

Schema Matching using Machine Learning

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Abstract—Schema Matching is a method of finding attributes that are either similar to each other linguistically or represent the same information. In this project, we take a hybrid approach at solving this problem by making use of both the provided data and the schema name to perform one to one schema matching and introduce creation of a global dictionary to achieve one to many schema matching. We experiment with two methods of one to one matching and compare both based on their F-scores, precision and recall. We also compare our method with the ones previously suggested and the highlight differences between them.

Keywords—Schema Matching, Machine Learning, SOM, Edit Distance, One to Many Matching, One to One Matching

I. INTRODUCTION

The schema of a database is the skeleton that represents its logical view. In other words, a schema describes the data contained in a database, with the name of each attribute in a relation and its data type contained in the relation's schema. Any time the different tables maintained by a peer management system need to be linked to each other or when one branch of a company is closed down and all its data needs to be redistributed to the database maintained by other branches or when one company takes over another company and all data of the child company needs to be integrated with that of the parent company, the need to match schemas of multiple relations with each other arises. In basic terms, schema matching can be explained as follows: Given two databases $X(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ and $Y(y_1, y_2, y_3)$ with x_n and y_n representing their attributes respectively, we match a schema attribute to another either if it is linguistically similar (has a similar name) or if it represents the same data. Consider the Tables I and II. Here, the ideal schema mappings would be: $FName + LName = Name$, $Major = Maj_Stream$ and $Address = House No + St Name$.

TABLE I. STUDENTS

FName	LName	SSN	Major	Address
Shruti	Jadon	123-aaa-aaaa	Computer Science	1xx Brit Mnr
Ankita	Mehta	234-bbb-bbbb	Mathematics	2xx Boulders
Tanvi	Sahay	456-ccc-cccc	Political Science	3xx N Pleasant St

TABLE II. GRAD-STUDENTS

Name	ID	Maj_Stream	House No	St name
Shruti Jadon	123aaa	CompSci	1xx	Brit Mnr
Ankita Mehta	23bbb4	Math and Stats	2xx	Boulders
Tanvi Sahay	45cccc	PoliSci	3xx	N Pleasant St

Over the years, researchers have faced several issues when trying to automate the process of matching schemas of different relations. Because the schemas are created by human developers and are pertinent to a particular domain, human intervention is often required at one or multiple stages of the process to ensure proper schema matching, which makes this task quite labor intensive. The aim of automated schema

matching is to reduce the involvement of a domain expert in the process to a minimum. Majorly, schema matching can be divided into two parts - one to one matching, where one attribute of table 1 matches with only one attribute of table 2 and one to many matching, where one attribute of table 1 may map to a combination of several attributes of table 2. While one to one matching has been successfully automated using sophisticated machine learning techniques as well as by exploiting the schema structure, performing one to many schema matching still requires some form of human intervention. In general, matching can be done by taking into account either the data contained in the relations or the name of the attributes or both.

In this project, we explore two methods of performing one to one matching and suggest a new method of one to many mapping which is different from the ones that have been employed before. For one to one matching, we consider two approaches, both based on utilizing a set of features to limit the set of candidate matches by clustering similar attributes together. In the first method, called centroid method, we cluster similar values of one table together into groups and compare each attribute of the second table with each cluster, to find the cluster that best matches with it. In the second method, called the combined method, we combine attributes of both tables into a single list and cluster all of them together to form groups containing similar fields from both tables. The centroid method, as we will see in the future sections, ensures that every attribute in the second table matches with at least one attribute in the first table. The combined approach on the other hand still has the possibility of an attribute in one table not matching with any other attribute in the second table. Each method will be discussed in more detail in the future sections and their tradeoffs as well as their performance with existing techniques will be compared as well. In addition to these techniques, we will discuss a new way of taking care of one to many matchings with minimum requirement of an external expert.

