,
7    ADDRESS1     VARCHAR(100) NOT NULL,
8    ADDRESS2     VARCHAR(100) ,
9    ADDRESS3     VARCHAR(100) ,
10   ADDRESS4     VARCHAR(100) NOT NULL,
11   CITY         VARCHAR(50)  NOT NULL,
12   STATE_PROVINCE VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL,
13   POSTAL_CODE  CHAR(6)     NOT NULL,
14   COUNTRY      VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL,
15   CUSTOMER_REGION_ID INTEGER NOT NULL,
16   PHONE1       VARCHAR(16) NOT NULL,
17   PHONE2       VARCHAR(16) NOT NULL,
18   BIRTHDATE    DATE        NOT NULL,
19   MARITAL_STATUS CHAR(1)   NOT NULL,
20   TOTAL_CHILDREN SMALLINT  NOT NULL,
21   NUM_CHILDREN_AT_HOME SMALLINT NOT NULL,

```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
22  EDUCATION  VARCHAR(30)  NOT NULL,
23  DATE_ACNT_OPENED  DATE  NOT NULL,
24  MEMBER_CARD  VARCHAR(50)  NOT NULL,
25  OCCUPATION  VARCHAR(50)  NOT NULL,
26  HOUSEOWNER  CHAR(1)  NOT NULL,
27  NUM_CARS_OWNED  SMALLINT  NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID)    )  ;

28  CREATE TABLE  T07A.PRODUCT      (
29  PRODUCT_ID  INTEGER  NOT NULL,
30  PRODUCT_CLASS_ID  INTEGER  NOT NULL,
31  BRAND_NAME  VARCHAR(40)  NOT NULL,
32  PRODUCT_NAME  VARCHAR(40)  NOT NULL,
33  SKU  DOUBLE  NOT NULL,
34  SRP  DOUBLE  NOT NULL,
35  GROSS_WEIGHT  DOUBLE  NOT NULL,
36  NET_WEIGHT  DOUBLE  ,
37  RECYCLABLE_PACKAGE  CHAR(1)  ,
38  LOW_FAT  CHAR(1)  ,
39  UNITS_PER_CASE  SMALLINT  NOT NULL,
40  CASES_PER_PALLET  SMALLINT  NOT NULL,
41  SHELF_WIDTH  FLOAT  ,
42  SHELF_HEIGHT  SMALLINT  NOT NULL,
43  SHELF_DEPTH  SMALLINT  NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_ID)    )  ;

44  CREATE TABLE  T07A.PROMOTION    (
45  PROMOTION_ID  INTEGER  NOT NULL,
46  PROMOTION_DISTRICT_ID  INTEGER  NOT NULL,
47  PROMOTION_NAME  VARCHAR(40)  NOT NULL,
48  MEDIA_TYPE  VARCHAR(2)  NOT NULL,
49  COST  DOUBLE  NOT NULL,
50  START_DATE  DATE  NOT NULL,
51  END_DATE  DATE  NOT NULL ,
    PRIMARY KEY (PROMOTION_ID)    )  ;

52  CREATE TABLE  T07A.STORE        (
53  STORE_ID  INTEGER  NOT NULL,
54  STORE_TYPE  CHAR(4)  ,
55  REGION_ID  INTEGER  NOT NULL,
56  STORE_NAME  VARCHAR(40)  ,
57  STORE_NUMBER  NAME  VARCHAR(10)  NOT NULL,
58  STORE_STREET_ADDRESS  VARCHAR(120)  NOT NULL,
59  STORE_CITY  VARCHAR(50)  ,
60  STORE_STATE  VARCHAR(50)  ,
61  STORE_POSTAL_CODE  CHAR(6)  ,
62  STORE_COUNTRY  VARCHAR(50)  ,
63  STORE_MANAGER  VARCHAR(16)  ,
64  STORE_PHONE  VARCHAR(16)  ,
65  STORE_FAX  VARCHAR(16)  ,
66  FIRST_OPENED_DATE  DATE  ,
67  LAST_REMODEL_DATE  DATE  ,
68  LEASE_SQFT  DOUBLE  ,
69  STORE_SQFT  DOUBLE  NOT NULL,
70  GROCERY_SQFT  DOUBLE,
71  FROZEN_SQFT  DOUBLD  ,
```

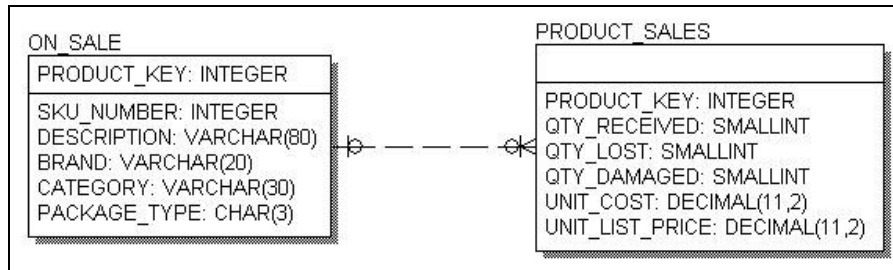
## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
72  MEAT_SQFT  DOUBLE ,
73  COFFEE_BAR CHAR(1) ,
74  VIDEO_STORE CHAR(1) ,
75  SALAD_BAR  CHAR(1) ,
76  PREPARED_FOOD CHAR(1) ,
77  FLORIST    CHAR(1) ,
    PRIMARY KEY (STORE_ID) ) ;

78  CREATE TABLE T07A.TIME_BY_DAY      (
79  TIME_ID  INTEGER NOT NULL,
80  THE_DATE DATE NOT NULL,
81  THE_DAY  VARCHAR(15) ,
82  THE_MONTH VARCHAR(15) ,
83  THE_YEAR SMALLINT NOT NULL,
84  DAY_OF_MONTH SMALLINT ,
85  WEEK_OF_YEAR SMALLINT NOT NULL,
86  MONTH_OF_YEAR SMALLINT NOT NULL,
87  QUARTER CHAR(2) NOT NULL,
88  FISCAL_PERIOD DATE NOT NULL ,
    PRIMARY KEY (TIME_ID) ) ;

89  CREATE TABLE T07A.SALES      (
90  STORE_SALES DOUBLE NOT NULL,
91  STORE_COST  DOUBLE NOT NULL,
92  UNIT_SALES  DOUBLE NOT NULL,
93  STORE_ID    INTEGER ,
94  PRODUCT_ID  INTEGER ,
95  PROMOTION_ID INTEGER ,
96  CUSTOMER_ID INTEGER ,
97  TIME_ID     INTEGER ,
    FOREIGN KEY (STORE_ID) REFERENCES T07A.STORE(STORE_ID) ,
    FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_ID) REFERENCES T07A.PRODUCT(PRODUCT_ID) ,
    FOREIGN KEY (PROMOTION_ID) REFERENCES T07A.PROMOTION(PROMOTION_ID) ,
    FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES T07A.CUSTOMER(CUSTOMER_ID) ,
    FOREIGN KEY (TIME_ID) REFERENCES T07A.TIME_BY_DAY(TIME_ID) ) ;
```



**Pair 12****Right Hand Schema Id: T09A****DDL**

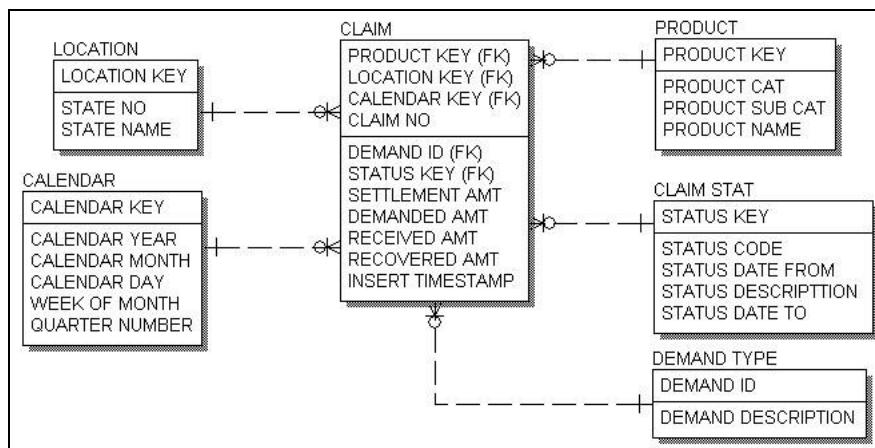
```

a  CREATE TABLE T09A.ON_SALE (
b      PRODUCT_KEY          INTEGER NOT NULL,
c      SKU_NUMBER           INTEGER,
d      DESCRIPTION          VARCHAR(80),
e      BRAND                VARCHAR(20),
f      CATEGORY             VARCHAR(30),
g      PACKAGE_TYPE         CHAR(3),
      PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_KEY) );

h  CREATE TABLE T09A.PRODUCT_SALES (
i      QTY_RECEIVED         SMALLINT,
j      PRODUCT_KEY          INTEGER,
k      QTY_LOST             SMALLINT,
l      QTY_DAMAGED          SMALLINT,
m      UNIT_COST            DECIMAL(11,2),
n      UNIT_LIST_PRICE       DECIMAL(11,2),
      FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_KEY) REFERENCES T09A.ON_SALE );
  
```

## Pair 13

## Left Hand Schema Id: A01

**DDL**

```

1  CREATE TABLE A01.DEMAND_TYPE (
2      DEMAND_ID          CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
3      DEMAND_DESCRIPTION  VARCHAR(40),
4      PRIMARY KEY (DEMAND_ID) );

5  CREATE TABLE A01.CLAIM_STAT (
6      STATUS_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
7      STATUS_CODE         CHAR(4),
8      STATUS_DESCRIPTION  VARCHAR(40),
9      STATUS_DATE_FROM    DATE,
10     STATUS_DATE_TO      DATE,
11     PRIMARY KEY (STATUS_KEY) );

12 CREATE TABLE A01.PRODUCT (
13     PRODUCT_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
14     PRODUCT_CAT          CHAR(5),
15     PRODUCT_SUB_CAT      CHAR(5),
16     PRODUCT_NAME         VARCHAR(40),
17     PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_KEY) );

18 CREATE TABLE A01.LOCATION (
19     LOCATION_KEY         SMALLINT NOT NULL,
20     STATE_NO             SMALLINT,
21     STATE_NAME           VARCHAR(20),
22     PRIMARY KEY (LOCATION_KEY) );

23 CREATE TABLE A01.CALENDAR (
24     CALENDAR_KEY         DATE NOT NULL,
25     CALENDAR_YEAR        SMALLINT,
26     CALENDAR_MONTH       SMALLINT,
27     CALENDAR_DAY         SMALLINT,
28     WEEK_OF_MONTH        SMALLINT,
29     QUARTER_NUMBER       SMALLINT,
30     PRIMARY KEY (CALENDAR_KEY) );
  
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```

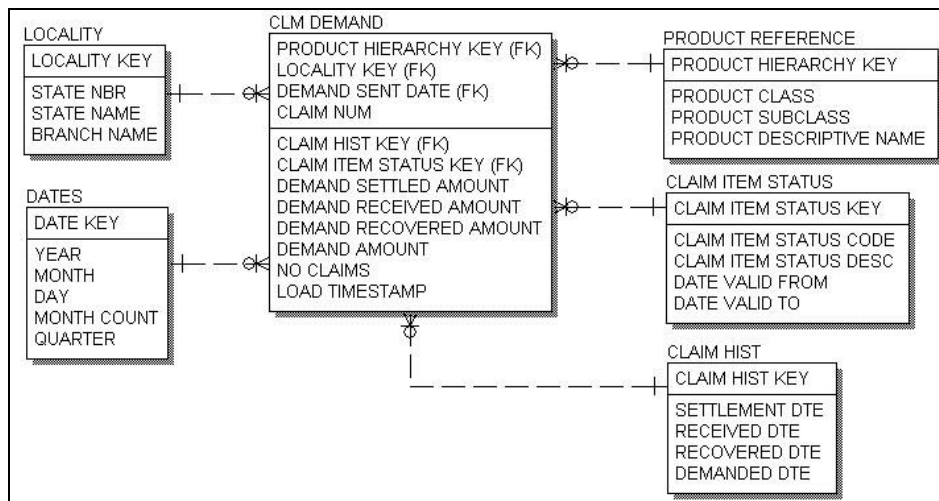
24 WEEK_OF_MONTH          SMALLINT,
25 QUARTER_NUMBER         SMALLINT,
   PRIMARY KEY (CALENDAR_KEY) );

26 CREATE TABLE A01.CLAIM (
27   PRODUCT_KEY           SMALLINT NOT NULL,
28   LOCATION_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
29   CALENDAR_KEY          DATE NOT NULL,
30   CLAIM_NO              integer NOT NULL,
31   DEMAND_ID             CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
32   STATUS_KEY            SMALLINT NOT NULL,
33   SETTLEMENT_AMT        DECIMAL(11,2),
34   DEMANDED_AMT          DECIMAL(11,2),
35   RECEIVED_AMT          DECIMAL(11,2),
36   RECOVERED_AMT         DECIMAL(11,2),
37   INSERT_TIMESTAMP      TIMESTAMP,
   PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_KEY, LOCATION_KEY, CALENDAR_KEY,
               CLAIM_NO),
   FOREIGN KEY (DEMAND_ID) REFERENCES A01.DEMAND_TYPE,
   FOREIGN KEY (STATUS_KEY) REFERENCES A01.CLAIM_STAT,
   FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_KEY) REFERENCES A01.PRODUCT,
   FOREIGN KEY (LOCATION_KEY) REFERENCES A01.LOCATION,
   FOREIGN KEY (CALENDAR_KEY) REFERENCES A01.CALENDAR );

```

### Pair 13

#### Right Hand Schema Id: A02



## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

### DDL

```
a  CREATE TABLE A02.CLAIM_HIST (
b    CLAIM_HIST_KEY      INTEGER NOT NULL,
c    SETTLEMENT_DTE      DATE,
d    RECEIVED_DTE        DATE,
e    RECOVERED_DTE       DATE,
f    DEMANDED_DTE        DATE,
    PRIMARY KEY (CLAIM_HIST_KEY)    );

g  CREATE TABLE A02.PRODUCT_REFERENCE (
h    PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
i    PRODUCT_CLASS        CHAR(4),
j    PRODUCT_SUBCLASS     CHAR(5),
k    PRODUCT_DESCRIPTIVE_NAME VARCHAR(40),
    PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY) );

l  CREATE TABLE A02.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS (
m    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
n    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_CODE CHAR(4),
o    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_DESC VARCHAR(40),
p    DATE_VALID_FROM      DATE,
q    DATE_VALID_TO        DATE,
    PRIMARY KEY (CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY) );

r  CREATE TABLE A02.LOCALITY (
s    LOCALITY_KEY         SMALLINT NOT NULL,
t    STATE_NBR            SMALLINT,
u    STATE_NAME           VARCHAR(20),
v    BRANCH_NAME          VARCHAR(30),
    PRIMARY KEY (LOCALITY_KEY)    );

w  CREATE TABLE A02.DATES (
x    DATE_KEY             DATE NOT NULL,
y    YEAR                 SMALLINT,
z    MONTH                 SMALLINT,
aa   DAY                   SMALLINT,
bb   MONTH_COUNT          SMALLINT,
cc   QUARTER              SMALLINT,
    PRIMARY KEY (DATE_KEY)      );

dd  CREATE TABLE A02.CLM_DEMAND (
ee    PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
ff    LOCALITY_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
gg    DEMAND_SENT_DATE      DATE NOT NULL,
hh    CLAIM_NUM             INTEGER NOT NULL,
ii    CLAIM_HIST_KEY        INTEGER,
jj    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
kk    DEMAND_SETTLED_AMOUNT  DECIMAL(11,2),
ll    DEMAND_RECEIVED_AMOUNT DECIMAL(11,2),
mm    DEMAND_RECOVERED_AMOUNT DECIMAL(11,2),
nn    NO_CLAIMS             SMALLINT,
oo    LOAD_TIMESTAMP        TIMESTAMP,
    PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY, LOCALITY_KEY,
        DEMAND_SENT_DATE, CLAIM_NUM),
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

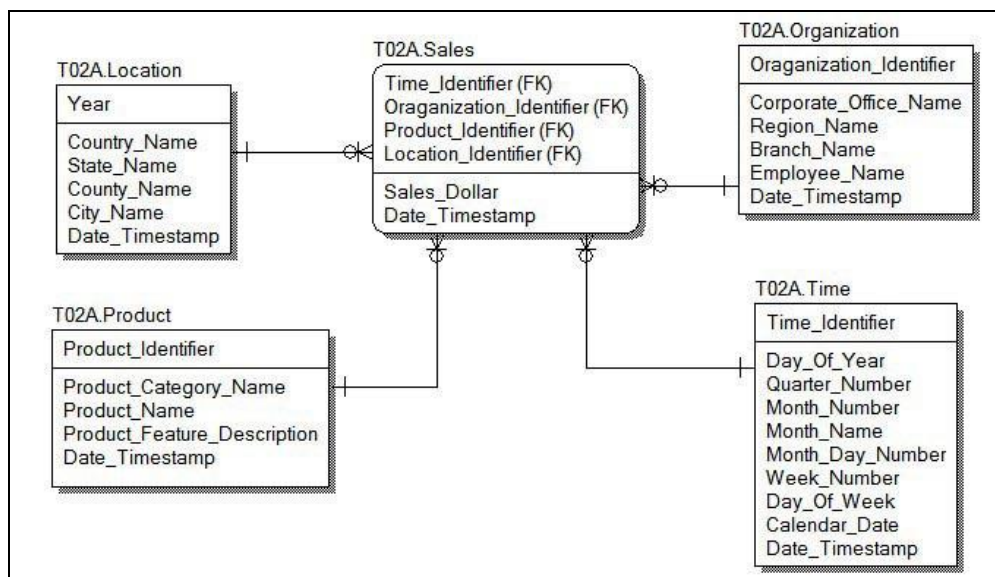
```

FOREIGN KEY (CLAIM_HIST_KEY) REFERENCES A02.LATEST_DEMAND,
FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY) REFERENCES A02.PRODUCT_REFERENCE,
FOREIGN KEY (CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY) REFERENCES A02.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS,
FOREIGN KEY (LOCALITY_KEY) REFERENCES A02.LOCALITY,
FOREIGN KEY (DEMAND_SENT_DATE) REFERENCES A02.DATES );

```

### Pair 14

#### Left Hand Schema Id: T02A



### DDL

```

1  CREATE TABLE A01.DEMAND_TYPE (
2      DEMAND_ID          CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
3      DEMAND_DESCRIPTION  VARCHAR(40),
4      PRIMARY KEY (DEMAND_ID) );

5  CREATE TABLE A01.CLAIM_STAT (
6      STATUS_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
7      STATUS_CODE         CHAR(4),
8      STATUS_DESCRIPTION   VARCHAR(40),
9      STATUS_DATE_FROM    DATE,
10     STATUS_DATE_TO       DATE,
11     PRIMARY KEY (STATUS_KEY) );

12 CREATE TABLE A01.PRODUCT (
13     PRODUCT_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
14     PRODUCT_CAT          CHAR(5),
15     PRODUCT_SUB_CAT      CHAR(5),

```

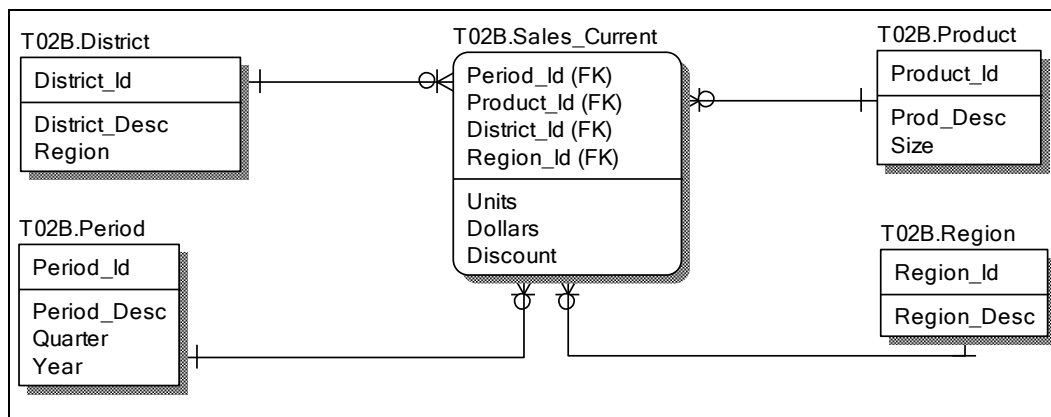
## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
14     PRODUCT_NAME          VARCHAR(40),
      PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_KEY)    );

