Metadata Management for Data Integration in Medical Sciences
- Experiences from the LIFE Study -

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Abstract: Clinical and epidemiological studies are commonly used in medical sciences. They typically collect data by using different input forms and information systems. Metadata describing input forms, database schemas, and input systems are used for data integration but are typically distributed over different software tools; each uses portions of metadata, such as for loading (ETL), data presentation and analysis. In this paper, we describe an approach managing metadata centrally and consistently in a dedicated Metadata Repository (MDR). Metadata can be provided to different tools. Moreover, the MDR includes a matching component creating schema mappings as a prerequisite to integrate captured medical data. We describe the approach, the MDR infrastructure and provide algorithms for creating schema mappings. Finally, we show selected evaluation results. The MDR is fully operational and used to integrate data from a multitude of input forms and systems in the epidemiological study LIFE.

Keywords: Data Integration, Schema Matching, Schema Merging, Metadata Repository

1 Introduction

Clinical and epidemiological studies and other health related surveys are often used in evidence-based medical sciences. Clinical studies investigate specific biological and medical phenomena and their implications from the clinical point of view. For instance, they evaluate new therapy procedures according to specific diseases, test the application of new drugs or drug doses under various circumstances by comparing the results (e.g., survival rate for cancer) to previous therapy procedures accepted in the medical community. Epidemiological studies and other health surveys usually study the development of prevalences (ratio of infected to all persons) for specific diseases and health imbalances by determining a population in a geographical region of interest. The increasing prevalence rate of obesity in industrial countries (in contrast to development countries) is a finding of such studies; the goal is to find specific explanations for this increase, e.g., changes of life style or nutrition habits, in order to show trends and impacts (also for health care policy). In both, clinical and epidemiological studies, it is quite common to determine a set of participants by different investigations, so called assessments, in which data are captured about the participant and need to be integrated before a comprehensive data analysis can start.

LIFE [Qu12, Lo15] is a large epidemiological study at the University of Leipzig in the described context. The goal of LIFE is to determine the causes of common civilization

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diseases including adiposity (obesity), depression, dementia, diabetes mellitus, allergy, cardiovascular disease and heart attack. By now, more than 23,000 participants who mostly are Leipzig (Germany) inhabitants have been examined. Each selected and invited person is associated to a special investigation program consisting of different assessment types including questionnaires, interviews, physical examinations and sample extraction (e.g., blood and urine samples). An assessment specifies how (the procedure) and which data are captured. Each assessment is implemented by a number of input forms; each form by a specific input system. Such input systems are web-based systems, desktop systems, or spreadsheet systems allowing online and subsequent data input which is often manually and directly carried out by the ambulance staff or the participant. Furthermore, medical devices producing data by a measurement process (during a physical examination) often need a special “reading” process and pre-processing to derive and extract data from proprietary formats, such as images, 3D models etc.

Fig. 1 (left) shows a portion of a single input form implementing the Anthropometry assessment. The form consists of different data items (e.g., questions of questionnaires), such as body height and weight, for which data can be captured. Multiple items can be grouped into item groups, i.e., they form a group of input fields on the input form. In LIFE, input forms and other data sources can change over time, a fact that makes the integration effort much more challenging. There are several reasons for that. Misspellings in data items text and wrong or missing validation rules of input forms should be corrected. Other input forms need to be adapted to meet specific requirements at the investigation time or extended research questions, e.g., by adding or deleting data items to/from an input form. These changes do not necessarily result in structural changes, in particular correction of misspellings. However, the input systems used in LIFE allow to change every input form until it is activated for data input. Further changes result in designing and activating a new input form while the previous form can be deactivated to prevent further data capturing with this form. Each input form is associated with a data table (database or spreadsheet) in which the captured data are stored. Using multiple input forms per assessment results in multiple data tables.
Fig. 1 shows the evolution of the assessment Anthropometry using three input forms. While the text of data items weight and height changes from form 1 to 2, the item identifier F43 moves to F33 due to rearrangements of questions in version 3. New items are introduced in form 2 and 3. Moreover, the codes of the answer lists (so called code lists in trial management) are numeric in version 3; they were alphabetic in forms 1 and 2. Similarly, the schema of generated data heavily depends on the used software (and version), such that schema changes are the normal case. A data analysis, however, should run on integrated data for each assessment instead of multiple input forms. In LIFE, there are currently more than 900 assessments with more than 52,000 items (in total) which are associated with more than 1,700 input forms (approx. 120,000 items). A manual integration connecting input forms with assessment is, therefore, very resource-intensive and error-prone. To reduce this manual effort, we designed and implemented an integration approach which we introduce in this paper. In particular, we make the following contributions.

