Introduction to Data Warehouse and Implementation

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Outline

- 1. Introduction and Definition
- 2. Multi-dimensional Data Warehouse Model
- 3. Data Mining Query Language (DMQL)
- 4. Introduce to OLAP and its Architecture
- 5. Data Warehouse Architecture and Design
- 6. Data Warehouse Implementation (Integration)

Introduction

- Definition of Data Warehouse:
- 1. Subject Oriented:

Provide a simple and concise view of major subjects by focusing on modeling and analyzing of data for the decision maker.

• 2. Integrated:

Construct multiple data sources by using data cleaning and data integration technique, and data is converted.

• 3. Time Variant:

Every DW may or may not contains explicit or inexplicit time and provides information from a historical perspective.

• 4. Non-volatile:

Data in are physical separate stored in DW which does not have operational update, and only allows operation of initial loading data and access of data

DW vs. Heterogeneous & Operational DBMS

1. Heterogeneous DBMS	 a. build wrappers or mediators on top of DM to do the integration. b. Query Driven, complex info filtering
2. Operational DBMS	 a. OLTP (on-line transaction processing) b. Operations in purchasing, inventory, banking, manufacturing, payroll registration, accounting
3. Data Warehouse	 a. Update-driven, high performance b. OLAP (on-line analytical processing) c. Data analysis and decision making

OLAP v.s. OLTP

	DBMS	Data Warehouse	
	OLTP	OLAP	
Users	Clerk, IT professional	Knowledge worker	
Function	Day to day operations	Decision support	
DB design	Application-oriented	Subject-oriented	
Data	Current, up-to-date Detailed, flat relational Isolated	Historical, Summarized, multidimensional Integrated, consolidated	
Usage	Repetitive	Ad-hoc	
Access	Read/write, Index/hash on prim. Key	Lots of scans	
Unit of work	Short, simple transaction	Complex query	
# records accessed	Tens	Millions	
#users	Thousands	Hundreds	
DB size	100MB-GB	100GB-TB	
Metric	Transaction throughput	Query throughput, response	

Why separate data warehouse?

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Modeling of Data Warehouse

• 1. View data in the form of cube

n-D cube = n entitis The n-D base cube is called a base cuboid The top 0-D cuboid is called apex cuboid

• Example cube: sales

Dimensional Tables: time, item, location, supplier **Fact Table**: contains Keys and Measures

Example of cuboids (table sales):



Conceptual Modeling of Data Warehouse

1. Star Schema	A fact table in the middle connected to a set of dimension tables
2. Snowflake schema	A refinement of the star schema where some dimensional hierarchy is normalized into a set of smaller dimensional tables.
3. Fact constellations (Galaxy Schema)	Multiple fact tables share dimensional tables, which can be viewed as collection of stars.

Star Schema



Snowflake Schema



Fact constellations



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Data Mining Query Language

• 1. Definition:

Need a data definition language to define the table in the conceptual model

• 2. Syntax:

define cube : <cube_name> [<dimensional_lis <measure_list></measure_list></dimensional_lis </cube_name>	t>]: fact table
define dimension : <dimension_name> as (<attributes_or_list_of_subdimension>)</attributes_or_list_of_subdimension></dimension_name>	dimensional table
l efine dimension <dimension_name> as <dimension_nal 1 cube <cube_name_first_time></cube_name_first_time></dimension_nal </dimension_name>	me_first_time> share dimensional table

Example of define cube sales

define cube sales [time, item, branch, location]:

dollars_sold = sum(sales_in_dollars),

avg_sales = avg(sales_in_dollars),
 units sold = count(*)

star

define dimension time as (time_key, day, day_of_week, month, quarter, year) define dimension item as (item_key, item_name, brand, type, supplier_type) define dimension branch as (branch_key, branch_name, branch_type) define dimension location as (location_key, street, city, province_or_state, country)

snowflake

example of fact constellation

define dimension time as time in cube sales define dimension item as item in cube sales define dimension shipper as (shipper_key, shipper_name, location as location in cube sales, shipper_type) define dimension from_location as location in cube sales define dimension to_location as location in cube sales