15 CREATE TABLE A01.LOCATION (
16     LOCATION_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
17     STATE_NO              SMALLINT,
18     STATE_NAME            VARCHAR(20),
      PRIMARY KEY (LOCATION_KEY)    );

19 CREATE TABLE A01.CALENDAR (
20     CALENDAR_KEY          DATE NOT NULL,
21     CALENDAR_YEAR          SMALLINT,
22     CALENDAR_MONTH        SMALLINT,
23     CALENDAR_DAY          SMALLINT,
24     WEEK_OF_MONTH         SMALLINT,
25     QUARTER_NUMBER        SMALLINT,
      PRIMARY KEY (CALENDAR_KEY)   );

26 CREATE TABLE A01.CLAIM (
27     PRODUCT_KEY           SMALLINT NOT NULL,
28     LOCATION_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
29     CALENDAR_KEY          DATE NOT NULL,
30     CLAIM_NO              integer NOT NULL,
31     DEMAND_ID             CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
32     STATUS_KEY            SMALLINT NOT NULL,
33     SETTLEMENT_AMT        DECIMAL(11,2),
34     DEMANDED_AMT          DECIMAL(11,2),
35     RECEIVED_AMT          DECIMAL(11,2),
36     RECOVERED_AMT         DECIMAL(11,2),
37     INSERT_TIMESTAMP      TIMESTAMP,
      PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_KEY, LOCATION_KEY, CALENDAR_KEY,
                  CLAIM_NO),
      FOREIGN KEY (DEMAND_ID) REFERENCES A01.DEMAND_TYPE,
      FOREIGN KEY (STATUS_KEY) REFERENCES A01.CLAIM_STAT,
      FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_KEY) REFERENCES A01.PRODUCT,
      FOREIGN KEY (LOCATION_KEY) REFERENCES A01.LOCATION,
      FOREIGN KEY (CALENDAR_KEY) REFERENCES A01.CALENDAR    );
```

**Pair 14****Right Hand Schema Id: T02B****DDL**

```

a  CREATE TABLE A02.CLAIM_HIST (
b    CLAIM_HIST_KEY    INTEGER NOT NULL,
c    SETTLEMENT_DTE    DATE,
d    RECEIVED_DTE      DATE,
e    RECOVERED_DTE     DATE,
f    DEMANDED_DTE       DATE,
    PRIMARY KEY (CLAIM_HIST_KEY) );

g  CREATE TABLE A02.PRODUCT_REFERENCE (
h    PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
i    PRODUCT_CLASS       CHAR(4),
j    PRODUCT_SUBCLASS    CHAR(5),
k    PRODUCT_DESCRIPTIVE_NAME VARCHAR(40),
    PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY) );

l  CREATE TABLE A02.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS (
m    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
n    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_CODE CHAR(4),
o    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_DESC VARCHAR(40),
p    DATE_VALID_FROM     DATE,
q    DATE_VALID_TO       DATE,
    PRIMARY KEY (CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY) );

r  CREATE TABLE A02.LOCALITY (
s    LOCALITY_KEY        SMALLINT NOT NULL,
t    STATE_NBR           SMALLINT,
u    STATE_NAME          VARCHAR(20),
v    BRANCH_NAME         VARCHAR(30),
    PRIMARY KEY (LOCALITY_KEY) );
  
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```

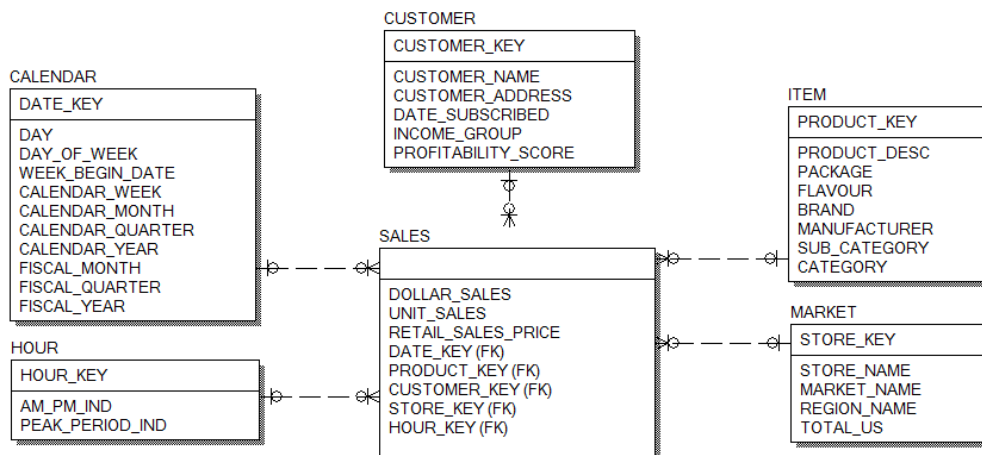
w  CREATE TABLE A02.DATES (
x    DATE_KEY          DATE NOT NULL,
y    YEAR              SMALLINT,
z    MONTH             SMALLINT,
aa   DAY               SMALLINT,
bb   MONTH_COUNT       SMALLINT,
cc   QUARTER           SMALLINT,
      PRIMARY KEY (DATE_KEY) );

dd  CREATE TABLE A02.CLM_DEMAND (
ee    PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
ff    LOCALITY_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
gg    DEMAND_SENT_DATE      DATE NOT NULL,
hh    CLAIM_NUM             INTEGER NOT NULL,
ii    CLAIM_HIST_KEY        INTEGER,
jj    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
kk    DEMAND_SETTLED_AMOUNT  DECIMAL(11,2),
ll    DEMAND_RECEIVED_AMOUNT DECIMAL(11,2),
mm    DEMAND_RECOVERED_AMOUNT DECIMAL(11,2),
nn    NO_CLAIMS              SMALLINT,
oo    LOAD_TIMESTAMP         TIMESTAMP,
      PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY, LOCALITY_KEY,
        DEMAND_SENT_DATE, CLAIM_NUM),
      FOREIGN KEY (CLAIM_HIST_KEY) REFERENCES A02.LATEST_DEMAND,
      FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY) REFERENCES A02.PRODUCT_REFERENCE,
      FOREIGN KEY (CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY) REFERENCES A02.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS,
      FOREIGN KEY (LOCALITY_KEY) REFERENCES A02.LOCALITY,
      FOREIGN KEY (DEMAND_SENT_DATE) REFERENCES A02.DATES );

```

### Pair 15

#### Left Hand Schema Id: T10





## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

### **DDL**

```
1  CREATE TABLE T10.CUSTOMER (  
2      CUSTOMER_KEY          INTEGER NOT NULL,  
3      CUSTOMER_NAME         VARCHAR(40),  
4      CUSTOMER_ADDRESS      VARCHAR(120),  
5      DATE_SUBSCRIBED       DATE,  
6      INCOME_GROUP          CHAR(1),  
7      PROFITABILITY_SCORE   SMALLINT,  
      PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_KEY) );  
  
8  CREATE TABLE T10.MARKET (  
9      STORE_KEY             INTEGER NOT NULL,  
10     STORE_NAME            VARCHAR(40),  
11     MARKET_NAME          VARCHAR(40),  
12     REGION_NAME          VARCHAR(40),  
13     TOTAL_US              DOUBLE PRECISION,  
      PRIMARY KEY (STORE_KEY) );  
  
14 CREATE TABLE T10.ITEM (  
15     PRODUCT_KEY           INTEGER NOT NULL,  
16     PRODUCT_DESC          VARCHAR(60),  
17     PACKAGE               VARCHAR(20),  
18     FLAVOUR               CHAR(3),  
19     BRAND                 VARCHAR(40),  
20     MANUFACTURER          VARCHAR(40),  
21     SUB_CATEGORY          VARCHAR(40),  
22     CATEGORY              CHARACTER(40),  
      PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_KEY) );  
  
23 CREATE TABLE T10.HOUR (  
24     HOUR_KEY              TIME NOT NULL,  
25     AM_PM_IND             CHAR(1),  
26     PEAK_PERIOD_IND       CHAR(1),  
      PRIMARY KEY (HOUR_KEY) );  
  
27 CREATE TABLE T10.CALENDAR (  
28     DATE_KEY              DATE NOT NULL,  
29     DAY                   SMALLINT,  
30     DAY_OF_WEEK           SMALLINT,  
31     WEEK_BEGIN_DATE      DATE,  
32     CALENDAR_WEEK         SMALLINT,  
33     CALENDAR_MONTH        SMALLINT,  
34     CALENDAR_QUARTER      SMALLINT,  
35     CALENDAR_YEAR         SMALLINT,  
37     FISCAL_MONTH          SMALLINT,  
38     FISCAL_QUARTER        SMALLINT,  
39     FISCAL_YEAR           SMALLINT,  
      PRIMARY KEY (DATE_KEY) );  
  
40 CREATE TABLE T10.SALES (  
41     CUSTOMER_KEY          INTEGER NOT NULL,  
42     STORE_KEY             INTEGER NOT NULL,  
43     PRODUCT_KEY           INTEGER NOT NULL,
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

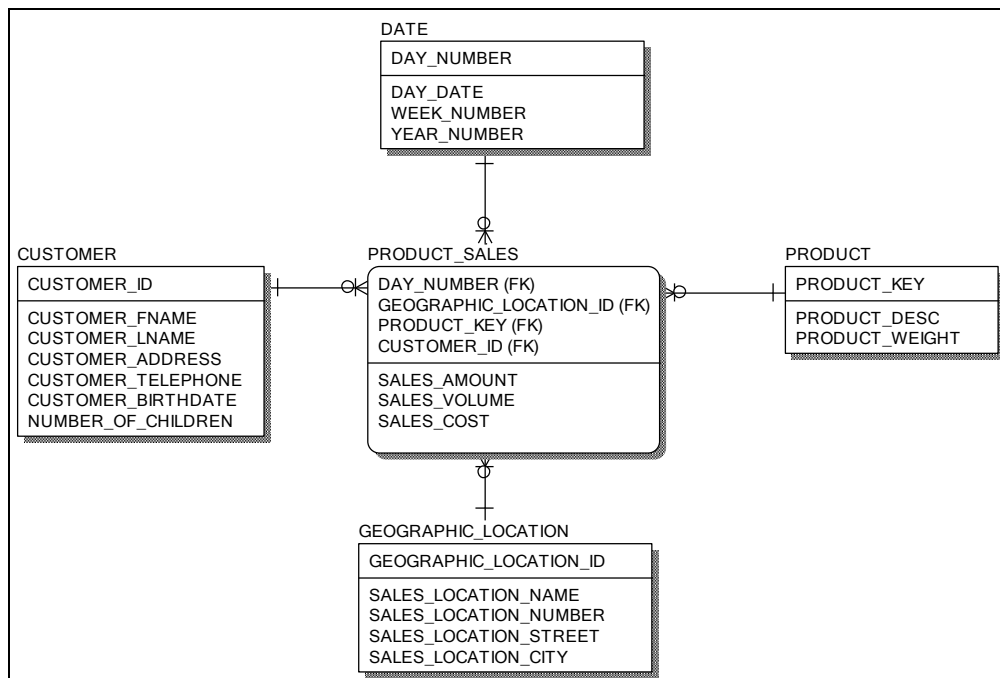
```

44  HOUR_KEY          TIME NOT NULL,
45  DATE_KEY          DATE NOT NULL,
46  DOLLAR_SALES      DECIMAL(11,2),
47  UNIT_SALES        DECIMAL(11,2),
48  RETAIL_SALES_PRICE DECIMAL(11,2),
  FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_KEY) REFERENCES T10.CUSTOMER,
  FOREIGN KEY (STORE_KEY) REFERENCES T10.MARKET,
  FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_KEY) REFERENCES T10.SALES_ITEM,
  FOREIGN KEY (HOUR_KEY) REFERENCES T10.HOUR,
  FOREIGN KEY (DATE_KEY) REFERENCES T10.CALENDAR );

```

### Pair 15

#### Right Hand Schema Id: T11



### DDL

```

a  CREATE TABLE T11.GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION (
b    SALES_LOCATION_ID    INTEGER NOT NULL,
c    SALES_LOCATION_NAME  VARCHAR(40),
d    SALES_LOCATION_NUMBER SMALLINT,
e    SALES_LOCATION_STREET VARCHAR(40),
f    SALES_LOCATION_CITY  VARCHAR(30),
   PRIMARY KEY (SALES_LOCATION_ID)
);

```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
g  CREATE TABLE T11.PRODUCT (
h    PRODUCT_KEY          INTEGER NOT NULL,
i    PRODUCT_DESC         VARCHAR(40),
j    PRODUCT_WEIGHT       DOUBLE,
    PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_KEY)
);

k  CREATE TABLE T11.CUSTOMER (
l    CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
m    CUSTOMER_FNAME       VARCHAR(40),
n    CUSTOMER_LNAME       VARCHAR(40),
o    CUSTOMER_ADDRESS     CHAR(120),
p    CUSTOMER_TELEPHONE   CHAR(10),
q    CUSTOMER_BIRTHDATE   DATE,
r    NUMBER_OF_CHILDREN   SMALLINT,
    PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID)
);

s  CREATE TABLE T11.DATE (
t    DAY_NUMBER           INTEGER NOT NULL,
u    DAY_DATE             DATE,
v    WEEK_NUMBER          SMALLINT,
w    MONTH_NUMBER         SMALLINT,
x    YEAR_NUMBER          SMALLINT,
    PRIMARY KEY (DAY_NUMBER)
);

y  CREATE TABLE T11.PRODUCT_SALES (
z    SALES_LOCATION_ID    INTEGER NOT NULL,
aa   PRODUCT_KEY          INTEGER NOT NULL,
bb   CUSTOMER_ID          INTEGER NOT NULL,
cc   DAY_NUMBER           INTEGER NOT NULL,
dd   SALES_AMOUNT         DOUBLE PRECISION,
ee   SALES_VOLUME         SMALLINT,
ff   SALES_COST           DOUBLE PRECISION,
    FOREIGN KEY (SALES_LOCATION_ID) REFERENCES T11.GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION,
    FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_CODE) REFERENCES T11.PRODUCT,
    FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES T11.CUSTOMER,
    FOREIGN KEY (DAY_NUMBER) REFERENCES T11.DATE
);
```



## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
19  CONDITIONS VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (POLICY_KEY) );

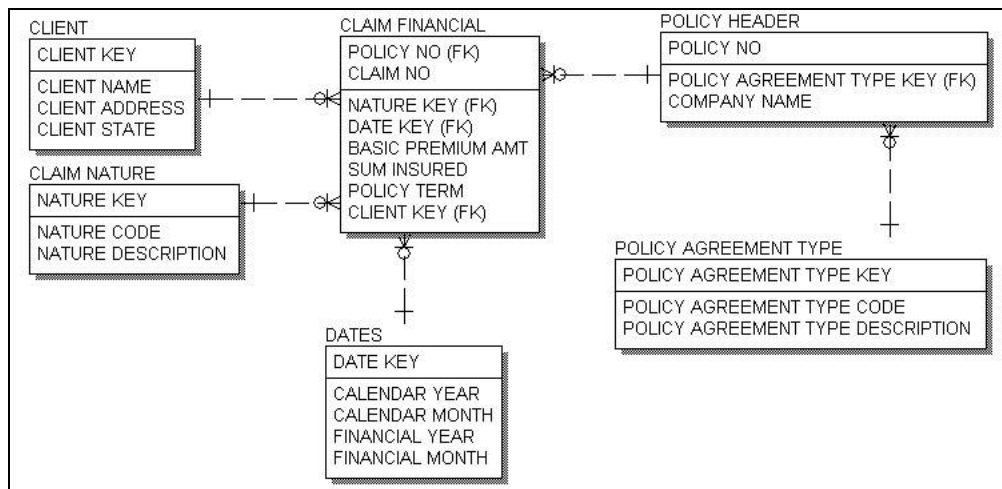
20  CREATE TABLE T05A.POLICY HOLDER (
21  POLICY HOLDER_KEY INTEGER NOT NULL,
22  NAME VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
23  ADDRESS VARCHAR(60) NOT NULL,
24  CITY VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
25  STATE CHAR(4) ,
    PRIMARY KEY (POLICY HOLDER_KEY) );

26  CREATE TABLE T05A.TRANSACTION (
27  TRANSACTION_KEY INTEGER NOT NULL,
28  TRANSACTION_DESC VARCHAR(80) NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (TRANSACTION_KEY) );

29  CREATE TABLE T05A.CLAIM_DESC (
30  TYPE_KEY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
31  CLAIMANT_KEY INTEGER NOT NULL,
32  PROV_ID SMALLINT NOT NULL,
33  PROC_CODE CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (TYPE_KEY, CLAIMANT_KEY, PROV_ID, PROC_CODE),
    FOREIGN KEY (TYPE_KEY) REFERENCES T05A.CLAIM_TYPE (TYPE_KEY),
    FOREIGN KEY (CLAIMANT_KEY) REFERENCES T05A.CLAIMANT (CLAIMANT_KEY) );

37  CREATE TABLE T05A.CLAIMS (
38  CLAIM_DOLLARS DECIMAL(11,2) NOT NULL,
39  PER_KEY SMALLINT ,
40  POLICY HOLDER_KEY INTEGER ,
41  TRANSACTION_KEY INTEGER ,
42  TYPE_KEY SMALLINT ,
43  CLAIMANT_KEY INTEGER ,
44  PROV_ID SMALLINT ,
45  PROC_CODE CHAR(4) ,
    FOREIGN KEY (PER_KEY) REFERENCES T05A.PERIOD (PER_KEY),
    FOREIGN KEY (POLICY HOLDER_KEY) REFERENCES
        T05A.POLICY HOLDER (POLICY HOLDER_KEY),
    FOREIGN KEY (TRANSACTION_KEY) REFERENCES
        T05A.TRANSACTION (TRANSACTION_KEY),
    FOREIGN KEY (TYPE_KEY, CLAIMANT_KEY, PROV_ID, PROC_CODE)
        REFERENCES
        T05A.CLAIM_DESC (TYPE_KEY, CLAIMANT_KEY, PROV_ID, PROC_CODE) );

46  CREATE TABLE T05A.POLICY_SALES (
47  PER_KEY CHAR(6) ,
48  POLICY_KEY INTEGER ,
49  POLICY HOLDER_KEY INTEGER ,
50  TRANSACTION_KEY INTEGER ,
51  COVERAGE_PERIOD SMALLINT NOT NULL,
52  COVERAGE_LIMIT INTEGER NOT NULL,
53  PREMIUM_DOLLARS DECIMAL(11),
    FOREIGN KEY (PER_KEY) REFERENCES T05A.PERIOD (PER_KEY),
    FOREIGN KEY (POLICY_KEY) REFERENCES T05A.POLICY (POLICY_KEY),
    FOREIGN KEY (POLICY HOLDER_KEY) REFERENCES
        T05A.POLICY HOLDER (POLICY HOLDER_KEY),
    FOREIGN KEY (TRANSACTION_KEY) REFERENCES
        T05A.TRANSACTION (TRANSACTION_KEY) );
```