II. PREVIOUS WORK

Database Schema Matching Using Machine Learning with Feature Selection[1]

This paper is discussing about a tool called Automatch for automating the schema matching process. This approach consists of a global dictionary which is created by using schema examples and tuned by domain experts. Dictionary includes various clusters of attributes say R1, R2, R3 etc. It compares attributes of one schema (S1, S2, S3etc) with each of the dictionary attributes (R1, R2, R3 etc) and assign a weight based on probability formula of symmetry. The same is repeated with another schema and a path from schema 1 to schema 2 via the dictionary is chosen. The Minimum Weight

Path determines which attribute of schema 1 is closely aligned with which schema 2 attribute.

While this method improves on its predecessors by including one-to-one attribute matching rather than just matching one attribute with a set of possible attributes, it still has the same problem that it does not consider the possibility of one attribute matching to a set of attributes.

Semantic Integration in Heterogenous Databases using Neural Networks[2]

This paper implemented schema matching using Machine Learning approach. It extracts the features of each column by using only their data values and these features, represented as vectors with each value lying in the range (0,1) are used as identifiers for that column. Then they are clustered together using a self-organizing map and their cluster centres are calculated. Using these cluster centres single hidden layer neural network with M outputs neurons (M = number of clusters) is trained and then tested with output as the similarity percentage of the attribute with each cluster.

While this method, known as SemaInt, provides the user with a similarity mapping of each attribute in one schema with a set of attributes in another, it does not take into account the fact one might map to a set of others as well.

Corpus-based Schema Matching[3]

This paper makes use of a corpora of schemas to prepare models of each attribute in the schemas to be matched by making use of information provided other attributes similar to the ones being matched. Similar attributes are found by making use of learners such as name learner, text learner, context learner etc. and for matching attributes across two schemas, similarity of an attribute matching with the other based on the new ‘augmented’ models is calculated.

This method only considers one to one matching of attributes and cannot handle complex mappings like one to many or many to one. It also requires a significant amount of corpora to successfully learn good attribute models.

Generic Schema Matching with Cupid[4]

This paper explores a technique of matching which is schema based and not instance based. In the proposed method, heirarchical schemas are represented as trees and non-heirarchical schemas are generalised as graphs. Two types are matching scores, based on linguistic similarity i.e. similarity between schema attribute names, data types and domain etc. and based on structural similarity i.e. similarity based on context and vicinity are calculated and their average is assigned as the final matching score for a pair of attributes.

This method maintains a thesaurus for finding linguistic similarity and also makes use of information other than just the schema name, such as schema structure and relation of attributes with each when assigning scores.

iMAP:Discovering Complex Semantic Matches between Database Schemas[5]

iMAP introduces a new method of semi-automatically performing both one to one and one to many schema matching by converting the matching problem to a search problem in a relatively large search space of all possible schema mappings. For efficient searching, the paper proposes to make use of custom searchers based on concatenation of text, arithmetic operations over numeric attributes etc. and scoring each match to find the best possible matchings. Since the searchers are customized over type of data, they only search through a subset of search space, thus reducing system complexity.

While this method achieves one to many mapping, it still requires a domain expert for creating custom searchers specific to a particular type of database. The method also makes use of only the data contained in the tables and not the schema names themselves.

As we have seen, the methods shown above either focus only on one to one mappings or, when considering one to many mappings, do not take the actual schema names into account. One to one schema matching techniques also require a large amount of data to successfully train the machine learning models being employed, which may not necessarily be available. Our method presents a different approach in that we consider both one to one and one to many mapping and make use of both the data represented by the schema and the schema names themselves. The technique is not data intensive and requires minimum human intervention, requiring a domain expert only for the task of creating the one to many mapping dictionary.

III. METHODOLOGY

For the purpose of implementation, we have divided our task into two separate sections: One to Many Mapping and One to One Mapping. In all discussions that follow, we assume that we have a source schema S and a test schema T and our task is to map attributes present in the test schema to attributes present in the source schema.