Measures in DMQL

1. Distributive	The Result derived by applying the function to n aggregate values is the same as that derived by applying the function on all data without partitioning. Example : count(), sum(), min(), max()
2. Algebraic	Use distributive aggregate functions it is computed by an algebraic function with M arguments, each of which is obtained by applying a distributive aggregate function. Example: avg(), min_N(), standard_deviation()
3. Holistic	If there is no constant bound on the storage size needed to describe a sub-aggregate. Example : median(), mode(), rank()

Measures Example

• Sales Table:

time (time_key, day, day_of_week, month, quarter, year)
item (item_key, item_name, brand, type, supplier(supplier_key, supplier_type))
branch (branch_key, branch_name, branch_type)
location (location_key, street, city, province_or_state, country)

sales (time_key, item_key, branch_key, location_key, number_of_unit_sold,
price)

To compute dollar_sold & unit_sold:

select s.time_key, s.item_key, s.branch_key, s.location_key,

sum(s.number_of_units_sold*s.price),

sum(s.number_of_units_sold)

from time t, item i, branch b, location l, sales s

where s.time_key = t.time_key and s.item_key = i.item_key
and s.branch_key = b.branch_key and s.location_key = l.location_key
group by s.time_key, s.item_key, s.branch_key, s.location_key

Questions?

 What's the relation between "data cube" and "group by" ?

• what's query for the 0-D cuboid or apex?

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OLAP Operations in a Multidimensional Data

- 1. Dimension Hierarchical Concept:
 - a. Total order hierarchy
 - b. Partial order hierarchy
- 2. Operations:
 - a. roll up (drill up)
 - b. drill down (droll down)
 - c. slice and dice (project & select)
 - d. pivot (rotate)
 - e. drill cross & drill through

Example of Dimensional Hierarchy

- Product dimension: Product<Category<industry
- Location dimension: Office<city<Country<Region
- Time dimension: Day<{month<quarter;week}<year

• 1. Roll up (drill up) — summarize data

Drill down (droll down) — reverse of roll up

• 3. Dice (project and select)

• 4. Slice (Select)

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View of Data Warehouse

Based on business requirements:

1. Top-down View	Allows Selection of the relevant information necessary for the data warehouse.
2. Data Source View	It exposes the information being captured, stored, and managed by operational systems. Example: ER model.
3. Data Warehouse View	Fact tables and dimensional tables.
4. Business Query View	It sees the perspective of data in the warehouse from the view of end-user.

Data Warehouse Design

- 1. Top-down: Overall Design and Planing
- 2. Bottom-up: WaterFall or Spiral
- 3. Design Process:
 - 1. choose business process model
 - 2. choose the atomic level of data of the business process
 - 3. choose the dimensions for each fact table record
 - 4. choose the measure that will populate each fact table

Data Warehouse Models

• 1. Enterprise Warehouse:

Collect All of the information about subjects spanning the entire organization

• 2. Data Mart:

a subset of corporate-wide data that is of value to a specific groups of users. Independent vs. dependent

• 3. Virtual Warehouse:

A set of views over operational database (materialized)

OLAP Server Architectures

1. Relational OLAP	Use Relational DBMS as Backend, store manage warehouse data OLAP middle ware support, greater scalability.		
2. Multidimensional OLAP	Array-based storage (sparse matrix techniques) Pre-computed data and fast indexing		
3. Hybrid OLAP	Flexibility: relational or array Support SQL queries: Star or Snowflake schema		
4. Data Storage Methods	 a. Base Cuboid data: base fact table o. Aggregate data: base fact table, or Separate summary fact tables 		

OLAP DW Usages and Advantages

Three kinds of Usage:

- 1. Information Processing
- 2. Analytical Processing
- 3. Data Mining

Four Advantages:

1. High quality of data in data warehouses

2. Available information processing structure surrounding data warehouses

3. OLAP-based exploratory data analysis

4. On-line selection of data mining functions

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Data Warehouse Implementation