- Our integration approach uses current schema matching and merging techniques to generate mappings to harmonize the schema of input forms and other data sources as well as code lists of data items. The advantage is twofold. First, the target schema can be automatically derived and generated. Secondly, data can be transformed and transferred by an automatic process using the generated mappings. We introduce the applied matching techniques and provide algorithms.

- All metadata is collected and managed by a separate Metadata Repository (MDR) which is implemented by a service-based infrastructure. The MDR is fully operational and is used for several years in LIFE for data integration. We introduce the system architecture and show an overview of its database schema.

- Taking the available and validated mapping data from the productive instance, we evaluate the quality of our mapping-based approach and discuss the results.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, we introduce some basic models and definitions that we use throughout the paper. Sect. 3 explains the schema matching process we have implemented and shows algorithms allowing to find corresponding schema elements. We sketch the match infrastructure in Sect. 4, show selected evaluation results in Sect. 5 and discuss related work in Sect. 6 before we conclude in Sect. 7.

2 Preliminaries and Models

An input form \( F = (G, I, R_F) \) consists of a non-empty set of items \( I \) (e.g., questions in questionnaires and interviews). Items are organized as ordered set (i.e., list) into item groups \( G \). The input form structure \( R_F \subseteq G \times I \) specifies which group contains which items. Therefore, an input form is organized as tree with \( F \) as root, groups as inner nodes and items as leaves. Input forms as well as item groups and items are described by a non-empty set of attributes. Input forms and item groups normally have a title, whereas items are primarily described by an item identifier and a description, i.e., the question text in a questionnaire and the measurement parameter name in physical investigations. Further item attributes depend on the utilized input system, such as the item representation on the web page (radio button, check box, short text field etc.). Furthermore, categorical data items are associated
with a predefined list of instances (i.e., categories subsumed as code list) to restrict the set of answers. Each code list element is represented by a code and a label. While the label is shown on the input web-page or used as label when analysis results are presented, the code is directly represented within data and, hence, only “internally” used.

Throughout the paper, we use the term *input form* and its above definition for forms that are interactively used by study participants and study staff to manually capture data but also for forms which are “automatically filled”, e.g., when devices produce data. Forms of the latter case only exist “virtually”; they are used to specify metadata since database schemas of device software installations or data exports (e.g., spreadsheets) typically don’t provide item descriptions and code lists. Moreover, we add the input system IS and a version number v (linear versioning schema per input system) as index to each input form $F_{IS,v}$ allowing us to differentiate and to address a single input form of an assessment. Note, there can be multiple input forms simultaneously used at the same time, e.g., input forms of the same or different input systems.