A. Schema Data

For this project, we perform all experiments on a subset of the medicare.gov data. We take two tables from the database, each of which represents the Inpatient Psychiatric Facility Quality Reports (IPFQR) of hospitals in the United States. One of the tables considers each hospital in the US and has a total of 85 attributes and 1644 data tuples with the field “Provider_number” taken as the primary key. The second table is the same data provided for only the best hospitals in each state, with State as the primary key. It has 74 attributes and 52 data tuples, one for each state and one for Washington DC and Puerto Rico each. Subsets of the two tables have been presented as Table III and Table IV respectively.

TABLE III. IPFQR DATA - GENERAL

Provider_Number	State	HBIPS-2_Overall_Num	HIE_Response
10101	AL	23.7	Yes
40014	AR	1.47	No
34023	AZ	0.68	Yes

TABLE IV. IPFQR DATA - STATEWISE

State	S_HBIPS-2_Overall_Num	S_HIE_Yes_Count	Start_Date
AL	2891.1	17	01/01/2015
AR	844.77	10	01/01/2015
AZ	4981.36	14	01/01/2015

As can be seen from this small subset, the attributes are all domain centric and do not convey any semantic information about what the data contains, which is why any methods that match attributes semantically cannot be applied.

Both data tables are stored in a single database and postgres combined with python has been used to access the data. Before performing schema matching, the attributes are cleaned up to allow uniformity across the schemas. Symbols such as % occurring in the schema names are converted to their actual name i.e. *percent*. Certain integer or float type columns have char values such as ‘Not Available’ which are converted to 0 and symbols such as % occurring in the data are removed as well. While storing this data in the database, schemas are normalized by converting all names to lower case and appending ‘tr_’ to the source schema attributes and ‘ts_’ to the test schema attributes. This is done to provide the user with a clear demarcation of which schema attributes belong to which table.

B. One To Many Schema Matching

One to many matching is done when a single attribute in the source schema matches with two or more attributes in the test schema. For example, the address of an individual can either be represented as ‘Address’ in a single column or be broken down into ‘House No’ and ‘Street no/name’ as two independent columns. For achieving one to many schema matching, we propose the creation of a global dictionary that contains all possible mappings of a single attribute to multiple attributes and use this as a checkpoint to find out possible one to many mappings. This dictionary is represented as a set of key-value pairs, where keys are those attributes that can be broken down into several smaller ones and values are the corresponding set of attributes that together match with the key. In the example given above, ‘Address’ will be considered a key and ‘House No’ and ‘Street no/name’ will be its corresponding values. When a key is present in the source schema and the key’s corresponding values are present in the test schema, that set of attributes is separated as a one to many schema mapping. Attributes in S and T that have already been considered as a part of any one to many match will not be considered when looking at the one to one schema matching.

The global dictionary created by us consists of the following key, value pairs:

Key: Address, Location, Addr, Loc, Residence

Value: Street Name, S_Name, St_Name, Str_Name, Stree_Name, StName, St_No, ST_Number, Street_No, S_No, S_Number, Street Number, StNumber, StNo, Apt_Num, Apartment_Number, Apartment Number, Apartment No, Apt_Number, Apt_No

Key: Name, PatientName

Value: First Name, First_Name, FName, F_Name, Last_Name, Last Name, LName, L_Name

As can be seen, the keys and values consist of all possible ways of representing a particular attribute in order to capture a wider range of mappings. While the dictionary only consists of two possible one to many mappings at present, it can be extended with time by including more instances of such mappings.

C. One To One Schema Matching

Once all one to many maps have been determined, we perform one to one matching on the remaining attributes. This is done by extracting meaningful descriptive features of each attribute and using these features to find similar attributes across the two schemas in consideration. After extracting features of each attribute, we have experimented with two methods, namely: Centroid Method and Combined Method. Each method has been evaluated using a measure called F-Score, which is a combination of both precision and recall. Each section of one to one schema matching has been explained below.