**Pair 16****Right Hand Schema Id: T05B****DDL**

```

a  CREATE TABLE T05B.CLAIM_NATURE (
b    NATURE_KEY          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
c    NATURE_DESCRIPTION  CHARACTER(40),
d    NATURE_CODE         CHAR(4),
    PRIMARY KEY (NATURE_KEY) );

e  CREATE TABLE T05B.POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE (
f    POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_KEY INTEGER NOT NULL,
g    POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_CODE CHAR(4),
h    POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_DESC VARCHAR(40),
    PRIMARY KEY (POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_KEY) );

i  CREATE TABLE T05B.DATES (
j    DATE_KEY           DATE NOT NULL,
k    CALENDAR_YEAR      SMALLINT,
l    CALENDAR_MONTH     SMALLINT,
m    FINANCIAL_YEAR     SMALLINT,
n    FINANCIAL_MONTH    SMALLINT,
    PRIMARY KEY (DATE_KEY) );
  
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

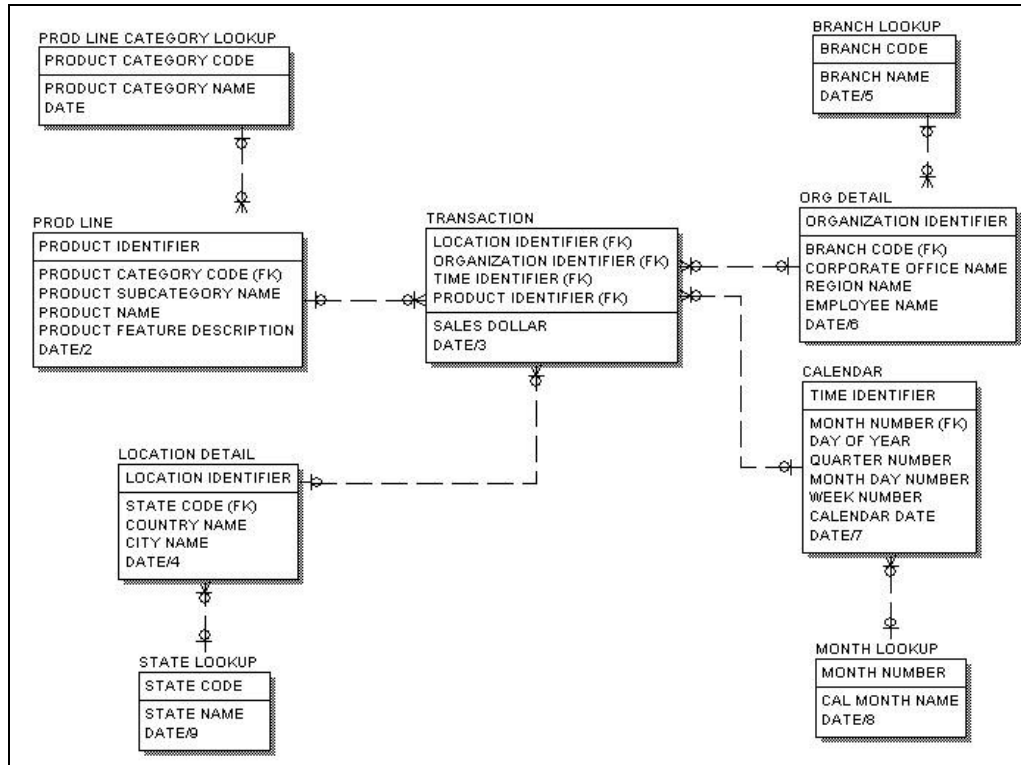
```
o  CREATE TABLE T05B.POLICY_HADER (
p    POLICY_NO          INTEGER NOT NULL,
q    COMPANY_NAME       VARCHAR(40),
r    POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_KEY INTEGER,
    PRIMARY KEY (POLICY_NO),
    FOREIGN KEY (POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_KEY)
        REFERENCES T05B.POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE );

s  CREATE TABLE T05B.CLIENT (
t    CLIENT_KEY         INTEGER NOT NULL,
u    CLIENT_NAME        CHAR(18),
v    CLIENT_ADDRESS     VARCHAR(120),
w    CLIENT_STATE       CHAR(3),
    PRIMARY KEY (CLIENT_KEY) );

x  CREATE TABLE T05B.CLAIM_FINANCIAL (
y    CLAIM_NO           INTEGER NOT NULL,
z    FINALISED_DATE    DATE NOT NULL,
aa   POLICY_NO          INTEGER NOT NULL,
bb   BASIC_PREMIUM_AMT  DECIMAL(11,2),
cc   NATURE_KEY         SMALLINT,
dd   SUM_INSURED        DECIMAL(11,2),
ee   POLICY_TERM        SMALLINT,
ff   CLIENT_KEY         INTEGER NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (POLICY_NO, CLAIM_NO),
    FOREIGN KEY (NATURE_KEY) REFERENCES T05B.CLAIM_NATURE,
    FOREIGN KEY (FINALISED_DATE) REFERENCES T05B.DATES,
    FOREIGN KEY (POLICY_NO) REFERENCES T05B.POLICY_HADER,
    FOREIGN KEY (CLIENT_KEY) REFERENCES T05B.CLIENT );
```

## Pair 17

## Left Hand Schema Id: T06B

**DDL**

```

1  CREATE TABLE T06B.STATE_LOOKUP (
2      STATE_CODE          CHAR(3) NOT NULL,
3      STATE_NAME          VARCHAR(30),
4      DATE                TIMESTAMP,
5      PRIMARY KEY (STATE_CODE) );

6  CREATE TABLE T06B.LOCATION_DETAIL (
7      LOCATION_IDENTIFIER  SMALLINT NOT NULL,
8      STATE_CODE          CHAR(3),
9      COUNTRY_NAME        VARCHAR(30),
10     CITY_NAME            VARCHAR(30) NOT NULL,
11     DATE                TIMESTAMP NOT NULL,
12     PRIMARY KEY (LOCATION_IDENTIFIER),
13     FOREIGN KEY (STATE_CODE) REFERENCES T06B.STATE_LOOKUP );

```



## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
11 CREATE TABLE T06B.BRANCH_LOOKUP (
12     BRANCH_CODE          CHAR(3) NOT NULL,
13     BRANCH_NAME          CHAR(40) NOT NULL,
14     DATE                  TIMESTAMP NOT NULL,
15     PRIMARY KEY (BRANCH_CODE) );

16 CREATE TABLE T06B.ORG_DETAIL (
17     ORGANIZATION_IDENTIFIER SMALLINT NOT NULL,
18     BRANCH_CODE            CHAR(3),
19     CORPORATE_OFFICE_NAME  VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
20     REGION_NAME            VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
21     EMPLOYEE_NAME          VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
22     DATE                   TIMESTAMP NOT NULL,
23     PRIMARY KEY (ORGANIZATION_IDENTIFIER),
24     FOREIGN KEY (BRANCH_CODE) REFERENCES T06B.BRANCH_LOOKUP );

25 CREATE TABLE T06B.MONTH_LOOKUP (
26     MONTH_NUMBER          SMALLINT NOT NULL,
27     CAL_MONTH_NAME        CHAR(9) NOT NULL,
28     DATE                  TIMESTAMP NOT NULL,
29     PRIMARY KEY (MONTH_NUMBER) );

30 CREATE TABLE T06B.CALENDAR (
31     TIME_IDENTIFIER        DATE NOT NULL,
32     MONTH_NUMBER           SMALLINT,
33     DAY_OF_YEAR            SMALLINT NOT NULL,
34     QUARTER_NUMBER         SMALLINT NOT NULL,
35     MONTH_DAY_NUMBER       SMALLINT NOT NULL,
36     WEEK_NUMBER            SMALLINT NOT NULL,
37     CALENDAR_DATE          DATE NOT NULL,
38     DATE                   TIMESTAMP NOT NULL,
39     PRIMARY KEY (TIME_IDENTIFIER),
40     FOREIGN KEY (MONTH_NUMBER) REFERENCES T06B.MONTH_LOOKUP );

41 CREATE TABLE T06B.PROD_LINE_CATEGORY_LOOKUP (
42     PRODUCT_CATEGORY_CODE  CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
43     PRODUCT_CATEGORY_NAME  VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
44     DATE                   TIMESTAMP NOT NULL,
45     PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_CATEGORY_CODE) );

46 CREATE TABLE T06B.PROD_LINE (
47     PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER     INTEGER NOT NULL,
48     PRODUCT_CATEGORY_CODE  CHAR(4),
49     PRODUCT_SUBCATEGORY_NAME VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
50     PRODUCT_NAME           VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
51     PRODUCT_FEATURE_DESCRIPTION VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
52     DATE                   TIMESTAMP NOT NULL,
53     PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER),
54     FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_CATEGORY_CODE) REFERENCES
55     T06B.PROD_LINE_CATEGORY_LOOKUP );

56 CREATE TABLE T06B.TRANSACTION (
57     LOCATION_IDENTIFIER    SMALLINT NOT NULL,
58     ORGANIZATION_IDENTIFIER SMALLINT NOT NULL,
59     TIME_IDENTIFIER        DATE NOT NULL,
60     PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER     INTEGER NOT NULL,
61     SALES_DOLLAR           DECIMAL(11,2),
62     DATE                   TIMESTAMP NOT NULL,
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

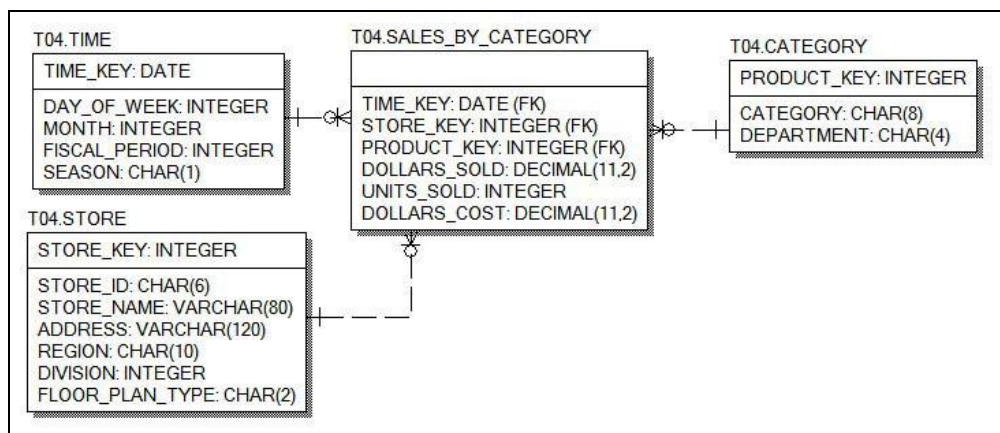
```

PRIMARY KEY (LOCATION_IDENTIFIER, ORGANIZATION_IDENTIFIER,
             TIME_IDENTIFIER, PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER),
FOREIGN KEY (LOCATION_IDENTIFIER) REFERENCES T06B.LOCATION_DETAIL,
FOREIGN KEY (ORGANIZATION_IDENTIFIER) REFERENCES T06B.ORG_DETAIL,
FOREIGN KEY (TIME_IDENTIFIER) REFERENCES T06B.CALENDAR,
FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER) REFERENCES T06B.PROD_LINE );

```

### Pair 17

#### Right Hand Schema Id: T04



### DDL

```

a  CREATE TABLE T04.CATEGORY      (
b      PRODUCT_KEY  INTEGER NOT NULL,
c      CATEGORY     CHAR(8) NOT NULL,
d      DEPARTMENT   CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
      PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_KEY) );
e  CREATE TABLE T04.SALES_BY_CATEGORY  (
f      TIME_KEY     DATE NOT NULL,
g      STORE_KEY    INTEGER NOT NULL,
h      PRODUCT_KEY  INTEGER NOT NULL,
i      DOLLARS_SOLD DECIMAL(11,2) NOT NULL,
j      UNITS_SOLD   INTEGER NOT NULL,
k      DOLLARS_COST DECIMAL(11,2) NOT NULL,
      FOREIGN KEY (TIME_KEY) REFERENCES T04.TIME(TIME_KEY),
      FOREIGN KEY (STORE_KEY) REFERENCES T04.STORE(STORE_KEY),
      FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_KEY) REFERENCES T04.CATEGORY(PRODUCT_KEY) );

l  CREATE TABLE T04.STORE      (
m      STORE_KEY    INTEGER NOT NULL,
n      STORE_ID     CHAR(6) NOT NULL,
o      STORE_NAME   VARCHAR(80) NOT NULL,

```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```

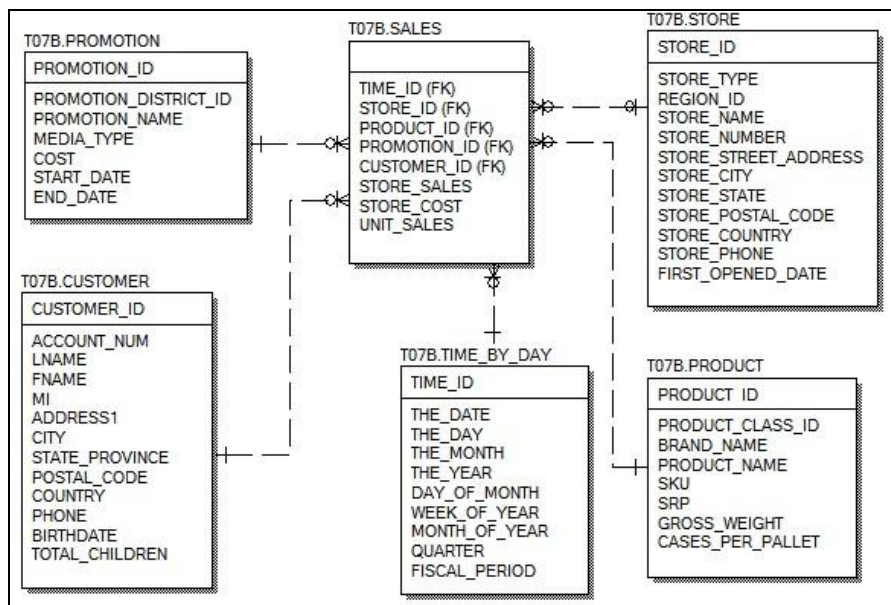
p    ADDRESS  VARCHAR(120) NOT NULL,
q    REGION   CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
r    DIVISION INTEGER NOT NULL,
s    FLOOR_PLAN_TYPE CHAR(2) NOT NULL,
      PRIMARY KEY (STORE_KEY) );

t    CREATE TABLE T04.TIME      (
u      TIME_KEY  DATE NOT NULL,
v      DAY_OF_WEEK INTEGER NOT NULL,
w      MONTH     INTEGER NOT NULL,
x      FISCAL_PERIOD INTEGER NOT NULL,
y      SEASON    CHAR(1) NOT NULL,
      PRIMARY KEY (TIME_KEY) );

```

### Pair 18

#### Left Hand Schema Id: T07B



### DDL

```

1  CREATE TABLE T07B.CUSTOMER      (
2    CUSTOMER_ID  INTEGER NOT NULL,
3    ACCOUNT_NUM  DOUBLE  NOT NULL,
4    LNAME        VARCHAR(100) ,

```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
5  FNAME  VARCHAR(50) ,
6  MI     VARCHAR(20) ,
7  ADDRESS1 VARCHAR(100) NOT NULL,
8  CITY   VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL,
9  STATE_PROVINCE VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL,
10 POSTAL_CODE CHAR(6) NOT NULL,
11 COUNTRY VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL,
12 PHONE   VARCHAR(16) NOT NULL,
13 BIRTHDATE DATE NOT NULL,
14 TOTAL_CHILDREN SMALLINT NOT NULL,
   PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) ) ;

15 CREATE TABLE T07B.PRODUCT      (
16   PRODUCT_ID INTEGER NOT NULL,
17   PRODUCT_CLASS_ID INTEGER NOT NULL,
18   BRAND_NAME  VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
19   PRODUCT_NAME VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
20   SKU         DOUBLE NOT NULL,
21   SRP         DOUBLE NOT NULL,
22   GROSS_WEIGHT DOUBLE NOT NULL,
23   CASES_PER_PALLET SMALLINT NOT NULL,
   PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_ID) ) ;

24 CREATE TABLE T07B.STORE        (
25   STORE_ID INTEGER NOT NULL,
26   STORE_TYPE CHAR(4) ,
27   REGION_ID INTEGER NOT NULL,
28   STORE_NAME VARCHAR(40) ,
29   STORE_NUMBER DOUBLE NOT NULL,
30   STORE_STREET_ADDRESS VARCHAR(120) NOT NULL,
31   STORE_CITY VARCHAR(50) ,
32   STORE_STATE VARCHAR(50) ,
33   STORE_POSTAL_CODE CHAR(6) ,
34   STORE_COUNTRY VARCHAR(50) ,
35   STORE_PHONE VARCHAR(16) ,
36   FIRST_OPENED_DATE DATE ,
   PRIMARY KEY (STORE_ID) ) ;

37 CREATE TABLE T07B.TIME_BY_DAY  (
38   TIME_ID INTEGER NOT NULL,
39   THE_DATE DATE NOT NULL,
40   THE_DAY SMALLINT NOT NULL,
41   THE_MONTH SMALLINT NOT NULL,
42   THE_YEAR SMALLINT NOT NULL,
43   DAY_OF_MONTH SMALLINT NOT NULL,
44   WEEK_OF_YEAR SMALLINT NOT NULL,
45   MONTH_OF_YEAR SMALLINT NOT NULL,
46   QUARTER CHAR(2) NOT NULL,
47   FISCAL_PERIOD DATE NOT NULL ,
   PRIMARY KEY (TIME_ID)
   ) ;

48 CREATE TABLE T07B.SALES        (
49   STORE_SALES DOUBLE NOT NULL,
50   STORE_COST DOUBLE NOT NULL,
51   UNIT_SALES DOUBLE NOT NULL,
52   STORE_ID INTEGER ,
```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

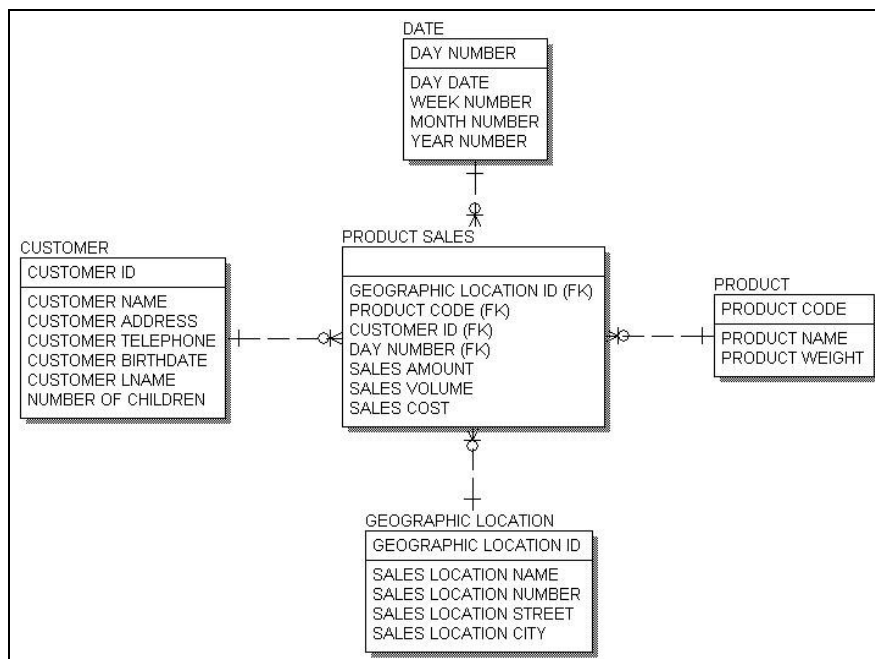
```

53  PRODUCT_ID  INTEGER ,
54  PROMOTION_ID  INTEGER ,
55  CUSTOMER_ID  INTEGER ,
56  TIME_ID  INTEGER ,
    FOREIGN KEY (STORE_ID) REFERENCES T07B.STORE (STORE_ID) ,
    FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_ID) REFERENCES T07B.PRODUCT (PRODUCT_ID) ,
    FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES T07B.CUSTOMER (CUSTOMER_ID) ,
    FOREIGN KEY (TIME_ID) REFERENCES T07B.TIME_BY_DAY (TIME_ID) ) ;

```

### Pair 18

#### Right Hand Schema Id: T11B



### DDL

```

a  CREATE TABLE T11.GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION (
b    SALES_LOCATION_ID      INTEGER NOT NULL,
c    SALES_LOCATION_NAME    VARCHAR(40),
d    SALES_LOCATION_NUMBER  SMALLINT,
e    SALES_LOCATION_STREET  VARCHAR(40),
f    SALES_LOCATION_CITY    VARCHAR(30),
    PRIMARY KEY (SALES_LOCATION_ID)
);

```

## APPENDIX B. SCHEMAS FOR EVALUATION OF STARMOD