- 1. Monitoring: sending data from the source
- 2. Integrating: loading, cleansing, schema matching...
- 3. Processing: cube computation, query processing, indexing

The Importance of integration

Usage-Based Schema Matching

Introduction:

• Problems in Data Integration:

- Find correspondences between attributes of two schemas.
- Proposed tchniques:
 - Schema-based techniques:
 - rely on metadata:
 - same attributes may have different meaning
 - Instance-based techniques:
 - rely on characteristics of data instances:
 - same user has different names in different tables
 - tacked schema matching with opaque attribute names
 - not complete schema

Usage-Based Schema Matching

Introduction:

- New Technique for Schema Matching:
 - Usage-based schema matching
 - Good matching quality
 - Identifies co-occurrence patterns:
 - attributes, relationship types
 - Genetic algorithm:
 - highest-score mappings
 - Opaque attributes and different layouts.

Contributions

Based on usage of attributes in query log:

- Tow usage-based matchers:
 - SLUB : Structure-Level Usage-Based matcher
 - ELUB : Element-Level Usage-Based matcher
- Prototype implementation:
 - Employs a genetic algorithm to find highest score mapping
- An extensive experimental study:
 - Effective
 - Accurate

Main Point

• Goal:

Exploit similarities in query patterns to match attributes

• Feature extraction:

- Uses query logs
- Collects attributes' roles and interrelationships.

• Matching:

- Examines potential mappings
- Assigns a score for them
- Terminates by reporting highest-score

Feature Extraction

• SLUB: Structure-Level Usage-Based matcher

- Structure-level freatures:
 - An attribute A roles:
 - part of the answer (select clause)
 - filterint role (where or having)
 - grouping role (group by)
 - odering role (oder by)
 - Tow attributes in same query:
 - usage relationship
 - four possible roles results in 16 different possible relationships
 - 16 graphs with weights on endges (frequency of occurrence)

Usage relationship type
select-select
where-select
select-where
where-where
orderby-select
select-orderby
groupby-groupby
groupby-select
select-groupby
orderby-where
groupby-where
where-orderby
where-groupby
orderby-orderby
orderby-groupby
groupby-orderby

Feature Extraction

Identification process

- SPJGO:
 - relationship depends on two clauses
- SPJGO-UEI:
 - relationships are identified separately
 - attributes in one subquery don't affect result of another
- SPJGO-N:
 - relationships identifed separately for each block
 - outer query and inner subquery
 - more relationships identified between attributes in differernt blocks
 - inner subquery may be a filter of outer query (if it's in where or from clause of outer query)
 - they are considered to be related to all outer query attributes

Q1: select I_TITLE from Item, Author where I_A_ID=A_ID and A_LNAME='Gray'

Q4a: @list = select A_ID from Author where A_LNAME='Gray' Q4b: select I_TITLE from Item where I A ID in @list TABLE I. CONTRIBUTION OF THE QUERIES OF EXAMPLE 4.1 TO THE SELECT-WHERE RELATIONSHIP TYPE

select-where	A_ID	A_LNAME	I_A_ID	I_TITLE
A_ID	-	Q2,Q3,Q4	-	-
A_LNAME	-	-	-	
I_A_ID	-		-	-
I_TITLE	Q1,Q2,Q3	Q1,Q2,Q3	Q1,Q2,Q3,Q4	

• Genetic Algorithm:

- Selection : generate population
 - S1 = {1,2,3,4,5,6,7}
 - S2 = {1,2,3,4,5,6,7}
 - Assume a population with 4: 011101, 101011,011100,111001
 - Fitness function: $f(x1,x2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$

Individual No	Population(0)	x1 x2	Fitness	%	Selection time Random	Results
1	011101	35	34	0.24	1	011101
2	101011	53	34	0.24	1	111001
3	011100	34	25	0.17	0	101011
4	111001	71	50	0.35	2	111001
sum			143	1		

- Genetic Algorithm:
 - Genetic Operators:
 - Crossover:
 - Pair : random
 - Crossover position: random
 - Crossover part of gene