Every input form $F_{IS,v}$ is associated to a schema $S_{IS,v} = (E, R_S)$ which is used by an input system to internally store and manage captured data of the input form $F_{IS,v}$. In this paper, we focus on relational schemas consisting of tables and columns (generalized as set of schema elements $E$ and their relationships $R_S \subseteq E \times E$). We assume that every input form can be represented as single table or single denormalized view on multiple tables. In cases in which data are not represented in a relational schema, we apply a transformation step and import the data into a relational schema. The mapping $M_{F_{IS,v}, S_{IS,v}} = (F_{IS,v}, S_{IS,v}, C_{F,v})$ explicitly represents the interrelation between $F_{IS,v}$ and $S_{IS,v}$; the set $C_{F,v}$ consists of correspondences specifying which schema element of $S_{IS,v}$ is associated to which data item of input form $F_{IS,v}$. Note, an input form can contain data items which have no correspondence to any schema element; typically, they show derived data, e.g., special text paragraphs or computations (e.g., body mass index) that are dynamically created based on data of other data items for which data have been captured. Furthermore, there are data items which are closely related. For instance, there are questions in questionnaires and interviews associated with a multiple choice behavior. There, each element of the code list is represented by a check box on the input form; each check box can be enabled independently from the other. Therefore, the relational schema contains an element (column) for each code list element (check box). Mostly, the mapping $M_{F_{IS,v}, S_{IS,v}}$ is inherently generated by the input systems we use in LIFE; only for spreadsheets and exported data files from medical devices we generate a mapping manually by creating (virtual) input forms for a specified relational schema after importing data into the database. For simplicity, we skip the input system as index in the rest of the paper and denote an input form $F_v(S_v)$ in version v by $F_v(S_v)$ instead of $F_{IS,v}(S_{IS,v})$.

The goal of the schema matching process is to find semantic meaningful correspondences between elements of two distinct schemas, say $S_i$ and $S_j$. The resulting correspondence set $C_{S_i, S_j}$ builds a mapping $M_{S_i, S_j} = (S_i, S_j, C_S)$. A special schema is the target schema $T$. In our case, $T$ represents the schema of the so called research database managing data from all input forms in a harmonized manner. Hence, we are finally interested in schema mappings $M_{S_v, T}$ between schemas of input forms $S_i$ and the target schema $T$. 
Fig. 2 shows an example for the described models and their relationships. There are two input forms for the interview assessment “Anthropometry”, $F_0^{\text{Anthropometry}}$ and $F_1^{\text{Anthropometry}}$, respectively. Both input forms consist of a set of data items for which a selected portion is shown. The input form $F_0^{\text{Anthropometry}}$ ($F_1^{\text{Anthropometry}}$) corresponds to schema $S_0^{\text{Anthropometry}}$ ($S_1^{\text{Anthropometry}}$). The schema is mostly created by the input systems taking the user specifications of the input form into account. Hence, the user influence on naming of schema elements, their data types and utilized constraints depends on the utilized input system; while some systems take user input into account other input systems are very restrictive.

There are three changes between $F_0^{\text{Anthropometry}}$ and $F_1^{\text{Anthropometry}}$. Firstly, item descriptions of weight (F7) and height (F8) have been changed. Secondly, the input form $F_1^{\text{Anthropometry}}$ extends the input form $F_0^{\text{Anthropometry}}$ by a new data item (F43). Finally, both input forms contain a data item F32 that is associated with a code list. While in $F_0^{\text{Anthropometry}}$ the code list consists of elements yes (decoded by Y) and no (N), the code list in $F_1^{\text{Anthropometry}}$ utilizes
numeric codes 0 (no) and 1 (yes) instead of alphabetic codes. The changed item descriptions (for items weight and height) have no effect on the schema $S^1_{\text{Anthropometry}}$. However, schema $S^1_{\text{Anthropometry}}$ has an additional schema element storing values of the new data item F43. The changed code lists also result in a numeric data type for data item F32 in comparison to $S^0_{\text{Anthropometry}}$ (String). Finally, both schemas need to be associated to the target schema $T_{\text{Anthropometry}}$ to harmonize data within the ETL process. For this reason, we generate and use mappings $M^0_{S_{\text{Anthropometry}}, T_{\text{Anthropometry}}}$ and $M^1_{S^1_{\text{Anthropometry}}, T_{\text{Anthropometry}}}$, respectively.

3 Matching and Merging Schemas

We firstly describe processes generating and verifying schema mappings. Finally, we introduce the utilized matching techniques and algorithms.