```
g  CREATE TABLE T11.PRODUCT (
h      PRODUCT_CODE          INTEGER NOT NULL,
i      PRODUCT_NAME          VARCHAR(40),
j      PRODUCT_WEIGHT        DOUBLE,
      PRIMARY KEY (PRODUCT_CODE)
    );

k  CREATE TABLE T11.CUSTOMER (
l      CUSTOMER_ID           INTEGER NOT NULL,
m      CUSTOMER_FNAME        VARCHAR(40),
n      CUSTOMER_ADDRESS      CHAR(120),
o      CUSTOMER_TELEPHONE    CHAR(10),
p      CUSTOMER_BIRTHDATE    DATE,
q      CUSTOMER_LNAME        VARCHAR(40),
r      NUMBER_OF_CHILDREN    SMALLINT,
      PRIMARY KEY (CUSTOMER_ID)
    );

s  CREATE TABLE T11.DATE (
t      DAY_NUMBER            INTEGER NOT NULL,
u      DAY_DATE              DATE,
v      WEEK_NUMBER           SMALLINT,
w      MONTH_NUMBER          SMALLINT,
x      YEAR_NUMBER           SMALLINT,
      PRIMARY KEY (DAY_NUMBER)
    );

y  CREATE TABLE T11.PRODUCT_SALES (
z      SALES_LOCATION_ID     INTEGER NOT NULL,
aa     PRODUCT_CODE          INTEGER NOT NULL,
bb     CUSTOMER_ID           INTEGER NOT NULL,
cc     DAY_NUMBER            INTEGER NOT NULL,
dd     SALES_AMOUNT          DOUBLE PRECISION,
ee     SALES_VOLUME           SMALLINT,
ff     SALES_COST            DOUBLE PRECISION,
      FOREIGN KEY (SALES_LOCATION_ID) REFERENCES T11.GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION,
      FOREIGN KEY (PRODUCT_CODE) REFERENCES T11.PRODUCT,
      FOREIGN KEY (CUSTOMER_ID) REFERENCES T11.CUSTOMER,
      FOREIGN KEY (DAY_NUMBER) REFERENCES T11.DATE
    );
```

## Appendix C

# Schema Match Results

This appendix contains match results for each pair of schemas described in appendix B. The results are in three parts:

- i Match results returned from the Similarity Flooding algorithm when schemas were described using the relational model.
- ii Match results returned from the Similarity Flooding algorithm when the same schemas were described using StarMod.
- iii Match results returned from COMA algorithm when schemas were described using the relational model.
- iv Match results returned from our participants in the evaluation. Only matches agree by at least two of the participants are included.

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Matching Results between M7L and M7R using the Relational model:  
Columns:

PERSONNEL.BORN	EMPLOYEE.BIRTHDATE	0.1300
PERSONNEL.DEPT	DEPARTMENT.DEPTNAME	0.1274
PERSONNEL.PNAME	EMPLOYEE.EMPNAME	0.1356
PERSONNEL.PNO	EMPLOYEE.EMPNO	0.1648

Tables:

PERSONNEL	EMPLOYEE	0.6174
-----------	----------	--------

Matching Results between M7L and M7R using the Star model:  
Columns:

PERSONNEL.BORN	EMPLOYEE.BIRTHDATE	0.0509
PERSONNEL.DEPT	DEPARTMENT.DEPTNAME	0.0550
PERSONNEL.PNAME	EMPLOYEE.EMPNAME	0.0567
PERSONNEL.PNO	EMPLOYEE.EMPNO	0.0531

Tables:

PERSONNEL	EMPLOYEE	1
-----------	----------	---

COMA Results between schemas M7L and M8R

```

PERSONNEL_TABLE.PERSONNEL.PNO <-> EMPLOYEE_TABLE.EMPLOYEE.EMPNO: 0.5140774
PERSONNEL_TABLE.PERSONNEL.PNAME <-> EMPLOYEE_TABLE.EMPLOYEE.EMPNAME: 0.6005358
PERSONNEL_TABLE.PERSONNEL.DEPT <-> DEPARTMENT_TABLE.DEPARTMENT.DEPTNO:0.5329773
PERSONNEL_TABLE <-> EMPLOYEE_TABLE: 0.5399605

```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

1,e	M07L.PERSONNEL	M7R.EMPLOYEE
2,f	PERSONNEL.PNO	EMPLOYEE.EMPNO
3,g	PERSONNEL.PNAME	EMPLOYEE.EMPNAME
5,j	PERSONNEL.BORN	EMPLOYEE.BIRTHDATE
4,c	PERSONNEL.DEPT	DEPT.DEPTNAME

Matching Results between M8L and M9R using the Relational model:  
Columns:

PROFESSOR.ADDR	PERSONNEL.ADDR	0.1479
PROFESSOR.ID	PERSONNEL.ID	0.1270
PROFESSOR.NAME	PERSONNEL.NAME	0.0725
PROFESSOR.SAL	PERSONNEL.SAL	0.1806

Tables:

PROFESSOR	PERSONNEL	0.3672
-----------	-----------	--------

Matching Results between M8L and M9R using the Star model:  
Columns:

PROFESSOR.ADDR	PERSONNEL.ADDR	0.0683
PROFESSOR.ID	PERSONNEL.ID	0.0429
PROFESSOR.NAME	PERSONNEL.NAME	0.0363
PROFESSOR.SAL	PERSONNEL.SAL	0.1498



## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Tables:

PROFESSOR	PERSONNEL	0.5272
-----------	-----------	--------

COMA Results

WORKSON\_TABLE.WORKSON.NAME <-> PERSONNEL\_TABLE.PERSONNEL.NAME: 0.8220887  
STUDENT\_TABLE.STUDENT.NAME <-> PERSONNEL\_TABLE.PERSONNEL.NAME: 0.8142762  
PROFESSOR\_TABLE.PROFESSOR.ID <-> PERSONNEL\_TABLE.PERSONNEL.ID: 0.83748543  
PROFESSOR\_TABLE.PROFESSOR.NAME <-> PERSONNEL\_TABLE.PERSONNEL.NAME: 0.8195635  
PROFESSOR\_TABLE.PROFESSOR.SAL <-> PERSONNEL\_TABLE.PERSONNEL.SAL: 0.8802841  
PROFESSOR\_TABLE.PROFESSOR.ADDR <-> PERSONNEL\_TABLE.PERSONNEL.ADDR: 0.8499777  
PROFESSOR\_TABLE <-> PERSONNEL\_TABLE: 0.7577273

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

1,a	M8L.ADDRESS	M9R.PERSONNEL
3,e	ADDRESS.STREET	PERSONNEL.ADDR
4,e	ADDRESS.CITY	PERSONNEL.ADDR
5,e	ADDRESS.POSTALCODE	PERSONNEL.ADDR
6,a	M8L.PROFESSOR	M9R.PERSONNEL
7,b	PROFESSOR.ID	PERSONNEL.ID
8,c	PROFESSOR.NAME	PERSONNEL.NAME
9,d	PROFESSOR.SAL	PERSONNEL.SAL
12,c	STUDENT.NAME	PERSONNEL.NAME
19,c	WORKSON.NAME	PERSONNEL.NAME

Matching Results between R05 and R05A using the Relational model:

Columns:

ACCOUNT.ACCOUNT\_ID ACCOUNT\_HIST.ACC\_ID 0.0463  
ACCOUNT\_BALANCE.AMT\_BALANCE\_HOLDS ACCOUNT\_HIST.ACC\_BALANCE\_AMT 0.0771  
ACCOUNT\_BALANCE.DATE\_BALANCE ACCOUNT\_HIST.BALANCE\_DATE 0.0808  
REF\_ACCOUNT\_TYPES.ACCOUNT\_TYPE\_CODE ACCOUNT\_HIST.ACCOUNT\_TYPE\_CODE 0.0776

Tables:

ACCOUNT_BALANCE	ACCOUNT_HIST	0.4046
-----------------	--------------	--------

Matching Results between R05 and R05A using the Star model:

Columns:

ACCOUNT\_BALANCE.AMT\_BALANCE\_HOLDS ACCOUNT\_HIST.ACC\_BALANCE\_AMT 0.0607  
ACCOUNT\_BALANCE.DATE\_BALANCE ACCOUNT\_HIST.BALANCE\_DATE 0.0451  
ACCOUNT\_TRANSACTIONS.ACCOUNT\_ID ACCOUNT\_HIST.ACC\_ID 0.0395  
REF\_ACCOUNT\_TYPES.ACCOUNT\_TYPE\_CODE ACCOUNT\_HIST.ACCOUNT\_TYPE\_CODE 0.0557

Tables:

ACCOUNT_TRANSACTIONS	ACCOUNT_HIST	1
----------------------	--------------	---

COMA Results

ACCOUNT\_BALANCE\_TABLE.ACCOUNT\_BALANCE.DATE\_BALANCE <->  
ACCOUNT\_HIST\_TABLE.ACCOUNT\_HIST.BALANCE\_DATE: 0.86262786

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

```
ACCOUNT_BALANCE_TABLE.ACCOUNT_BALANCE.AMT_BALANCE_HOLDS <->
ACCOUNT_HIST_TABLE.ACCOUNT_HIST.ACC_BALANCE_AMT: 0.72583765
ACCOUNT_BALANCE_TABLE.ACCOUNT_BALANCE.BALANCE_CLOSING <->
ACCOUNT_HIST_TABLE.ACCOUNT_HIST.CLOSING_BAL_AMT: 0.65651226
ACCOUNT_TRANSACTIONS_TABLE.ACCOUNT_TRANSACTIONS.DATE_BALANCE <->
ACCOUNT_HIST_TABLE.ACCOUNT_HIST.BALANCE_DATE: 0.86436397
ACCOUNT_TABLE.ACCOUNT.ACCOUNT_ID <->
ACCOUNT_HIST_TABLE.ACCOUNT_HIST.ACC_ID: 0.7396621
ACCOUNT_TABLE.ACCOUNT.ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE <->
ACCOUNT_HIST_TABLE.ACCOUNT_HIST.ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE: 0.86590797
ACCOUNT_TABLE <-> ACCOUNT_HIST_TABLE: 0.74746954
```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

```
-----
2,g    REF_ACCOUNT_TYPES.ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE R05A.ACCOUNT_HIST.ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE
5,b    ACCOUNT.ACCOUNT_ID                  ACCOUNT_HIST.ACC_ID
6,g    ACCOUNT.ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE           ACCOUNT_HIST.ACCOUNT_TYPE_CODE
10,a   R05.ACCOUNT_BALANCE                 R05A.ACCOUNT_HIST
12,c   ACCOUNT_BALANCE.DATE_BALANCE        ACCOUNT_HIST.BALANCE_DATE
13,d   ACCOUNT_BALANCE.AMT_BALANCE_HOLDS   ACCOUNT_HIST.ACC_BALANCE_AMT
15,f   ACCOUNT_BALANCE.BALANCE_ADJUSTED    ACCOUNT_HIST.ADJ_BAL_AMT
16,e   ACCOUNT_BALANCE.BALANCE_CLOSING     ACCOUNT_HIST.CLOSING_BAL_AMT
```

Matching Results between M8L and M8R using the Relational model:  
Columns:

```
-----
PROFESSOR.ID          PROFESSOR.ID          0.1100
PROFESSOR.NAME        PROFESSOR.NAME        0.0375
PROFESSOR.SAL         PROFESSOR.SALARY      0.0509
STUDENT.GPA           STUDENT.GRADEPOINTAVERAGE 0.0207
STUDENT.NAME          STUDENT.NAME          0.0384
STUDENT.YR            STUDENT.YEAR          0.0184
WORKSON.PROJ          WORKSON.PROJECT       0.0525
ADDRESS               PROFESSOR.ADDRESS     0.1257
```

Tables:

```
-----
PROFESSOR             PROFESSOR             0.3239
STUDENT               STUDENT              0.2049
WORKSON               WORKSON              0.2287
```

Matching Results between M8L and M8R using the Star model:  
Columns:

```
-----
PROFESSOR.ID          PROFESSOR.ID          0.0281
PROFESSOR.NAME        PROFESSOR.NAME        0.0179
PROFESSOR.SAL         PROFESSOR.SALARY      0.0414
STUDENT.GPA           STUDENT.GRADEPOINTAVERAGE 0.0269
STUDENT.NAME          STUDENT.NAME          0.0226
STUDENT.YR            STUDENT.YEAR          0.0242
WORKSON.HRS           WORKSON.EXPENSES      0.0190
WORKSON.NAME          WORKSON.STUDENTNAME   0.0168
WORKSON.PROJ          WORKSON.PROJECT       0.0214
```

Tables:

```
-----
PROFESSOR             PROFESSOR             0.2897
STUDENT               STUDENT              0.2408
```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

WORKSON WORKSON 0.2418

### COMA Results

```
-----
WORKSON_TABLE.WORKSON.PROJ <-> WORKSON_TABLE.WORKSON.PROJECT: 0.639833
WORKSON_TABLE.WORKSON.HRS <-> WORKSON_TABLE.WORKSON.EXPENSES: 0.4064996
WORKSON_TABLE <-> WORKSON_TABLE: 0.75411034
STUDENT_TABLE.STUDENT.NAME <-> STUDENT_TABLE.STUDENT.NAME: 0.91960126
STUDENT_TABLE.STUDENT.GPA <->
    STUDENT_TABLE.STUDENT.GRADEPOINTAVERAGE: 0.44814813
STUDENT_TABLE.STUDENT.YR <-> STUDENT_TABLE.STUDENT.YEAR: 0.631713
STUDENT_TABLE <-> STUDENT_TABLE: 0.82824075
PROFESSOR_TABLE.PROFESSOR.ID <-> PROFESSOR_TABLE.PROFESSOR.ID: 0.9234411
PROFESSOR_TABLE.PROFESSOR.NAME <-> PROFESSOR_TABLE.PROFESSOR.NAME: 0.91960126
PROFESSOR_TABLE.PROFESSOR.SAL <-> PROFESSOR_TABLE.PROFESSOR.SALARY: 0.67480767
PROFESSOR_TABLE.PROFESSOR.ADDR <->
    PROFESSOR_TABLE.PROFESSOR.ADDRESS: 0.6813034
PROFESSOR_TABLE <-> PROFESSOR_TABLE: 0.89705133
```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

```
-----
1,a      M8L.ADDRESS                M8R.PROFESSOR
3,e      ADDRESS.STREET            PROFESSOR.ADDRESS
4,e      ADDRESS.CITY              ROFESSOR.ADDRESS
5,e      ADDRESS.POSTALCODE        PROFESSOR.ADDRESS
6,a      M8L.PROFESSOR             M8R.PROFESSOR
7,b      PROFESSOR.ID              PROFESSOR.ID
8,c      PROFESSOR.NAME            PROFESSOR.NAME
9,d      PROFESSOR.SAL              PROFESSOR.SALARY
11,f     M8L.STUDENT               M8R.STUDENT
12,g     STUDENT.NAME              STUDENT.NAME
12,k     STUDENT.NAME              WORKSON.STUDENTNAME
13,h     STUDENT.GPA               WORKSON.GRADEPOINTAVERAGE
14,i     STUDENT.YR                STUDENT.YEAR
18,j     M8L.WORKSON               M8R.WORKSON
19,k     WORKSON.NAME              WORKSON.STUDENTNAME
20,l     WORKSON.PROJ              WORKSON.PROJECT
21,m     WORKSON.HRS               WORKSON.EXPENSES
```

Matching Results between R01 and R02 using the Relational model:

Columns:

```
-----
BOOKING.BOOKING_ID                ADDRESS.ADDRESS_ID                0.0401
BOOKING.PAYMENT_RECEIVED          CARS_SOLD.MONTHLY_PAYMENT_AMOUNT 0.0405
CAR.CURRENT_MILEAGE               CARS_FOR_SALE.CURRENT_MILEAGE    0.0752
CUSTOMER.ADDRESS_LINE_1           ADDRESS.ADDRESS_LINE_1           0.0805
CUSTOMER.CITY                     ADDRESS.TOWN_CITY                 0.0514
CUSTOMER.EMAIL_ADDRESS            CUSTOMERS.EMAIL_ADDRESS           0.0761
CUSTOMER.STATE                    ADDRESS.STATE_COUNTY_PROVINCE     0.0386
MANUFACTURER.MANUFACTURER_NAME    CAR_MANUFACTURERS.MANUFACTURER_FULL_NAME 0.0647
MODEL.MODEL_CODE                  CAR_MODELS.MODEL_CODE             0.0252
MODEL.MODEL_NAME                  CAR_MODELS.MODEL_NAME             0.0776
```

Tables:

```
-----
BOOKING                          CARS_SOLD                        0.0508
CAR                              CAR_MODELS                       0.0805
CUSTOMER                        ADDRESS                          0.1121
```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Matching Results between R01 and R02 using the Star model:  
Columns:

BOOKING.CUSTOMER_ID	CARS_SOLD.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0166
BOOKING.DATE_OF_SERVICE	CARS_FOR_SALE.DATE_ACQUIRED	0.0181
BOOKING.PAYMENT_RECEIVED	CARS_SOLD.MONTHLY_PAYMENT_AMOUNT	0.0757
CAR.CURRENT_MILEAGE	CARS_FOR_SALE.CURRENT_MILEAGE	0.0634
CUSTOMER.CITY	ADDRESS.TOWN_CITY	0.0234
CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0239
CUSTOMER.EMAIL_ADDRESS	CUSTOMERS.EMAIL_ADDRESS	0.0655
CUSTOMER.PHONE_NUMBER	CUSTOMERS.CAR_MOBILE_PHONE	0.0306
CUSTOMER.STATE	ADDRESS.STATE_COUNTY_PROVINCE	0.0178
MANUFACTURER.MANUFACTURER_NAME	CAR_MANUFACTURERS.MANUFACTURER_FULL_NAME	0.0664
MODEL.MODEL_CODE	CAR_MODELS.MODEL_CODE	0.0379
MODEL.MODEL_NAME	CAR_MODELS.MODEL_NAME	0.0703

Tables:

BOOKING	CARS_SOLD	0.3584
CAR	CARS_FOR_SALE	0.1325
CUSTOMER	CUSTOMERS	0.1845
MANUFACTURER	CAR_MANUFACTURERS	0.1259
MODEL	CAR_MODELS	0.1401

COMA Results

```

MODEL_TABLE.MODEL.MODEL_NAME <->
    CAR_MODELS_TABLE.CAR_MODELS.MODEL_NAME: 0.8650665
MODEL_TABLE <-> CAR_MODELS_TABLE: 0.69309604
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.88079137
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.PHONE_NUMBER <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CAR_MOBILE_PHONE: 0.625968
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.ADDRESS_LINE_1 <->
    ADDRESS_TABLE.ADDRESS.ADDRESS_LINE_1: 0.8232952
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CITY <-> ADDRESS_TABLE.ADDRESS.TOWN_CITY: 0.62634003
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.STATE <->
    ADDRESS_TABLE.ADDRESS.STATE_COUNTY_PROVINCE: 0.5606197
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.EMAIL_ADDRESS <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.EMAIL_ADDRESS: 0.88613033
CUSTOMER_TABLE <-> CUSTOMERS_TABLE: 0.77226067
MANUFACTURER_TABLE.MANUFACTURER.MANUFACTURER_NAME <->
    CAR_MANUFACTURERS_TABLE.CAR_MANUFACTURERS.MANUFACTURER_FULL_NAME: 0.79365826
MANUFACTURER_TABLE <-> CAR_MANUFACTURERS_TABLE: 0.7768769
CAR_TABLE.CAR.MODEL_CODE <->
    CAR_MODELS_TABLE.CAR_MODELS.MODEL_CODE: 0.87084925
CAR_TABLE.CAR.CUSTOMER_ID <-> CARS_SOLD_TABLE.CARS_SOLD.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.8257048
CAR_TABLE.CAR.CURRENT_MILEAGE <->
    CARS_FOR_SALE_TABLE.CARS_FOR_SALE.CURRENT_MILEAGE: 0.8133527
CAR_TABLE.CAR <-> CAR_MODELS_TABLE.CAR_MODELS: 0.6177288
BOOKING_TABLE.BOOKING.DATE_OF_SERVICE <->
    CARS_SOLD_TABLE.CARS_SOLD.DATE_SOLD: 0.5087609
BOOKING_TABLE.BOOKING.PAYMENT_RECEIVED <->
    CARS_SOLD_TABLE.CARS_SOLD.MONTHLY_PAYMENT_AMOUNT: 0.49978667