Individual No	Results	Pairs	Crossover position (Random)	Results
1	011101			011001
2	101011	1-2	2	111101
3	011100			101001
4	111001	3-4	4	111011

- Genetic Algorithm:
 - Genetic Operators:
 - Mutation:
 - Mutation position: random
 - Change the bit with a probability

Individual No	Results	Mutation Position	Mutation Result	Population(1)
1	011 <mark>0</mark> 01	4	011101	011101
2	1111 <mark>0</mark> 1	5	111111	111111
3	1 <mark>0</mark> 1001	2	11001	111001
4	111011	6	11101 <mark>0</mark>	111010

Compare Population(0) and Population(1)

Individual No	Population(0)	x1 x2	Fitness	%	Selection time Random	Results
1	011101	35	34	0.24	1	011101
2	101011	53	34	0.24	1	111001
3	011100	34	25	0.17	0	101011
4	111001	71	50	0.35	2	111001
sum			143	1		

Individual No	Population(1)	x1 x2	Fitness	%
1	011101	3 5	34	0.14
2	111111	77	98	0.42
3	111001	71	50	0.21
4	111010	7 2	53	0.23
sum			235	

- How to implement in Usage-Based Schema Matching
 - Compare 16 graphs of each table one by one to generate potentially mached attributes of two schemas
 - Fixed number of interation
 - Make crossover and mutation to find the highest mapping from possible ones.
 - Fitness function is indentified to calculate the similarities of two schemas

Algorithm 1: Generate_New_Mapping (m) M_i : set of matched S_i attributes, $i \in [1,2]$ L_i : set of S_2 attributes permitted to match x_i , $i \in [1, n']$ $R_{l,i}$: sum of edge weights from x_i to all $x_i \in M_l$ averaged over the 16 feature graphs of S_i , $i, j \in [1, n']$, $i \neq j$ $R_{2,i}$: sum of edge weights from y_i to all $y_i \in M_2$ averaged over the 16 feature graphs of S_2 , $i, j \in [1, n']$, $i \neq j$ $M_1 = \{\}; M_2 = \{\};$ 1-2for each iteration t 3if $|M_i|=n'$ 4return m; 5-Find an unmatched S_i attribute x_i and an unmatched S_2 attribute y_i , such that $y_i \in L_i$, $R_{1,i} > 0$, $R_{2,i} > 0$, $|R_{1,i}$ - $R_{2,i} \leq R_{1,u} - R_{2,v}$, $u \neq i_i$, $v \neq j_i$, $x_u \notin M_1$, $y_v \notin M_2$; **if** such pair (x_i, y_i) does not exist 6-Let x_{i_i} be any random unmatched S_I attribute, y_{i_i} 7be any random unmatched S_2 attribute, $y_i \in L_i$; 8-Let $m(i_t)=j_t$; 9-Add x_i , to M_1 ;

- 9- Add x_{i_t} to M_1 ; 10- Add y_{i_t} to M_2 ;
- 11- Remove y_i , from L_{i0} $u \neq i_i$;

Algorithm 2: Make_Crossover (m1, m2)

 c_i : the *i*th child mapping to be generated, $i \in [1,2]$

- 1- Copy m_l into c_l ;
- 2- Randomly divide c₁ into two parts;
- 3- Keep the first part of c₁ unchanged;
- 4- For the second part, keep the matches for the constrained S₁ attributes unchanged;
- 5- Reorder the matching S_2 attributes for the unconstrained S_1 attributes in the second part of c_1 to follow the ordering of m_2 ;
- 6- Generate c_2 in the same way as c_1 after switching the roles of m_1 and m_2 ;
- 7- return $\{c_1, c_2\};$

Algorithm 3: Make_Mutation (m)

- c: the child mapping to be generated
- 1- Copy m into c;
- Pick two random unconstrained S₁ attributes x_i and x_j;
- 3- Swap $c(x_i)$ and $c(x_j)$;
- 4- return c;

Conclusion

- A new schema matching: usage-based
- Find correspondences between attributes of two schemas with high accuracy
- For now focusing on relational schemas
- Futher more, tring to apply in an XML context and other schema

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