Feature Engineering and Feature Extraction: Features of an attribute are nothing but characteristics that describe the attribute in sufficient detail for it to be compared to and discriminated against other attributes and provide some idea of the similarity or dissimilarity between the compared attributes. These characteristics could either be based on the kind of data that attribute holds or based on schema information and specifications. Based on kind of data, these “discriminators” can be data type, domain and range of data contained by the attribute, length of used space etc. and based on schema specifications, they can contain information about whether the attribute is a key or not and so on. Some of these features are binary, with values as either 0 or 1 while the others lie in the range [0,1]. Representing each attribute as this set of real values has several advantages. First, it allows us to perform mathematical operations that cannot be generally performed on text, which makes similarity computation easier. Second, by creating features manually, we can decide which aspects of an attribute to focus on when finding similar attributes. We have adapted from the feature set provided by [2] to include a total of 20 “discriminators”. This set of features is not exhaustive and based on need, database type and type of information available, more features can be added to the list.

Features based on Schema Specification - Based on schema information and specifications available, we create the following features: Type of data (Float, Int, Char, Boolean, date, time), length of fields provided by the user, whether the attribute is a key or not, whether the attribute is unique or not, whether the attribute has a Not Null condition attached to it or not. This information can be easily extracted from the schema specified by the user. For representation as a feature, we convert every value to a real number. For type of data, if the attribute is a float type, it is represented as 0 while if it is a time type, it is represented as 5. Length of the fields is already a real number and the remaining three attributes are provided a binary representation based on whether the attribute has a certain property or not (is a key - 1, not a key - 0 etc.).

Features based on Data Fields - A lot of discriminatory features can be extracted based on the data contained within a particular column. We divide the data into three types -

containing only numerics and provided as INT or FLOAT (age, salary), containing only char and provided as CHAR (name, city) and containing both and provided as VARCHAR (address). We create features that help discriminate between the three categories. Since there are certain types of information that only be contained in numeric attributes and certain that are specific to VARCHAR attributes, we divide our features into the following categories.

- 1) Features for Numeric Data - The features specific to numeric data are:
 - Average - Average of all the entries in a specific column
 - Variance - Variance of a specific column. Variance is nothing but a measure of how far a set of values are spread from their mean.
 - Coefficient of variance - Coefficient of variance is another measure of variability but it aims to describe the dispersion in a way that does not depend on the variable's unit of measurement.
 - Minimum - The minimum value of a particular column
 - Maximum - The maximum value of a particular column
- 2) Features for Character Data - The features specific to character data are:
 - Ratio of whitespace to length - Number of white space characters as opposed to text characters
 - Ratio of special characters to length - Number of special characters ('-', '_', '(', ')', '\', and so on) as opposed to text characters
 - Ratio of numeric to length - Number of numeric characters as opposed to total number of characters
 - Ratio of char to length - Number of plain text characters as opposed to total number of characters
 - Ratio of backslash to length - Number of backslash characters as opposed to total number of characters
 - Ratio of brackets to length - Number of brackets as opposed to total number of characters
 - Ratio of hyphens to length - Number of hyphens as opposed to total number of characters
- 3) Features common to both - Certain features are common to both numeric and varchar attributes.
 - Average Used Length - Length of attribute used as opposed to total specified length
 - Variance of Used length - Variance of the length used by values in a particular column
 - Coefficient of variance of used length - Coefficient of variance of the length used by values in a particular column

For every attribute in both source and test schemas, a vector of length 20 is prepared that contains values for each of the 20 features described above. To understand this with an example, consider the character attribute

State(CHAR(2)PRIMARYKEY) from the test table as shown in table IV. Its feature vector can be given as follows:

Type of Data	2
Length	2
Key	1
Unique	0
Not Null	1
Average Length Used	4.0
Variance of Length	

Clustering - Centroid Method:

Clustering - Combined Method:

Linguistic Matching:

Evaluation:

IV. EXPERIMENTATION AND RESULTS

V. CONCLUSION

VI. FUTURE WORK

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