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

1,p	R01.CUSTOMER	R02.CUSTOMERS
2,q	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID
6,s	CUSTOMER.EMAIL_ADDRESS	CUSTOMERS.EMAIL_ADDRESS
7,r	CUSTOMER.PHONE_NUMBER	CUSTOMERS.CAR_MOBILE_PHONE
8,cc	CUSTOMER.ADDRESS_LINE_1	ADDRESS.ADDRESS_LINE_1
9,dd	CUSTOMER.CITY	ADDRESS.TOWN_CITY
10,ee	CUSTOMER.STATE	ADDRESS.STATE_COUNTY_PROVINCE
11,a	R01.MODEL	R02.CAR_MODELS
12,b	MODEL.MODEL_CODE	CAR_MODELS.MODEL_CODE
14,c	MODEL.MODEL_NAME	CAR_MODELS.MODEL_NAME
15,e	R01.MANUFACTURER	R02.CAR_MANUFACTURERS
16,f	MANUFACTURER.MANUFACTURER_CODE	CAR_MANUFACTURERS.MANUFACTURER_SHORT_NAME
17,g	MANUFACTURER.MANUFACTURER_NAME	CAR_MANUFACTURERS.MANUFACTURER_FULL_NAME
19,h	R01.CAR	R02.CARS_FOR_SALE
22,k	CAR.MODEL_CODE	CARS_FOR_SALE.MODEL_CODE
23,l	CAR.CURRENT_MILEAGE	CARS_FOR_SALE.CURRENT_MILEAGE
25,m	CAR.MANUFACTURER_CODE	CARS_FOR_SALE.MANUFACTURER_SHORT_NAME
26,t	R01.BOOKING	R02.CARS_SOLD
27,u	BOOKING.BOOKING_ID	CARS_SOLD.CAR_FOR_SALE_ID
28,v	BOOKING.CUSTOMER_ID	CARS_SOLD.CUSTOMER_ID
30,x	BOOKING.DATE_OF_SERVICE	CARS_SOLD.DATE_SOLD
207		

Matching Results between R03 and R06 using the Relational model:

Columns:

AUTHORS.AUTHOR_INITIALS	PRODUCTS.BOOK_AUTHOR	0.0333
BOOKS.BOOK_PUBLICATION_DATE	PRODUCTS.PUBLICATION_DATE	0.0639
BOOKS.ISBN	PRODUCTS.BOOK_ISBN	0.0453
BOOKS.TITLE	PRODUCTS.BOOK_TITLE	0.0452
CONTACTS.CONTACT_FIRST_NAME	CUSTOMERS.FIRST_NAME	0.0538
CONTACTS.CONTACT_LAST_NAME	CUSTOMERS.LAST_NAME	0.0538
CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	0.0670
CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0253
CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	0.0678
ORDER_ITEMS.AGREED_PRICE	PRODUCTS.PRODUCT_PRICE	0.0462
ORDER_ITEMS.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMER_ORDER.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0194
ORDER_ITEMS.ITEM_NUMBER	CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT.QUANTITY	0.0205

Tables:

BOOKS	PRODUCTS	0.0936
CUSTOMERS	CUSTOMERS	0.2386
ORDER_ITEMS	CUSTOMER_ORDER	0.0752

Matching Results between R03 and R06 using the Star model:

Columns:

BOOKS.BOOK_ID	PRODUCTS.PRODUCT_ID	0.0377
BOOKS.BOOK_PUBLICATION_DATE	PRODUCTS.PUBLICATION_DATE	0.0643
BOOKS.ISBN	PRODUCTS.BOOK_ISBN	0.0458
BOOKS.TITLE	PRODUCTS.BOOK_TITLE	0.0457
CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	0.0714
CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0571

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	0.0719
ORDER_ITEMS.AGREED_PRICE	CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT.QUANTITY	0.0830
ORDER_ITEMS.BOOK_ID	CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT.PRODUCT_ID	0.0231

Tables:

BOOKS	PRODUCTS	0.2834
CUSTOMERS	CUSTOMERS	0.5884
ORDER_ITEMS	CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT	0.2629

COMA Results

```

ORDER_ITEMS_TABLE.ORDER_ITEMS.CUSTOMER_ID <->
    CUSTOMER_ORDER_TABLE.CUSTOMER_ORDER.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.87248325
ORDER_ITEMS_TABLE.ORDER_ITEMS.AGREED_PRICE <->
    CUSTOMER_ORDER_TABLE.CUSTOMER_ORDER.ORDER PRICE: 0.5893995
ORDER_ITEMS_TABLE <-> CUSTOMER_ORDER_TABLE: 0.6626226
BOOKS_TABLE.BOOKS.ISBN <-> PRODUCTS_TABLE.PRODUCTS.BOOK_ISBN: 0.63474965
BOOKS_TABLE.BOOKS.TITLE <-> PRODUCTS_TABLE.PRODUCTS.BOOK_TITLE: 0.63474965
BOOKS_TABLE.BOOKS.BOOK_PUBLICATION_DATE <->
    PRODUCTS_TABLE.PRODUCTS.PUBLICATION_DATE: 0.6903354
BOOKS_TABLE <-> PRODUCTS_TABLE: 0.5840041
CONTACTS_TABLE.CONTACTS.CONTACT_ID <->
    PRODUCTS_TABLE.PRODUCTS.PRODUCT_ID: 0.5752502
CONTACTS_TABLE.CONTACTS.CONTACT_FIRST_NAME <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.FIRST_NAME: 0.73795813
CONTACTS_TABLE.CONTACTS.CONTACT_LAST_NAME <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.LAST_NAME: 0.73880535
AUTHORS_TABLE.AUTHORS.AUTHOR_INITIALS <->
    PRODUCTS_TABLE.PRODUCTS.BOOK_AUTHOR: 0.5216146
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID <->
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.9337578
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE <->
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE: 0.96267486
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL <->
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL: 0.96267486
CUSTOMERS_TABLE <-> CUSTOMERS_TABLE: 0.9253497

```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

1, a	R03.BOOKS	R06.PRODUCTS
2, b	BOOKS.BOOK_ID	PRODUCTS.PRODUCT_ID
3, d	BOOKS.ISBN	PRODUCTS.BOOK_ISBN
4, g	BOOKS.TITLE	PRODUCTS.BOOK_TITLE
5, f	BOOKS.BOOK_PUBLICATION	PRODUCTS.PUBLICATION_DATE
6, k	R03.CUSTOMERS	R06.CUSTOMERS
7, l	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID
9, m	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_NAME	CUSTOMERS.FIRST_NAME
9, n	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_NAME	CUSTOMERS.LAST_NAME
11, o	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE
12, p	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL
15, x	ORDER_ITEMS.BOOK_ID	CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT.PRODUCT_ID
16, r	ORDER_ITEMS.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMER_ORDER.CUSTOMER_ID

Matching Results between R06 and R07 using the Relational model:

Columns:

CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	0.0693
--------------------------	-----------------------	--------

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0419
CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_PHONE	0.0682
CUSTOMERS.FIRST_NAME	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME	0.0562
CUSTOMERS.LAST_NAME	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME	0.0562
CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT.QUANTITY	BOOK_AUTHOR.SEQ_NO	0.0212
PRODUCTS.BOOK_AUTHOR	BOOK_AUTHOR	0.0656
PRODUCTS.BOOK_TITLE	BOOK.BOOK_TITLE	0.0693
PRODUCTS.PRODUCT	PRICE BOOK.BOOK_PRICE	0.0393
PRODUCTS.PUBLICATION_DATE	BOOK.PUBLICATION_DATE	0.0725

Tables:

CUSTOMERS	CLIENT	0.1819
PRODUCTS	BOOK	0.1313

Matching Results between R06 and R07 using the Star model:

Columns:

CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	0.0397
CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0236
CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_PHONE	0.0388
CUSTOMERS.FIRST_NAME	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME	0.0584
CUSTOMERS.LAST_NAME	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME	0.0584
CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT.PRODUCT_ID	BOOK_AUTHOR.BOOK_ID	0.0239
CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT.QUANTITY	BOOK_AUTHOR.SEQ_NO	0.0220
PRODUCTS.BOOK_TITLE	BOOK.BOOK_TITLE	0.0713
PRODUCTS.PRODUCT_ID	BOOK.BOOK_ID	0.0232
PRODUCTS.PRODUCT_PRICE	BOOK.BOOK_PRICE	0.0426
PRODUCTS.PUBLICATION_DATE	BOOK.PUBLICATION_DATE	0.0722

Tables:

CUSTOMER_ORDERS_PRODUCT	BOOK_AUTHOR	0.2028
PRODUCTS	BOOK	0.3913

COMA Results

```

CUSTOMER_ORDER_TABLE.CUSTOMER_ORDER.CUSTOMER_ID <->
    CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.8388858
CUSTOMER_ORDER_TABLE.CUSTOMER_ORDER.ORDER_ID <->
    AUTHOR_TABLE.AUTHOR.AUTHOR_ID: 0.55583584
PRODUCTS_TABLE.PRODUCTS.BOOK_ISBN <-> BOOK_TABLE.BOOK.BOOK_ID: 0.5712036
PRODUCTS_TABLE.PRODUCTS.PUBLICATION_DATE <->
    BOOK_TABLE.BOOK.PUBLICATION_DATE: 0.79273427
PRODUCTS_TABLE.PRODUCTS.BOOK_TITLE <->
    BOOK_TABLE.BOOK.BOOK_TITLE: 0.82702506
PRODUCTS_TABLE <-> BOOK_TABLE: 0.5806375
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID <->
    CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.847226
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.FIRST_NAME <->
    AUTHOR_TABLE.AUTHOR.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME: 0.68796057
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.LAST_NAME <->
    AUTHOR_TABLE.AUTHOR.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME: 0.68796057
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE <->
    CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_PHONE: 0.86897534
CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL <->
    CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_EMAIL: 0.86897534
CUSTOMERS_TABLE <-> CLIENT_TABLE: 0.70517427

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

CUSTOMER\_ORDERS\_PRODUCT\_TABLE <-> BOOK\_AUTHOR\_TABLE: 0.4523942

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

1, p	R06.PRODUCTS	R07.BOOK
2, q	PRODUCTS.PRODUCT_ID	BOOK.BOOK_ID
3, t	PRODUCTS.PRODUCT_PRICE	BOOK.BOOK_PRICE
5, x	PRODUCTS.BOOK_AUTHOR	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME
5, y	PRODUCTS.BOOK_AUTHOR	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_INITIALS
5, z	PRODUCTS.BOOK_AUTHOR	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME
6, u	PRODUCTS.PUBLICATION_DATE	BOOK.PUBLICATION_DATE
7, s	PRODUCTS.BOOK_TITLE	BOOK.BOOK_TITLE
11, a	R06.CUSTOMERS	R07.CLIENT
12, b	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ID
13, d	CUSTOMERS.FIRST_NAME	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_NAME
14, d	CUSTOMERS.LAST_NAME	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_NAME
15, f	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_PHONE
16, g	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_EMAIL

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Matching Results between R07 and R03 using the Relational model:  
Columns:

AUTHOR.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME	0.0578
AUTHOR.AUTHOR_INITIALS	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_INITIALS	0.0594
AUTHOR.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME	0.0578
BOOK.BOOK_PRICE	ORDER_ITEMS.AGREED_PRICE	0.0300
BOOK.BOOK_TITLE	BOOKS.TITLE	0.0382
BOOK.PUBLICATION_DATE	BOOKS.BOOK_PUBLICATION_DATE	0.0502
BOOK_AUTHOR.SEQ_NO	ORDER_ITEMS.ITEM_NUMBER	0.0151
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	0.0591
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_CODE	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_CODE	0.0573
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	0.0573
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0346
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_NAME	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_NAME	0.0561
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_PHONE	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	0.0561

Tables:

AUTHOR	AUTHORS	0.1319
BOOK	BOOKS	0.0703
CLIENT CUSTOMERS		0.2491

Matching Results between R07 and R03 using the Star model:  
Columns:

AUTHOR.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME	0.0398
AUTHOR.AUTHOR_ID	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_ID	0.0226
AUTHOR.AUTHOR_INITIALS	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_INITIALS	0.0405
AUTHOR.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME	0.0398
BOOK.BOOK_ID	BOOKS.BOOK_ID	0.0290
BOOK.BOOK_PRICE	ORDER_ITEMS.AGREED_PRICE	0.0353
BOOK.BOOK_TITLE	BOOKS.TITLE	0.0484
BOOK.PUBLICATION_DATE	BOOKS.BOOK_PUBLICATION_DATE	0.0606
BOOK_AUTHOR.BOOK_ID	ORDER_ITEMS.BOOK_ID	0.0210
BOOK_AUTHOR.SEQ_NO	ORDER_ITEMS.ITEM_NUMBER	0.0093
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	0.0408
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_CODE	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_CODE	0.0396



## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

CLIENT.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	0.0388
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0230
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_NAME	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_NAME	0.0380
CLIENT.CUSTOMER_PHONE	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE	0.0382

Tables:

BOOK	BOOKS	0.2292
BOOK_AUTHOR	AUTHORS	0.1146
CLIENT	CUSTOMERS	0.1820

COMA Results

```

AUTHOR_TABLE.AUTHOR.AUTHOR_ID <-> AUTHORS_TABLE.AUTHORS.AUTHOR_ID: 0.9300933
AUTHOR_TABLE.AUTHOR.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME <->
    AUTHORS_TABLE.AUTHORS.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME: 0.9632353
AUTHOR_TABLE.AUTHOR.AUTHOR_INITIALS <->
    AUTHORS_TABLE.AUTHORS.AUTHOR_INITIALS: 0.9632353
AUTHOR_TABLE.AUTHOR.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME <->
    AUTHORS_TABLE.AUTHORS.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME: 0.9632353
AUTHOR_TABLE <-> AUTHORS_TABLE: 0.9264706
CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ID <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.87094575
CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_CODE <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_CODE: 0.90828025
CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_NAME <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_NAME: 0.9063005
CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS: 0.90768933
CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_PHONE <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE: 0.9063005
CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CUSTOMER_EMAIL <->
    CUSTOMERS_TABLE.CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL: 0.9063005
CLIENT_TABLE <-> CUSTOMERS_TABLE: 0.77982455
BOOK_TABLE.BOOK.BOOK_ID <-> BOOKS_TABLE.BOOKS.BOOK_ID: 0.87176013
BOOK_TABLE.BOOK.BOOK_TITLE <-> BOOKS_TABLE.BOOKS.TITLE: 0.71178776
BOOK_TABLE.BOOK.PUBLICATION_DATE <->
    BOOKS_TABLE.BOOKS.BOOK_PUBLICATION_DATE: 0.7795656
BOOK_TABLE <-> BOOKS_TABLE: 0.7624644

```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

01, f	R07.CLIENT	R03.CUSTOMERS
02, g	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ID
03, h	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_CODE	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_CODE
04, i	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_NAME	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_NAME
05, j	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS
06, k	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_PHONE	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_PHONE
07, l	CLIENT.CUSTOMER_EMAIL	CUSTOMERS.CUSTOMER_EMAIL
16, a	R07.BOOK	R03.BOOKS
17, b	BOOK.BOOK_ID	BOOKS.BOOK_ID
19, d	BOOK.BOOK_TITLE	BOOKS.TITLE
21, e	BOOK.PUBLICATION_DATE	BOOKS.BOOK_PUBLICATION_DATE
22, x	R07.AUTHOR	R03.AUTHORS
23, y	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_ID	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_ID
24, z	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_FIRST_NAME
25, aa	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_INITIALS	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_INITIALS
26, bb	AUTHOR.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME	AUTHORS.AUTHOR_LAST_NAME

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

```
28, b  BOOK_AUTHOR.BOOK_ID      BOOKS.BOOK_ID
28, o  BOOK_AUTHOR.BOOK_ID      ORDER_ITEMS.BOOK_ID
```

Matching Results between R08A and R08B using the Relational model:  
Columns:

```
-----
ACCOUNT.ACCOUNT_NAME      APPLICANT.APPLICANT_NAME      0.0386
CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS APPLICANT.APPLICANT_ADDRESS    0.0389
CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_PHONE    APPLICANT.APPLICANT_PHONE      0.0362
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_AMOUNT TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_AMOUNT 0.0749
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_DATE TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_DATE    0.0768
```

Tables:

```
-----
CUSTOMER      APPLICANT      0.0473
CUSTOMER_CARD CARD          0.1536
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION TRANSACTION    0.1593
```

Matching Results between R08A and R08B using the Star model:  
Columns:

```
-----
ACCOUNT.ACCOUNT_NAME      APPLICANT.APPLICANT_NAME      0.0363
CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_        ADDRESS APPLICANT.APPLICANT_ADDRESS 0.0364
CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_PHONE    APPLICANT.APPLICANT_PHONE      0.0340
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_AMOUNT TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_AMOUNT 0.1104
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_DATE TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_DATE    0.0299
REF_CARD_TYPE.CARD_TYPE_CODE CARD_TYPE.CARD_TYPE            0.0452
REF_CARD_TYPE.CARD_TYPE_DESCRIPTION PAYMENT.PAYMENT_DESCRIPTION    0.0335
```

Tables:

```
-----
CUSTOMER      APPLICANT      0.1162
CUSTOMER_CARD CARD          0.3277
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION TRANSACTION    0.4860
```

COMA Results

```
-----
REF_CARD_TYPE_TABLE.REF_CARD_TYPE.CARD_TYPE_CODE <->
      CARD_TYPE_TABLE.CARD_TYPE.CARD_TYPE: 0.81683004
REF_CARD_TYPE_TABLE <-> CARD_TYPE_TABLE: 0.77969897
CUSTOMER_CARD_TABLE.CUSTOMER_CARD.CARD_TYPE_CODE <->
      CARD_TABLE.CARD.CARD_TYPE: 0.8051237
CUSTOMER_CARD_TABLE.CUSTOMER_CARD.CARD_ID <->
      CARD_TABLE.CARD.CARD_DEBT: 0.66209203
CUSTOMER_CARD_TABLE.CUSTOMER_CARD.CARD_NUMBER <->
      CARD_TABLE.CARD.CARD_NUMBER: 0.88136595
CUSTOMER_CARD_TABLE.CUSTOMER_CARD.DATE_VALID_FROM <->
      CARD_TABLE.CARD.CARD_EXPIRE_DATE: 0.596231
CUSTOMER_CARD_TABLE.CUSTOMER_CARD.DATE_VALID_TO <->
      CARD_TABLE.CARD.CARD_EXPIRE_DATE: 0.596231
CUSTOMER_CARD_TABLE <-> CARD_TABLE: 0.7763117
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_PHONE <->
      APPLICANT_TABLE.APPLICANT.APPLICANT_PHONE: 0.5251432
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS <->
      APPLICANT_TABLE.APPLICANT.APPLICANT_ADDRESS: 0.5378516
ACCOUNT_TABLE.ACCOUNT.ACCOUNT_ID <->
      APPLICANT_TABLE.APPLICANT.APPLICANT_ID: 0.6380226
ACCOUNT_TABLE.ACCOUNT.ACCOUNT_NAME <->
```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

```

APPLICANT_TABLE.APPLICANT.APPLICANT_NAME: 0.6395299
ACCOUNT_TABLE <-> APPLICANT_TABLE: 0.6348931
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION_TABLE.FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_ID <->
TRANSACTION_TABLE.TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_ID: 0.8932756
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION_TABLE.FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_AMOUNT <->
TRANSACTION_TABLE.TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_AMOUNT: 0.908187
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION_TABLE.FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_DATE <->
TRANSACTION_TABLE.TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_DATE: 0.9068642
FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION_TABLE <-> TRANSACTION_TABLE: 0.8026174

```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

```

-----
1,g      R08A.REF_CARD_TYPE           R08B.CARD_TYPE
2,h      REF_CARD_TYPE.CARD_TYPE_CODE CARD_TYPE.CARD_TYPE
4,i      REF_CARD_TYPE.DEBIT_AMOUNT   CARD_TYPE.CARDTYPE_LIMIT
5,a      R08A.CUSTOMER               R08B.APPLICANT
6,b      CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID         APPLICANT.APPLICANT_ID
7,c      CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_NAME       APPLICANT.APPLICANT_NAME
8,e      CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_PHONE      APPLICANT.APPLICANT_PHONE
10,f     CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS    APPLICANT.APPLICANT_ADDRESS
11,j     R08A.CUSTOMER_CARD           R08B.CARD
13,m     CUSTOMER_CARD.CUSTOMER_ID    CARD.APPLICANT_ID
14,k     CUSTOMER_CARD.CARD_NUMBER    CARD.CARD_NUMBER
16,l     CUSTOMER_CARD.DATE_VALID_TO  CARD.CARD_EXPIRE_DATE
17,o     CUSTOMER_CARD.CARD_TYPE_CODE CARD.CARD_TYPE
22,t     R08A.FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION   R08B.TRANSACTION
23,u     FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_ID
                                           TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_ID
25,x     FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_AMOUNT
                                           TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_AMOUNT
27,w     FINANCIAL_TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_DATE TRANSACTION.TRANSACTION_DATE

```

Matching Results between PP1 and PP2 using the Relational model:  
Columns:

```

-----
DEALER.DELIVERY_FINAL_COST      CAR_SALES.FIN_COST              0.0512
FISCAL_CAL.FISCAL_MONTH         FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_MONTH         0.0592
FISCAL_CAL.FISCAL_YEAR          FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_YEAR          0.0577
FISCAL_CAL.YEAR_MONTH           FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_YEAR_MONTH    0.0339
MONTHLY_SALES.SALES_AMT         CAR_SALES.SALES_AMOUNT          0.0545
MONTHLY_SALES.SALES_QTY         CAR_DEALER.SALES_RNK            0.0495

```

Tables:

```

-----
DEALER                        CAR_DEALER                      0.1181
FISCAL_CAL                    FINANCIAL_CAL                   0.1541
MAKE                          CAR_MAKE                        0.0566
MODEL                         CAR_MODEL                       0.0566
MONTHLY_SALES                 CAR_SALES                       0.1761

```

Matching Results between PP1 and PP2 using the Star model:  
Columns:

```

-----
DEALER.DEALER_ID             CAR_DEALER.DEALER_KEY          0.1165
DEALER.DEALER_NAME           CAR_DEALER.DEALER_NM           0.0534
FISCAL_CAL.FISCAL_MONTH       FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_MONTH        0.0564
FISCAL_CAL.FISCAL_YEAR        FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_YEAR          0.0552
FISCAL_CAL.YEAR_MONTH         FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_YEAR_MONTH    0.0459

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

MAKE.MAKE_ID	CAR_MAKE.CAR_MAKE	0.0343
MAKE.MAKE_NAME	CAR_MAKE.CAR_MAKE_DESC	0.0458
MODEL.MODEL_ID	CAR_MODEL.CAR_MODEL	0.0343
MODEL.MODEL_NAME	CAR_MODEL.CAR_MODEL_DESC	0.0458
MONTHLY_SALES.DEALER_ID	CAR_SALES.DEALER_KEY	0.0221
MONTHLY_SALES.MAKE_ID	CAR_SALES.CAR_MAKE	0.0177
MONTHLY_SALES.MODEL_ID	CAR_SALES.CAR_MODEL	0.0177
MONTHLY_SALES.MONTHLY_ADS_COST	CAR_SALES.FIN_COST	0.0415
MONTHLY_SALES.SALES_AMT	CAR_SALES.SALES_AMOUNT	0.0517
MONTHLY_SALES.SALES_QTY	CAR_SALES.SOLD_QTY	0.0487
MONTHLY_SALES.YEAR_MONTH	CAR_SALES.FIN_YEAR_MONTH	0.0248

### Tables:

DEALER	CAR_DEALER	0.2725
FISCAL_CAL	FINANCIAL_CAL	0.2705
MAKE	CAR_MAKE	0.1141
MODEL	CAR_MODEL	0.1141
MONTHLY_SALES	CAR_SALES	0.9070

### COMA Results

```

DEALER_TABLE.DEALER.DEALER_ID <->
    CAR_DEALER_TABLE.CAR_DEALER.DEALER_KEY: 0.6401282
DEALER_TABLE.DEALER.DEALER_NAME <->
    CAR_DEALER_TABLE.CAR_DEALER.DEALER_NM: 0.66036695
DEALER_TABLE.DEALER.DELIVERY_FINAL_COST <->
    CAR_SALES_TABLE.CAR_SALES.FIN_COST: 0.5586653
DEALER_TABLE <-> CAR_DEALER_TABLE: 0.702073
MAKE_TABLE.MAKE.MAKE_ID <-> CAR_MAKE_TABLE.CAR_MAKE.CAR_MAKE: 0.62163365
MAKE_TABLE.MAKE.MAKE_NAME <-> CAR_MAKE_TABLE.CAR_MAKE.CAR_MAKE: 0.6184272
MAKE_TABLE <-> CAR_MAKE_TABLE: 0.7313195
FISCAL_CAL_TABLE.FISCAL_CAL.YEAR_MONTH <->
    FINANCIAL_CAL_TABLE.FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_YEAR_MONTH: 0.74298567
FISCAL_CAL_TABLE.FISCAL_CAL.FISCAL_YEAR <->
    FINANCIAL_CAL_TABLE.FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_YEAR: 0.6262011
FISCAL_CAL_TABLE.FISCAL_CAL.FISCAL_MONTH <->
    FINANCIAL_CAL_TABLE.FINANCIAL_CAL.FIN_MONTH: 0.70120114
FISCAL_CAL_TABLE <-> FINANCIAL_CAL_TABLE: 0.7388057
MONTHLY_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_SALES.MODEL_ID <->
    CAR_SALES_TABLE.CAR_SALES.CAR_MODEL: 0.5878663
MONTHLY_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_SALES.DEALER_ID <->
    CAR_SALES_TABLE.CAR_SALES.DEALER_KEY: 0.60163754
MONTHLY_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_SALES.MAKE_ID <->
    CAR_SALES_TABLE.CAR_SALES.CAR_MAKE: 0.58968925
MONTHLY_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_SALES.YEAR_MONTH <->
    CAR_SALES_TABLE.CAR_SALES.FIN_YEAR_MONTH: 0.7123402
MONTHLY_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_SALES.SALES_AMT <->
    CAR_SALES_TABLE.CAR_SALES.SALES_AMOUNT: 0.7046375
MONTHLY_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_SALES.SALES_QTY <->
    CAR_SALES_TABLE.CAR_SALES.SOLD_QTY: 0.62969095
MONTHLY_SALES_TABLE <-> CAR_SALES_TABLE: 0.65521526
MODEL_TABLE.MODEL.MODEL_ID <->
    CAR_MODEL_TABLE.CAR_MODEL.CAR_MODEL: 0.61981076
MODEL_TABLE <-> CAR_MODEL_TABLE: 0.72402775

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

1,a	PP1.FISCAL_CAL	PP2.FINANCIAL_CAL
2,b	YEAR_MONTH	FIN_YEAR_MONTH
3,c	FISCAL_YEAR	FIN_YEAR_INTEGER
4,d	FISCAL_MONTH	FIN_MONTH
5,i	PP1.MAKE	PP2.CAR_MAKE
6,j	MAKE.MAKE_ID	CAR_MAKE.CAR_MAKE
7,k	MAKE.MAKE_NAME	CAR_MAKE.CAR_MAKE_DESC
8,l	PP1.MODEL	PP2.CAR_MODEL
9,m	MODEL.MODEL_ID	CAR_MODEL.CAR_MODEL
10,n	MODEL.MODEL_NAME	CAR_MODEL.CAR_MODEL_DESC++++
11,e	PP1.DEALER	PP2.CAR_DEALER
12,f	PP1.DEALER.DEALER_ID	CAR_DEALER.DEALER_KEY
13,g	DEALER_NAME	DEALER_NM
15,o	PP1.MONTHLY_SALES	CAR_SALES
16,p	MONTHLY_SALES.YEAR_MONTH	CAR_SALES.FIN_YEAR_MONTH
17,s	PP1.MONTHLY_SALES.MAKE_ID	CAR_SALES.CAR_MAKE
18,r	PP1.MONTHLY_SALES.MODEL_ID	CAR_SALES.CAR_MODEL
19,q	PP1.MONTHLY_SALES.DEALER_ID	CAR_SALES.DEALER_KEY
20,w	SALES_QTY	SOLD_QTY
21,u	SALES_AMT	SALES_AMOUNT
22,v	MONTHLY_ADS_COST	MONTH_AD
213		

Matching Results between T01A and T01B using the Relational model:  
Columns:

AUTO_DEALER.DEALER_ID	DEALER.DEALER_ID 0.0194
AUTO_MAKE.MAKE_ID	MMSC.MAKE_ID 0.0181
AUTO_MAKE.MAKE_NAME	MMSC.MAKE_NAME 0.0612
AUTO_MODEL.MODEL_ID	MMSC.MODEL_ID 0.0181
AUTO_MODEL.MODEL_NAME	MMSC.MODEL_NAME 0.0612
DATE.CALENDAR_YEAR	DATE.CALENDAR_YEAR 0.0665
DATE.FISCAL_YEAR	DATE.FISCAL_YEAR 0.0629
DATE.MONTH_NAME	DATE.MONTH_NAME 0.0619
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT 0.0598
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT 0.0598
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY 0.0593

Tables:

AUTO_DEALER	DEALER	0.0857
AUTO_MODEL	MMSC	0.0578
DATE	DATE	0.1527
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES	0.2451

Matching Results between T01A and T01B using the Star model:  
Columns:

AUTO_DEALER.DEALER_ID	DEALER.DEALER_ID	0.0302
AUTO_MAKE.MAKE_ID	MMSC.MAKE_ID	0.0263
AUTO_MAKE.MAKE_NAME	MMSC.MAKE_NAME	0.0618

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

AUTO_MODEL.MODEL_ID	MMSC.MODEL_ID	0.0263
AUTO_MODEL.MODEL_NAME	MMSC.MODEL_NAME	0.0618
DATE.CALENDAR_YEAR	DATE.CALENDAR_YEAR	0.0698
DATE.FISCAL_YEAR	DATE.FISCAL_YEAR	0.0665
DATE.MONTH_NAME	DATE.MONTH_NAME	0.0658
DATE.MONTH_YEAR	DATE.MONTH_YEAR	0.0297
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT		
	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT	0.0590
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.DEALER_ID	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.DEALER_ID	0.0217
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MAKE_ID	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MAKE_ID	0.0227
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MODEL_ID	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MODEL_ID	0.0227
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MONTH_YEAR	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MONTH_YEAR	0.0176
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT		
	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT	0.0590
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY		
	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY	0.0645

Tables:

AUTO_DEALER	DEALER	0.2075
AUTO_MODEL	MMSC	0.2095
DATE	DATE	0.3413
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES	MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES	1

COMA Results

```

-----
AUTO_MAKE_TABLE.AUTO_MAKE.MAKE_NAME <-> MMSC_TABLE.MMSC.MAKE_NAME: 0.83674204
AUTO_MAKE_TABLE.AUTO_MAKE <-> MMSC_TABLE.MMSC: 0.47530934
AUTO_MODEL_TABLE.AUTO_MODEL.MODEL_NAME <->
    MMSC_TABLE.MMSC.MODEL_NAME: 0.83394575
AUTO_MODEL_TABLE <-> MMSC_TABLE: 0.6048572
DATE_TABLE.DATE.MONTH_YEAR <-> DATE_TABLE.DATE.MONTH_YEAR: 0.9361829
DATE_TABLE.DATE.FISCAL_YEAR <-> DATE_TABLE.DATE.FISCAL_YEAR: 0.9925
DATE_TABLE.DATE.CALENDAR_YEAR <-> DATE_TABLE.DATE.CALENDAR_YEAR: 0.9925
DATE_TABLE.DATE.MONTH_NAME <-> DATE_TABLE.DATE.MONTH_NAME: 0.9925
DATE_TABLE.DATE <-> DATE_TABLE.DATE: 0.985
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.DEALER_ID <->
    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.DEALER_ID: 0.84580815
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MAKE_ID <->
    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MAKE_ID: 0.93859327
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MODEL_ID <->
    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MODEL_ID: 0.93845487
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MONTH_YEAR <->
    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MONTH_YEAR: 0.9361829
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT <->
    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT:
    0.90986574
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT <->
    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT:
    0.90986574
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY <->
    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY:
    0.8648658
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES <->
    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES_TABLE.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES: 0.8797314
AUTO_DEALER_TABLE.AUTO_DEALER.DEALER_ID <->

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

```

DEALER_TABLE.DEALER.DEALER_ID: 0.803889
AUTO_DEALER_TABLE.AUTO_DEALER.DEALER_INFORMATION <->
DEALER_TABLE.DEALER.DEALER_NAME: 0.6346453
AUTO_DEALER_TABLE.AUTO_DEALER <->
DEALER_TABLE.DEALER: 0.65350115

```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

```

-----
1,f      T01A.AUTO_DEALER          T01B.DEALER
2,g      AUTO_DEALER.DEALER_ID    DEALER.DEALER_ID
3,h      AUTO_DEALER.DEALER_INFORMATION DEALER.DEALER_NAME
3,i      AUTO_DEALER.DEALER_INFORMATION DEALER.DEALER_CITY
3,j      AUTO_DEALER.DEALER_INFORMATION DEALER.STATE
4,m      T01A.AUTO_MAKE          T01B.MMSC
5,n      AUTO_MAKE.MAKE_ID        MMSC.MAKE_ID
6,r      AUTO_MAKE.MAKE_NAME      MMSC.MAKE_NAME
7,m      T01A.AUTO_MODEL          T01B.MMSC
8,o      AUTO_MODEL.MODEL_ID      MMSC.MODEL_ID
9,s      AUTO_MODEL.MODEL_NAME    MMSC.MODEL_NAME
11,a     CREATE T01A.DATE         T01B.DATE
12,b     DATE.MONTH_YEAR         DATE.MONTH_YEAR
13,c     DATE.FISCAL_YEAR        DATE.FISCAL_YEAR
14,d     DATE.CALENDAR_YEAR      DATE.CALENDAR_YEAR
15,e     DATE.MONTH_NAME         DATE.MONTH_NAME
16,w     T01A.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES  T01B.MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES
17,bb    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MONTH_YEAR MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MONTH_YEAR
18,cc    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.DEALER_ID MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.DEALER_ID
19,x     MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MAKE_ID MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MAKE_ID
20,y     MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MODEL_ID MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.MODEL_ID
22,dd    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT DATE.AUTO_SALES_AMOUNT
23,gg    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_AMOUNT
24,ee    MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY
MONTHLY_AUTO_SALES.OBJECTIVE_SALES_QUANTITY

```

Matching Results between T07A and T09A using the Relational model:  
Columns:

```

-----
CUSTOMER.EDUCATION      ON_SALE.DESCRPTION      0.0101
PRODUCT.BRAND_NAME     ON_SALE.BRAND           0.0699
PRODUCT.SKU             ON_SALE.SKU_NUMBER      0.0677
PROMOTION.COST          PRODUCT_SALES.UNIT_COST  0.0685
STORE.STORE_TYPE        ON_SALE.PACKAGE_TYPE     0.0569

```

Tables:

```

-----
SALES                   PRODUCT_SALES           0.1753

```

Matching Results between T07A and T09A using the Star model:  
Columns:

```

-----
PRODUCT.BRAND_NAME     ON_SALE.BRAND           0.0507
PRODUCT.PRODUCT_ID     ON_SALE.PRODUCT_KEY     0.0401
PRODUCT.SKU            ON_SALE.SKU_NUMBER      0.0494
PROMOTION.MEDIA_TYPE   ON_SALE.PACKAGE_TYPE    0.0404
PROMOTION.PROMOTION_NAME ON_SALE.DESCRPTION      0.0080
SALES.PRODUCT_ID       PRODUCT_SALES.PRODUCT_KEY 0.0358

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Tables:

PRODUCT	ON_SALE	0.4005
SALES	PRODUCT_SALES	0.9202

COMA Results

```

SALES_TABLE.SALES.STORE_COST <->
    PRODUCT_SALES_TABLE.PRODUCT_SALES.UNIT_COST: 0.5818722
SALES_TABLE.SALES.PRODUCT_ID <->
    PRODUCT_SALES_TABLE.PRODUCT_SALES.PRODUCT_KEY: 0.55921656
SALES_TABLE <-> PRODUCT_SALES_TABLE: 0.61783636
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_ID <->
    PRODUCT_SALES_TABLE.PRODUCT_SALES.PRODUCT_KEY: 0.5640777
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.BRAND_NAME <->
    PRODUCT_ON_SALE_TABLE.PRODUCT_ON_SALE.BRAND: 0.6251667
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.SKU <->
    PRODUCT_ON_SALE_TABLE.PRODUCT_ON_SALE.SKU_NUMBER: 0.5951667
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.RECYCLABLE_PACKAGE <->
    PRODUCT_ON_SALE_TABLE.PRODUCT_ON_SALE.PACKAGE_TYPE: 0.57150924

```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

28,a	T07A.PRODUCT	T09A.ON_SALE
29,b	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_ID	ON_SALE.PRODUCT_KEY
31,e	PRODUCT.BRAND_NAME	ON_SALE.BRAND
32,d	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME	ON_SALE.DESCRPTION
33,c	PRODUCT.SKU	ON_SALE.SKU_NUMBER
89,h	T07A.SALES	T09A.PRODUCT_SALES

Matching Results between A01 and A02 using the Relational model:

Columns:

CALENDAR.CALENDAR_DAY	DATES.DAY	0.0365
CALENDAR.CALENDAR_MONTH	DATES.MONTH	0.0365
CALENDAR.CALENDAR_YEAR	DATES.YEAR	0.0387
CALENDAR.QUARTER_NUMBER	DATES.QUARTER	0.0382
CLAIM.CLAIM_NO	CLM_DEMAND.NO_CLAIMS	0.0387
CLAIM.DEMANDED_AMT	CLAIM_HIST.DEMANDED_DTE	0.0275
CLAIM.INSERT_TIMESTAMP	CLM_DEMAND.LOAD_TIMESTAMP	0.0424
CLAIM.RECEIVED_AMT	CLAIM_HIST.RECEIVED_DTE	0.0275
CLAIM.RECOVERED_AMT	CLAIM_HIST.RECOVERED_DTE	0.0275
CLAIM.SETTLEMENT_AMT	CLAIM_HIST.SETTLEMENT_DTE	0.0275
CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_CODE	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_CODE	0.0380
CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DATE_FROM	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.DATE_VALID_FROM	0.0377
CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DATE_TO	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.DATE_VALID_TO	0.0377
LOCATION.STATE_NAME	LOCALITY.STATE_NAME	0.0584
LOCATION.STATE_NO	LOCALITY.STATE_NBR	0.0282
PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME	PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_DESCRIPTORIVE_NAME	0.0462

Tables:

CALENDAR	DATES	0.0670
CLAIM	CLM_DEMAND	0.0960
CLAIM_STAT	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS	0.1125



## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

LOCATION	LOCALITY	0.0546
PRODUCT	PRODUCT_REFERENCE	0.1165

Matching Results between A01 and A02 using the Star model:  
Columns:

-----	-----	-----
CALENDAR.CALENDAR_DAY	DATES.DAY	0.0397
CALENDAR.CALENDAR_MONTH	DATES.MONTH	0.0397
CALENDAR.CALENDAR_YEAR	DATES.YEAR	0.0419
CALENDAR.QUARTER_NUMBER	DATES.QUARTER	0.0414
CLAIM.DEMANDED_AMT	CLAIM_HIST.DEMANDED_DTE	0.0278
CLAIM.INSERT_TIMESTAMP	CLM_DEMAND.LOAD_TIMESTAMP	0.0156
CLAIM.PRODUCT_KEY	CLM_DEMAND.PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY	0.0158
CLAIM.RECEIVED_AMT	CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_RECEIVED_AMOUNT	0.0348
CLAIM.RECOVERED_AMT	CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_RECOVERED_AMOUNT	0.0348
CLAIM.SETTLEMENT_AMT	CLAIM_HIST.SETTLEMENT_DTE	0.0278
CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_CODE	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_CODE	0.0440
CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DATE_FROM	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.DATE_VALID_FROM	0.0435
CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DATE_TO	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.DATE_VALID_TO	0.0435
CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DESCRIPTION	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_DESC	0.0295
CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_KEY	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY	0.0246
LOCATION.LOCATION_KEY	LOCALITY.LOCALITY_KEY	0.0214
LOCATION.STATE_NAME	LOCALITY.STATE_NAME	0.0656
LOCATION.STATE_NO	LOCALITY.STATE_NBR	0.0342
PRODUCT.PRODUCT_CAT	PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_SUBCLASS	0.0403
PRODUCT.PRODUCT_KEY	PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY	0.0302
PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME	PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_DESCRIPTIVE_NAME	0.0553

Tables:

-----	-----	-----
CALENDAR	DATES	0.2099
CLAIM	CLM_DEMAND	0.7669
CLAIM_STAT	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS	0.3055
LOCATION	LOCALITY	0.1574
PRODUCT	PRODUCT_REFERENCE	0.3123

COMA Results for matching A01 with A02

-----	-----
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_KEY <->	PRODUCT_REFERENCE_TABLE.PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY: 0.8030105
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_CAT <->	PRODUCT_REFERENCE_TABLE.PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_CLASS: 0.69785964
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_SUB_CAT <->	PRODUCT_REFERENCE_TABLE.PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_SUBCLASS: 0.7056376
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME <->	PRODUCT_REFERENCE_TABLE.PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_DESCRIPTIVE_NAME: 0.8152281
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT <->	PRODUCT_REFERENCE_TABLE.PRODUCT_REFERENCE: 0.75034904
DEMAND_TYPE_TABLE.DEMAND_TYPE.DEMAND_ID <->	CLM_DEMAND_TABLE.CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_SENT_DATE: 0.52169096

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

```

LOCATION_TABLE.LOCATION.LOCATION_KEY <->
    LOCALITY_TABLE.LOCALITY.LOCALITY_KEY: 0.71002436
LOCATION_TABLE.LOCATION.STATE_NO <->
    LOCALITY_TABLE.LOCALITY.STATE_NBR: 0.68908656
LOCATION_TABLE.LOCATION.STATE_NAME <->
    LOCALITY_TABLE.LOCALITY.STATE_NAME: 0.87971157
LOCATION_TABLE.LOCATION <-> LOCALITY_TABLE.LOCALITY: 0.6469231
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.CALENDAR_KEY <->
    DATES_TABLE.DATES.DATE_KEY: 0.52051216
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.CALENDAR_YEAR <->
    DATES_TABLE.DATES.YEAR: 0.69585377
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.CALENDAR_MONTH <->
    DATES_TABLE.DATES.MONTH: 0.643076
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.CALENDAR_DAY <->
    DATES_TABLE.DATES.DAY: 0.6523352
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.QUARTER_NUMBER <->
    DATES_TABLE.DATES.QUARTER: 0.68733126
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR <-> DATES_TABLE.DATES: 0.4375409
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM.PRODUCT_KEY <->
    CLM_DEMAND_TABLE.CLM_DEMAND.PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY: 0.7567142
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM.LOCATION_KEY <->
    CLM_DEMAND_TABLE.CLM_DEMAND.LOCALITY_KEY: 0.69613546
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM.CALENDAR_KEY <->
    DATES_TABLE.DATES.DATE_KEY: 0.52051216
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM.DEMAND_ID <->
    CLAIM_HIST_TABLE.CLAIM_HIST.DEMANDED_DTE: 0.50176376
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM.CLAIM_NO <->
    CLM_DEMAND_TABLE.CLM_DEMAND.NO_CLAIMS: 0.6763557
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM.DEMANDED_AMT <->
    CLM_DEMAND_TABLE.CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_SETTLED_AMOUNT: 0.5937898
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM.RECEIVED_AMT <->
    CLM_DEMAND_TABLE.CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_RECEIVED_AMOUNT: 0.6322553
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM.RECOVERED_AMT <->
    CLM_DEMAND_TABLE.CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_RECOVERED_AMOUNT: 0.63159084
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM.INSERT_TIMESTAMP <->
    CLM_DEMAND_TABLE.CLM_DEMAND.LOAD_TIMESTAMP: 0.5906589
CLAIM_TABLE.CLAIM <-> CLAIM_HIST_TABLE.CLAIM_HIST: 0.5492281
CLAIM_TABLE <-> CLM_DEMAND_TABLE: 0.6406745
CLAIM_STAT_TABLE.CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_KEY <->
    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_TABLE.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY:
    0.7132797
CLAIM_STAT_TABLE.CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_CODE <->
CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_TABLE.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_CODE: 0.7348547
CLAIM_STAT_TABLE.CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DESCRIPTION <->
    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_TABLE.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_DESC:
    0.62528205
CLAIM_STAT_TABLE.CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DATE_FROM <->
    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_TABLE.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.DATE_VALID_FROM: 0.7348547
CLAIM_STAT_TABLE.CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DATE_TO <->
    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_TABLE.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.DATE_VALID_TO: 0.7348547
CLAIM_STAT_TABLE.CLAIM_STAT <->
    CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_TABLE.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS: 0.72483766

```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

```

-----
4,l      A01.CLAIM_STAT          A02.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS
5,m      CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_KEY   CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY
6,n      CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_CODE  CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_CODE

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

7,o	CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DESCRIPTION	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_DESC
8,p	CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DATE_FROM	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.DATE_VALID_FROM
9,q	CLAIM_STAT.STATUS_DATE_TO	CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS.DATE_VALID_TO
10,g	A01.PRODUCT	A02.PRODUCT_REFERENCE
11,h	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_KEY	PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY
2,i	DEMAND_TYPEDEMAND_ID	PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_CLASS
13,j	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_CAT	PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_SUBCLASS
14,k	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME	PRODUCT_REFERENCE.PRODUCT_DESCRIPTIVE_NAME
15,r	A01.LOCATION	A02.LOCALITY
16,s	LOCATION.LOCATION_KEY	LOCALITY.LOCALITY_KEY
17,t	LOCATION.STATE_NO	LOCALITY.STATE_NBR
18,u	LOCATION.STATE_NAME	LOCALITY.STATE_NAME
19,w	A01.CALENDAR	A02.DATES
20,x	CALENDAR.CALENDAR_KEY	DATES.DATE_KEY
21,y	CALENDAR.CALENDAR_YEAR	DATES.YEAR
22,z	CALENDAR.CALENDAR_MONTH	DATES.MONTH
23,aa	CALENDAR.CALENDAR_DAY	DATES.DAY
24,bb	CALENDAR.WEEK_OF_MONTH	DATES.MONTH_COUNT
25,cc	CALENDAR.QUARTER_NUMBER	DATES.QUARTER
26,dd	A01.CLAIM	A02.CLM_DEMAND
27,ee	CLAIM.PRODUCT_KEY	CLM_DEMAND.PRODUCT_HIERARCHY_KEY
28,ff	CLAIM.LOCATION_KEY	CLM_DEMAND.LOCALITY_KEY
29,gg	CLAIM.CALENDAR_KEY	CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_SENT_DATE
30,hh	CLAIM.CLAIM_NO	CLM_DEMAND.CLAIM_NUM
32,jj	CLAIM.STATUS_KEY	CLM_DEMAND.CLAIM_ITEM_STATUS_KEY
33,kk	CLAIM.SETTLEMENT_AMT	CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_SETTLED_AMOUNT
35,ll	CLAIM.RECEIVED_AMT	CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_RECEIVED_AMOUNT
36,mm	CLAIM.RECOVERED_AMT	CLM_DEMAND.DEMAND_RECOVERED_AMOUNT
37,oo	CLAIM.INSERT_TIMESTAMP	CLM_DEMAND.LOAD_TIMESTAMP

Matching Results between T02A and T02B using the Relational model:  
Columns:

ORGANIZATION.REGION_NAME	REGION.REGION_DESC
TIME.DAY_OF_YEAR	PERIOD.YEAR
TIME.QUARTER_NUMBER	PERIOD.QUARTER
TIME.TIME_IDENTIFIER	PERIOD.PERIOD_ID

Tables:

ORGANIZATION	REGION
PRODUCT	PRODUCT
SALES	SALES_CURRENT
TIME	PERIOD

Matching Results between T02A and T02B using the Star model:  
Columns:

ORGANIZATION.REGION_NAME	REGION.REGION_DESC
PRODUCT.PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_ID
SALES.PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER	SALES_CURRENT.PRODUCT_ID
SALES.SALES_DOLLAR	SALES_CURRENT.DOLLARS
TIME.DAY_OF_YEAR	PERIOD.YEAR
TIME.QUARTER_NUMBER	PERIOD.QUARTER
TIME.TIME_IDENTIFIER	PERIOD.PERIOD_ID

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Tables:

ORGANIZATION	REGION
PRODUCT	PRODUCT
SALES	SALES_CURRENT
TIME	PERIOD

COMA Results

```

ORGANIZATION_TABLE.ORGANIZATION.REGION_NAME <->
DISTRICT_TABLE.DISTRICT.REGION: 0.608506
ORGANIZATION_TABLE <-> REGION_TABLE: 0.5459982
TIME_TABLE.TIME.DAY_OF_YEAR <-> PERIOD_TABLE.PERIOD.YEAR: 0.52207315
TIME_TABLE.TIME.QUARTER_NUMBER <-> PERIOD_TABLE.PERIOD.QUARTER: 0.62035346
TIME_TABLE <-> PERIOD_TABLE: 0.50840425
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER <->
    PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_ID: 0.65886056
PRODUCT_TABLE <-> PRODUCT_TABLE: 0.7549077
SALES_TABLE.SALES.PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER <->
SALES_CURRENT_TABLE.SALES_CURRENT.PRODUCT_ID: 0.61372167
SALES_TABLE.SALES.SALES_DOLLAR <->
    SALES_CURRENT_TABLE.SALES_CURRENT.DOLLARS: 0.5786033
SALES_TABLE <-> SALES_CURRENT_TABLE: 0.64747894

```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

1,a	T02A.Location	T02B.District
1,o	T02A.Location	T02B.Region
3,q	Location.Country_Name	Region.Region_Desc
5,c	Location.County_Name	Region.District_Desc
6,c	Location.City_Name	Region.District_Desc
15,j	T02A.Product	T02B.Product
16,k	Product.Product_Identifier	Product.Product_Id
21,r	T02A.Sales	T02B.Sales_Current
22,s	Sales.Time_Identifier	Sales_Current.Period_Id
24,t	Sales.Product_Identifier	Sales_Current.Product_Id
25,u	Sales.Location_Identifier	Sales_Current.District_Id
26,x	Sales.Sales_Dollar	Sales_Current.Dollars
28,f	Sales.Time_Identifier	Sales_Current.Period_Id

Matching Results between T10 and T11 using the Relational model:  
Columns:

CALENDAR.CALENDAR_WEEK	DATE.WEEK_NUMBER	0.0316
CALENDAR.CALENDAR_YEAR	DATE.YEAR_NUMBER	0.0335
CALENDAR.DAY	DATE.DAY_DATE	0.0482
CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	0.0666
ITEM.PRODUCT_DESC	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_DESC	0.0626

Tables:

CALENDAR	DATE	0.1140
CUSTOMER	CUSTOMER	0.2033
ITEM	PRODUCT	0.0424
SALES	PRODUCT_SALES	0.1481

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Matching Results between T10 and T11 using the Star model:  
Columns:

-----	-----	-----
CALENDAR.CALENDAR_WEEK	DATE.WEEK_NUMBER	0.0322
CALENDAR.CALENDAR_YEAR	DATE.YEAR_NUMBER	0.0339
CALENDAR.DAY	DATE.DAY_DATE	0.0477
CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	0.0672
CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_KEY	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0270
ITEM.PRODUCT_DESC	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_DESC	0.0612
ITEM.PRODUCT_KEY	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_KEY	0.0219
SALES.PRODUCT_KEY	PRODUCT_SALES.PRODUCT_KEY	0.0247

Tables:

-----	-----	-----
CALENDAR	DATE	0.3269
CUSTOMER	CUSTOMER	0.4820
ITEM	PRODUCT	0.1461
MARKET	GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION	0.1040
SALES	PRODUCT_SALES	0.8023

COMA Results

```

=====
MARKET_TABLE.MARKET.REGION_NAME <->
    GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION_TABLE.GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION.SALES_LOCATION_NAME:
    0.506793
ITEM_TABLE.ITEM.PRODUCT_KEY <-> PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_KEY: 0.8731693
ITEM_TABLE.ITEM.PRODUCT_DESC <-> PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_DESC: 0.8715706
ITEM_TABLE <-> PRODUCT_TABLE: 0.7431412
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_KEY <->
    CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.689523
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_NAME <->
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_FNAME: 0.81839025
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_NAME <->
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_LNAME: 0.81839025
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS <->
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS: 0.9161467
CUSTOMER_TABLE <-> CUSTOMER_TABLE: 0.8322934
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.DAY <-> DATE_TABLE.DATE.DAY_DATE: 0.6186527
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.CALENDAR_WEEK <->
    DATE_TABLE.DATE.WEEK_NUMBER: 0.5677635
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.CALENDAR_MONTH <->
    DATE_TABLE.DATE.MONTH_NUMBER: 0.5677635
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.CALENDAR_YEAR <->
    DATE_TABLE.DATE.YEAR_NUMBER: 0.5948496
CALENDAR_TABLE <-> DATE_TABLE: 0.5854795
SALES_TABLE.SALES.PRODUCT_KEY <->
PRODUCT_SALES_TABLE.PRODUCT_SALES.PRODUCT_KEY: 0.85580826
SALES_TABLE.SALES.CUSTOMER_KEY <->
    PRODUCT_SALES_TABLE.PRODUCT_SALES.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.6345357
SALES_TABLE.SALES.UNIT_SALES <->
    PRODUCT_SALES_TABLE.PRODUCT_SALES.SALES_AMOUNT: 0.62851804
SALES_TABLE.SALES.UNIT_SALES <->
    PRODUCT_SALES_TABLE.PRODUCT_SALES.SALES_COST: 0.63407356
SALES_TABLE <-> PRODUCT_SALES_TABLE: 0.712036

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

1,k	T10.CUSTOMER	T11.CUSTOMER
3,m	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_NAME	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_FNAME
3,n	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_NAME	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_LNAME
4,o	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS
8,a	T10.MARKET	T11.GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION
9,b	MARKET.STORE_KEY	GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION.SALES_LOCATION_ID
10,c	MARKET.STORE_NAME	GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION.SALES_LOCATION_NAME
14,g	T10.ITEM	T11.PRODUCT
15,h	ITEM.PRODUCT_KEY	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_CODE
16,i	ITEM.PRODUCT_DESC	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME
27,s	T10.CALENDAR	T11.DATE
28,t	CALENDAR.DATE_KEY	DATE.DAY_NUMBER
32,v	CALENDAR.CALENDAR_WEEK	DATE.WEEK_NUMBER
33,w	CALENDAR.CALENDAR_MONTH	DATE.MONTH_NUMBER
35,x	CALENDAR.CALENDAR_YEAR	DATE.YEAR_NUMBER
40,y	T10.SALES	T11.PRODUCT_SALES
41,bb	SALES.CUSTOMER_KEY	PRODUCT_SALES.CUSTOMER_ID
43,aa	SALES.PRODUCT_KEY	PRODUCT_SALES.PRODUCT_ID
46,dd	SALES.DOLLAR_SALES	PRODUCT_SALES.SALES_AMOUNT
47,ee	SALES.UNIT_SALES	PRODUCT_SALES.SALES_VOLUME
48,ff	SALES.RETAIL_SALES_PRICE	PRODUCT_SALES.SALES_COST

Matching Results between T05A and T05B using the Relational model:  
Columns:

CLAIMANT.ADDRESS	CLIENT.CLIENT_ADDRESS	0.0252
CLAIMANT.NAME	CLIENT.CLIENT_NAME	0.0251
CLAIMANT.STATE	CLIENT.CLIENT_STATE	0.0242
CLAIMS.CLAIM_DOLLARS	CLAIM_FINANCIAL.CLAIM_NO	0.0344
CLAIM_DESC.PROC_CODE	CLAIM_NATURE.NATURE_CODE	0.0195
CLAIM_TYPE.TYPE_DESC		
POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE.POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_DESC		0.0487
PERIOD.YEAR	DATES.CALENDAR_YEAR	0.0490
POLICY HOLDER.NAME	POLICY_HADER.COMPANY_NAME	0.0247
POLICY_SALES.PREMIUM_DOLLARS	CLAIM_FINANCIAL.BASIC_PREMIUM_AMT	0.0340

Tables:

CLAIMANT	CLIENT	0.0328
CLAIMS	CLAIM_FINANCIAL	0.0601
PERIOD	DATES	0.0663
POLICY	POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE	0.0818

Matching Results between T05A and T05B using the Star model:  
Columns:

CLAIMANT.ADDRESS	CLIENT.CLIENT_ADDRESS	0.0238
CLAIMANT.CLAIMANT_KEY	CLIENT.CLIENT_KEY	0.0148
CLAIMANT.NAME	CLIENT.CLIENT_NAME	0.0238
CLAIMANT.STATE	CLIENT.CLIENT_STATE	0.0230
CLAIM_DESC.PROC_CODE	CLAIM_NATURE.NATURE_CODE	0.0145
CLAIM_TYPE.TYPE_DESC		
POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE.POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_DESC		0.0510
PERIOD.PER_KEY	DATES.DATE_KEY	0.0228
PERIOD.YEAR	DATES.CALENDAR_YEAR	0.0463

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

POLICY.POLICY_TYPE		
POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE.POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_CODE		0.0475
POLICY HOLDER.NAME	POLICY HADER.COMPANY_NAME	0.0242
POLICY_SALES.PREMIUM_DOLLARS	CLAIM_FINANCIAL.BASIC_PREMIUM_AMT	0.0368

Tables:

CLAIMANT	CLIENT	0.0852
CLAIMS	CLAIM_FINANCIAL	0.3778
CLAIM_DESC	CLAIM_NATURE	0.0800
PERIOD	DATES	0.1660
POLICY	POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE	0.1694

COMA Results

```

CLAIMS_TABLE.CLAIMS.CLAIM_DOLLARS <->
    CLAIM_FINANCIAL_TABLE.CLAIM_FINANCIAL.CLAIM_NO: 0.5309347
CLAIMS_TABLE.CLAIMS.POLICY HOLDER_KEY <->
    CLAIM_FINANCIAL_TABLE.CLAIM_FINANCIAL.POLICY_NO: 0.57706654
CLAIMS_TABLE.CLAIMS.CLAIMANT_KEY <->
    CLAIM_FINANCIAL_TABLE.CLAIM_FINANCIAL.CLIENT_KEY: 0.685828
CLAIMS_TABLE <-> CLAIM_FINANCIAL_TABLE: 0.6070546
POLICY HOLDER_TABLE.POLICY HOLDER.NAME <->
    POLICY_HADER_TABLE.POLICY_HADER.COMPANY_NAME: 0.68988
POLICY HOLDER_TABLE <-> POLICY_HADER_TABLE: 0.7160417
CLAIM_TYPE_TABLE.CLAIM_TYPE.TYPE_KEY <->
    CLAIM_NATURE_TABLE.CLAIM_NATURE.NATURE_KEY: 0.62102175
CLAIM_TYPE_TABLE.CLAIM_TYPE <-> CLAIM_NATURE_TABLE.CLAIM_NATURE: 0.62718093
CLAIM_TYPE_TABLE <-> CLAIM_NATURE_TABLE: 0.6910546
CLAIMANT_TABLE.CLAIMANT.CLAIMANT_KEY <->
    CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CLIENT_KEY: 0.6904576
CLAIMANT_TABLE.CLAIMANT.NAME <-> CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CLIENT_NAME: 0.6900491
CLAIMANT_TABLE.CLAIMANT.ADDRESS <->
    CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CLIENT_ADDRESS: 0.6900491
CLAIMANT_TABLE.CLAIMANT.STATE <-> CLIENT_TABLE.CLIENT.CLIENT_STATE: 0.6900491
CLAIMANT_TABLE <-> CLIENT_TABLE: 0.72654325
CLAIM_DESC_TABLE.CLAIM_DESC.TYPE_KEY <->
    CLAIM_NATURE_TABLE.CLAIM_NATURE.NATURE_KEY: 0.61595464
CLAIM_DESC_TABLE.CLAIM_DESC.CLAIMANT_KEY <->
    CLAIM_FINANCIAL_TABLE.CLAIM_FINANCIAL.CLIENT_KEY: 0.69045764
CLAIM_DESC_TABLE.CLAIM_DESC.PROC_CODE <->
    CLAIM_NATURE_TABLE.CLAIM_NATURE.NATURE_CODE: 0.6044005
PERIOD_TABLE.PERIOD.PER_KEY <-> DATES_TABLE.DATES.DATE_KEY: 0.50935185
PERIOD_TABLE.PERIOD.MONTH <-> DATES_TABLE.DATES.CALENDAR_MONTH: 0.6390741
PERIOD_TABLE.PERIOD.MONTH <-> DATES_TABLE.DATES.FINANCIAL_MONTH: 0.6390741
PERIOD_TABLE.PERIOD.YEAR <-> DATES_TABLE.DATES.CALENDAR_YEAR: 0.6814352
PERIOD_TABLE <-> DATES_TABLE: 0.61703706
POLICY_TABLE.POLICY.POLICY_KEY <->
    POLICY_HADER_TABLE.POLICY_HADER.POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_KEY: 0.6866576
POLICY_TABLE.POLICY.POLICY_TYPE <->
    POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_TABLE.POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE.
    POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_CODE: 0.72884274
POLICY_TABLE <-> POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_TABLE: 0.70771325
POLICY_SALES_TABLE.POLICY_SALES.PREMIUM_DOLLARS <->
    CLAIM_FINANCIAL_TABLE.CLAIM_FINANCIAL.BASIC_PREMIUM_AMT: 0.44146645

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

```
-----
1,a      T05A.CLAIM_TYPE          CREATE T05B.CLAIM_NATURE
2,b      CLAIM_TYPE.TYPE_KEY     CLAIM_NATURE.NATURE_KEY
3,c      CLAIM_TYPE.TYPE_DESC    CLAIM_NATURE.NATURE_DESCRIPTION
4,s      T05A.CLAIMANT           T05B.CLIENT
5,t      CLAIMANT.CLAIMANT_KEY    CLIENT.CLIENT_KEY
6,u      CLAIMANT.NAME           CLIENT.CLIENT_NAME
7,v      CLAIMANT.ADDRESS        CLIENT.CLIENT_ADDRESS
9,w      CLAIMANT.STATE          CLIENT.CLIENT_STATE
10,i     T05A.PERIOD             T05B.DATES
11,j     PERIOD.PER_KEY          DATES.DATE_KEY
12,l     PERIOD.MONTH            DATES.CALENDAR_MONTH
13,k     PERIOD.YEAR             DATES.CALENDAR_YEAR
17,g     POLICY.POLICY_TYPE      POLICY.AGREEMENT_TYPE.POLICY_AGREEMENT_TYPE_CODE
20,s     T05A.POLICY HOLDER      T05B.CLIENT
21,t     POLICY HOLDER.POLICY HOLDER_KEY CLIENT.CLIENT_KEY
22,u     POLICY HOLDER.NAME      CLIENT.CLIENT_NAME
23,v     POLICY HOLDER.ADDRESS    CLIENT.CLIENT_ADDRESS
25,w     POLICY HOLDER.STATE      CLIENT.CLIENT_STATE
30,cc    CLAIM_DESC.TYPE_KEY     CLAIM_FINANCIAL.NATURE_KEY
43,ff    CLAIMS.CLAIMANT_KEY     CLAIM_FINANCIAL.CLIENT_KEY
48,aa    T05A.POLICY SALES.POLICY_KEY CLAIM_FINANCIAL.POLICY_NO
-----
```

Matching Results between T06B and T04 using the Relational model:

Columns:

```
-----
CALENDAR.DAY_OF_YEAR      TIME.DAY_OF_WEEK          0.0614
ORG_DETAIL.REGION_NAME    STORE.REGION              0.0617
STATE_LOOKUP.STATE_NAME   STORE.STORE_NAME          0.0552
-----
```

Tables:

```
-----
CALENDAR TIME 0.1000
MONTH_LOOKUP TIME.MONTH 0.0599
ORG_DETAIL STORE 0.0999
PROD_LINE_CATEGORY_LOOKUP SALES_BY_CATEGORY 0.0455
-----
```

Matching Results between T06B and T04 using the Star model:

Columns:

```
-----
CALENDAR.DAY_OF_YEAR      TIME.DAY_OF_WEEK          0.0467
ORG_DETAIL.REGION_NAME    STORE.REGION              0.0465
STATE_LOOKUP.STATE_CODE    STORE.STORE_KEY           0.0152
STATE_LOOKUP.STATE_NAME    STORE.STORE_NAME          0.0412
TRANSACTION.PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER SALES_BY_CATEGORY.PRODUCT_KEY 0.0260
TRANSACTION.TIME_IDENTIFIER SALES_BY_CATEGORY.TIME_KEY   0.0286
-----
```

Tables:

```
-----
CALENDAR                  TIME                      0.2056
ORG_DETAIL                STORE                    0.1930
PROD_LINE_CATEGORY_LOOKUP CATEGORY                  0.0938
TRANSACTION              SALES_BY_CATEGORY       0.7051
-----
```



## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

### COMA Results

```

-----
STATE_LOOKUP_TABLE.STATE_LOOKUP.STATE_NAME <->
    STORE_TABLE.STORE.STORE_NAME: 0.62557685
STATE_LOOKUP_TABLE <-> STORE_TABLE: 0.5135469
ORG_DETAIL_TABLE.ORG_DETAIL.REGION_NAME <->
    STORE_TABLE.STORE.REGION: 0.59808177
MONTH_LOOKUP_TABLE.MONTH_LOOKUP.MONTH_NUMBER <->
TIME_TABLE.TIME.MONTH: 0.5025678
CALENDAR_TABLE.CALENDAR.DAY_OF_YEAR <->
    TIME_TABLE.TIME.DAY_OF_WEEK: 0.49160638
CALENDAR_TABLE <-> TIME_TABLE: 0.44984058
PROD_LINE_CATEGORY_LOOKUP_TABLE.
PROD_LINE_CATEGORY_LOOKUP.PRODUCT_CATEGORY_CODE <->
    CATEGORY_TABLE.CATEGORY.CATEGORY: 0.55901647
PROD_LINE_CATEGORY_LOOKUP_TABLE <-> CATEGORY_TABLE: 0.5512149
TRANSACTION_TABLE.TRANSACTION.TIME_IDENTIFIER <->
    TIME_TABLE.TIME.TIME_KEY: 0.42954636

```

Expected results agreed by at least 2 participants

```

-----
26,t    T06B.CALENDAR                T04.TIME
27,u    CALENDAR.TIME_IDENTIFIER    TIME.TIME_KEY
28,w    CALENDAR.MONTH_NUMBER       TIME.MONTH
35,a    PROD_LINE_CATEGORY_LOOKUP   T04.CATEGORY
36,c    PROD_LINE_CATEGORY_LOOKUP.PRODUCT_CATEGORY_CODE
                                           CATEGORY.CATEGORY
40,b    PROD_LINE.PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER CATEGORY.PRODUCT_KEY
46,e    T06B.TRANSACTION            T04.SALES_BY_CATEGORY
50,h    TRANSACTION.PRODUCT_IDENTIFIER SALES_BY_CATEGORY.PRODUCT_KEY
51,i    TRANSACTION.SALES_DOLLAR     SALES_BY_CATEGORY.DOLLARS_SOLD
223

```

Matching Results between T07B and T11 using the Relational model:

Columns:

```

-----
CUSTOMER.ADDRESS1          CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS      0.0388
CUSTOMER.BIRTHDATE        CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_BIRTHDATE    0.0401
CUSTOMER.CITY              GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION.SALES_LOCATION_CITY
                                           0.0286
CUSTOMER.FNAME             CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_FNAME        0.0379
CUSTOMER.LNAME             CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_LNAME        0.0382
CUSTOMER.TOTAL_CHILDREN    CUSTOMER.NUMBER_OF_CHILDREN    0.0233
PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME       PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME           0.0580
STORE.STORE_NUMBER         DATE.WEEK_NUMBER               0.0283
TIME_BY_DAY.THE_MONTH      DATE.MONTH_NUMBER              0.0289
TIME_BY_DAY.THE_YEAR       DATE.YEAR_NUMBER               0.0289

```

Tables:

```

-----
CUSTOMER                   CUSTOMER                        0.1449
PRODUCT PRODUCT            0.1258
SALES   PRODUCT_SALES      0.1284
TIME_BY_DAY                DATE    0.0912

```

## APPENDIX C. SCHEMA MATCH RESULTS

Matching Results between T07B and T11 using the Star model:  
Columns:

CUSTOMER.ADDRESS1	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS	0.0392
CUSTOMER.BIRTHDATE	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_BIRTHDATE	0.0405
CUSTOMER.CITY	GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION.SALES_LOCATION_CITY	0.0285
CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0275
CUSTOMER.FNAME	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_FNAME	0.0382
CUSTOMER.LNAME	CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_LNAME	0.0386
CUSTOMER.TOTAL_CHILDREN	CUSTOMER.NUMBER_OF_CHILDREN	0.0241
PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME	PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME	0.0608
SALES.CUSTOMER_ID	PRODUCT_SALES.CUSTOMER_ID	0.0243
SALES.STORE_COST	PRODUCT_SALES.SALES_COST	0.0404
STORE.STORE_NUMBER	DATE.WEEK_NUMBER	0.0284
TIME_BY_DAY.THE_DATE	DATE.DAY_DATE	0.0368
TIME_BY_DAY.THE_MONTH	DATE.MONTH_NUMBER	0.0302
TIME_BY_DAY.THE_YEAR	DATE.YEAR_NUMBER	0.0302

Tables:

CUSTOMER	CUSTOMER	0.3568
PRODUCT	PRODUCT	0.2899
SALES	PRODUCT_SALES	0.7625
STORE	GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION	0.1503
TIME_BY_DAY	DATE	0.2689

COMA Results

```

PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_ID <->
    PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_CODE: 0.66858333
PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME <->
    PRODUCT_TABLE.PRODUCT.PRODUCT_NAME: 0.8943154
PRODUCT_TABLE <-> PRODUCT_TABLE: 0.78863084
STORE_TABLE.STORE.STORE_CITY <->
    GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION_TABLE.GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION.SALES_LOCATION_CITY:
    0.477647
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID <->
    CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ID: 0.91481817
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.LNAME <->
    CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_LNAME: 0.73678505
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.FNAME <->
    CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_FNAME: 0.73678505
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.ADDRESS1 <->
    CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_ADDRESS: 0.73678505
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CITY <->
    GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION_TABLE.GEOGRAPHIC_LOCATION.SALES_LOCATION_CITY:
    0.47915852
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.BIRTHDATE <->
    CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.CUSTOMER_BIRTHDATE: 0.73678505
CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.TOTAL_CHILDREN <->
    CUSTOMER_TABLE.CUSTOMER.NUMBER_OF_CHILDREN: 0.6125258
CUSTOMER_TABLE <-> CUSTOMER_TABLE: 0.812459
TIME_BY_DAY_TABLE.TIME_BY_DAY.THE_DATE <->
    DATE_TABLE.DATE.DAY_DATE: 0.6427102
TIME_BY_DAY_TABLE.TIME_BY_DAY.THE_YEAR <->
    DATE_TABLE.DATE.YEAR_NUMBER: 0.54808575
TIME_BY_DAY_TABLE.TIME_BY_DAY.WEEK_OF_YEAR <->

```

## **Appendix D**

# **StarMod Specification in OWL**

## APPENDIX D. STARMOD SPECIFICATION

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="ISO-8859-1"?>
<!DOCTYPE rdf:RDF [
  <!ENTITY rdf "http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#">
  <!ENTITY rdfs "http://www.w3.org/2000/01/rdf-schema#">
  <!ENTITY owl "http://www.w3.org/2002/07/owl#">
  <!ENTITY dbs "Relational.owl#">
  <!ENTITY xsd "http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema#">
]>
<rdf:RDF xmlns:dc="http://purl.org/dc/elements/1.1/"
  xmlns:owl="http://www.w3.org/2002/07/owl#"
  xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"
  xmlns:rdfs="http://www.w3.org/2000/01/rdf-schema#">
  <owl:Ontology rdf:about="http://www.w3.org/2000/01/star-schema#"
    dc:title="The STAR Schema vocabulary (STAR)">
    <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">An Ontology to describe the schema
      information of Star schemas.</rdfs:comment>
  </owl:Ontology>

  <owl:Class rdf:ID="Star">
    <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="&rdf;Bag"/>
    <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Star Schema</rdfs:label>
    <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A star is an unordered set of things (i.e.
      dimensions and facts).</rdfs:comment>
  </owl:Class>

  <owl:ObjectProperty rdf:ID="hasDimension">
    <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Has Dimension</rdfs:label>
    <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Star schema can have zero or more dimension
      tables.</rdfs:comment>
    <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="&dbs;has"/>
    <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Star"/>
    <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#DimensionTable"/>
  </owl:ObjectProperty>

  <owl:Class rdf:ID="DimensionTable">
    <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="&dbs;Table"/>
    <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Dimension Table</rdfs:label>
    <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A dimension table is an ordered list (of
      attributes) and a subtype of the relational
      table.</rdfs:comment>
  </owl:Class>

  <owl:ObjectProperty rdf:ID="hasAttribute">
    <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Has Attribute</rdfs:label>
    <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Dimension tables have one or more dimension
      attributes.</rdfs:comment>
    <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="&dbs;has"/>
    <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#DimensionTable"/>
    <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#Attribute"/>
  </owl:ObjectProperty>

  <owl:Class rdf:ID="Attribute">
    <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="&dbs;Column"/>
    <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Dimension Attribute</rdfs:label>
    <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Attribute is a subtype of a
      column.</rdfs:comment>
  </owl:Class>

  <owl:Class rdf:ID="SurrogateKeyAttribute">
    <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#Attribute"/>
    <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">SurrogateKeyAttribute</rdfs:label>
    <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Surrogate key attribute is a subtype of
      attribute and is generated sequential number. It uniquely
      identifies a row in the dimension table</rdfs:comment>
  </owl:Class>
```

## APPENDIX D. STARMOD SPECIFICATION

```
<owl:Class rdf:ID="DataAttribute">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#Attribute"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Data Attribute</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A data attribute is a subtype of attribute
    used for aggregation of measures</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="DegenerateFact">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#Attribute"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Degenerate Fact</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A degenerate fact is a subtype of attribute.
    Although part of the dimension table can be aggregated. Use of
    degenerate facts are not recommended.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="#hasAttribute">
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en"></rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Keys have attributes.</rdfs:comment>
  <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="#&db;has"/>
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#&db;Key"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#Attribute"/>
</owl:ObjectProperty>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="DimUniqueKey">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#&db;Key"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Dimension Unique Key</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Dimension Unique Key (other than primary key)
    is a subtype of the key defined in Relational.owl</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="DimRegularKey">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#&db;Key"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Dimension Regular Key</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A regular key is a subtype of key that is not
    unique.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="PrimaryKey">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#&db;Key"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Primary Key</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A primary key is a subtype of
    key.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="#refersTo">
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Refers to</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">This links a fact table to a dimension table
    through the surrogate key in the dimension and the same column as
    the foreign key in the fcat table.</rdfs:comment>
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#SurrogateKeyReference"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#SurrogateKeyAttribute"/>
</owl:ObjectProperty>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="#refersTo">
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Refers to</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">This link joins dimensions creating
    snowflaked dimensions through the surrogate key.</rdfs:comment>
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#SurrogateKeyAttribute"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#SurrogateKeyAttribute"/>
</owl:ObjectProperty>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="#refersTo">
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Refers to</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">This relation represents snowflaked
```

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```
        dimensions which are linked through natural keys.</rdfs:comment>
        <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#DataAttribute"/>
        <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#DataAttribute"/>
    </owl:ObjectProperty>

    <owl:ObjectProperty rdf:ID="dimUniquelyIdentifiedBy">
        <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">DimensionUniquely Identified by a primary
            key</rdfs:label>
        <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A primary key uniquely identifies a row in
            the dimension table.</rdfs:comment>
        <rdfs:type rdf:resource="#owl:FunctionalProperty"/>
        <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#DimensionTable"/>
        <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#PrimaryKey"/>
    </owl:ObjectProperty>

    <owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="#dimUniquelyIdentifiedBy">
        <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Dimension Uniquely Identified By</rdfs:label>
        <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A unique key uniquely identifies a row in the
            dimension table. </rdfs:comment>
        <rdfs:type rdf:resource="#owl:FunctionalProperty"/>
        <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#DimensionTable"/>
        <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#DimUniqueKey"/>
    </owl:ObjectProperty>

    <owl:ObjectProperty rdf:ID="dimIdentifiedBy">
        <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Dimension Identified By a non unique
            key</rdfs:label>
        <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A regular key identifies instances from a
            dimension table</rdfs:comment>
        <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#DimensionTable"/>
        <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#RegularKey"/>
    </owl:ObjectProperty>

    <owl:Class rdf:ID="FactTable">
        <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#dbs;Table"/>
        <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Fact Table</rdfs:label>
        <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A fact table is an ordered list of things
            (i.e. columns) and is a subtype of the table.</rdfs:comment>
    </owl:Class>

    <owl:ObjectProperty rdf:ID="hasFact">
        <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Has Fact</rdfs:label>
        <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A star schema must have at least one fact
            table.</rdfs:comment>
        <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="#dbs;has"/>
        <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Star"/>
        <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#FactTable"/>
    </owl:ObjectProperty>

    <owl:ObjectProperty rdf:ID="hasElement">
        <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Has Element</rdfs:label>
        <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Fact tables have one or more
            elements</rdfs:comment>
        <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="#dbs;has"/>
        <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#FactTable"/>
        <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#Element"/>
    </owl:ObjectProperty>

    <owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="#hasElement">
        <rdfs:label xml:lang="en"></rdfs:label>
        <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Fact key containing elements.</rdfs:comment>
        <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="#dbs;has"/>
        <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#dbs;Key"/>
        <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#Element"/>
    </owl:ObjectProperty>
```

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```
</owl:ObjectProperty>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="Measure">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#Element"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Measure</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Measures are kinds of elements. Measures can
    be aggregated.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="DegenerateDimension">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#Element"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Degenerate dimension</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Degenerate dimension is a subtype of element
    but is more of a dimension attribute than fact
    element.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="SurrogateKeyReference">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#Element"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Surrogate key Reference</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Surrogate Key reference is a subtype of
    element. It refers to teh surrogate key in a dimension
    table.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="SurrogateKeyElement">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#Element"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Surrogate key Element</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Surrogate key element is a subtype of
    element. It plays the same role as the surrogate key attribute
    except that it is not referred to.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="FactUniqueKey">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#&db;Key"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Unique Fact Key</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A Unique key for fact tables is subtype of
    key uniquely identifying a row in the fact table.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="FactRegularKey">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="#&db;Key"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Regular Fact key</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A regular key for fact tables is subtype of
    key. This is not a unique key.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="factIdentifiedBy">
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Fact Identified by a non unique
    key</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A fact regular key identifies instances from
    fact table.</rdfs:comment>
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#FactTable"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#FactRegularKey"/>
</owl:ObjectProperty>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="factUniquelyIdentifiedBy">
  <rdfs:type rdf:resource="#owl:FunctionalProperty"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Fact Uniquely Identified By</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Fact rows are uniquely identified using fact
    unique key.</rdfs:comment>
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#FactTable"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#FactUniqueKey"/>
</owl:ObjectProperty>
```

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```
<owl:Class rdf:ID="Hierarchy">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="&rdf;Seq"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Dimension hierarchy</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Dimension hierarchies describe the roll-up
    relations.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:Class rdf:ID="Level">
  <rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="&rdf;Seq"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Level</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">Aggregation of fact measures are done
    alongside the hierarchy levels.</rdfs:comment>
</owl:Class>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="hasLevel">
  <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="&dbs;has"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Has Level</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A hierarchy has one or more
    levels.</rdfs:comment>
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Hierarchy"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#Level"/>
</owl:ObjectProperty>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="hasDataAttribute">
  <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="&dbs;has"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Has Data Attribute</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A level may have one data
    attributes.</rdfs:comment>
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Level"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#DataAttribute"/>
</owl:ObjectProperty>

<owl:ObjectProperty rdf:about="rollsUpTo">
  <rdf:type rdf:resource="&owl;FunctionalProperty"/>
  <rdfs:label xml:lang="en">Rolls up to</rdfs:label>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">A level rolls up to other parent
    levels.</rdfs:comment>
  <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="#Hierarchy"/>
  <rdfs:range rdf:resource="#Level"/>
</owl:ObjectProperty>

<owl:Restriction>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">All of the following relationships have a
    mandatory one to one relationship.</rdfs:comment>
  <owl:onProperty rdf:resource="#hasFact"/>
  <owl:onProperty rdf:resource="#hasPrimaryKey"/>
  <owl:minCardinality
    rdf:datatype="&xsd;nonNegativeInteger">1</owl:minCardinality>
  <owl:maxCardinality
    rdf:datatype="&xsd;nonNegativeInteger">1</owl:maxCardinality>
</owl:Restriction>

<owl:Restriction>
  <owl:onProperty rdf:resource="#hasDimension"/>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">The following relationships have a one to
    many optional relationship.</rdfs:comment>
  <owl:minCardinality
    rdf:datatype="&xsd;nonNegativeInteger">0</owl:minCardinality>
</owl:Restriction>

<owl:Restriction>
  <rdfs:comment xml:lang="en">The following relationships have a mandatory
    one to many optional relationship.</rdfs:comment>
  <owl:onProperty rdf:resource="#hasAttribute"/>
  <owl:onProperty rdf:resource="#hasElement"/>
```



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