3.1 The overall Schema Matching Process

The goal of our schema matching process is to find correspondences between the elements of a source schema and the target schema. We utilize the generated mappings to transfer the data from each source to the target. Moreover, we use schema mappings to answer data provenance questions, i.e., to exactly specify from which input form (and item) the data come from when looking on the target schema and data. However, schema matching is challenging for two reasons. First, we don’t use a predefined target schema for each assessment; defining the target schema apriori and adapt this schema with potentially each schema corresponding to an input form is too resource intensive. Secondly, most source schemas are generated by input systems. In some cases the form creator has no influence on the naming of schema elements; names are concatenated internal identifiers (e.g., form id + group id + item id). Hence, creating schema mappings by taking (only) schemas as input is not sufficient. Addressing these two challenges, our approach consists of two steps. The first step generates the target schema taking a selected input form into account. The second step creates schema mappings between each source schema and the generated target schema by transforming the schema matching task to a form matching task producing mappings between different input forms belonging to the same assessment. Due to the duality between forms and schemas, the resulting form mappings can be used to derive required schema mappings. Fig. 3 shows both processes, the generation of the target schema for a selected input form and the creation of schema mappings for further input forms of the same assessment.

The mapping process starts when a new input form is created and utilized to capture data. At first, metadata about the input form and its corresponding schema is imported into the centralized Metadata Repository (MDR, see also Sect. 4). Then, the schema element table is associated with the input form metadata, i.e., name and description of the input form are related to the corresponding table element of the relational schema. Columns of this table are associated to data items of the input form and, therefore, each column is related to an item text (i.e., question/parameter text). To keep this import process simple and to reduce the implementation effort, we import the source schema and its annotation directly from the input systems managing input forms. For all other cases, e.g., data exports of
medical devices, this metadata are specified in a spreadsheet by responsible users that can be imported into the MDR.

By selecting an input form for which the corresponding source schema and additional form metadata are available in the MDR, we can derive the target schema for an assessment (part “first form mapping” in Fig. 3). Typically, we select the first input form that have been chronologically created and used to load and access harmonized data to/of the target database. The constructed target schema consists of a column for each source column (1:1 mapping). The schema mapping is inherently created and persisted within the MDR. The names of the target schema (table and column name) are automatically created following a global notation. The user can later (in the verification process) specify an alias for each column to associate a semantic meaningful name. According to the source schema, the generated correspondences of the schema mapping consists of a transformation expression. There is a predefined set of conversion functions to transform values w.r.t. their data type since the used input systems in LIFE mostly utilize VARCHAR or TEXT (CLOB) as standard data type which are typically not the preferred type in the target schema. Therefore, data values are parsed during the process to recognize the data type (numeric or date). Since most items (questions) in questionnaires and interviews utilize predefined code lists which have mostly not more than 10 answers, this task is not very resource intensive. Only for open questions (no predefined code list) we parse the first 100 values. Special value transformations, such as from feet to centimeter, are not recognized; they can be added and set on demand by manual interaction in the verification process.
This approach has several advantages. We reuse the mapping \( M \) and its corresponding schema. Hence, the composition generates the intermediate forms and its corresponding schema. Therefore, the central idea is to move the schema match problem to a matching between input forms, firstly. We select two input forms \( F_i \) and \( F_j \) as input for this match process. For one of these input forms, say \( F_i \), a schema mapping \( M_{S_i,T} \) for its corresponding source schema \( S_i \) already exists whereas for \( S_j \) (corresponding to \( F_j \)) there is no mapping \( M_{S_j,T} \) available. To derive the mapping \( M_{S_j,T} \), we generate the mapping \( M_{F_i,F_j} \) and compose the result with the mappings \( M_{F_i,S_i} \) and \( M_{F_j,S_j} \) between forms and its corresponding schema. Hence, the composition generates the intermediate mapping \( M'_{S_j,T} \) by

\[
M'_{S_j,T} := (M_{F_j,S_j})^{-1} \circ (M_{F_i,F_j})^{-1} \circ M_{F_i,S_i} \circ M_{S_i,T}
\]

The inverse of a given mapping \( M_{X,Y} \) is defined as \( (M_{X,Y})^{-1} = ((M_{Y,X})^{-1})^{-1} = M_{Y,X} \). Deleted items, i.e., all items present in \( F_i \) but not in \( F_j \), have no correspondence in \( M_{F_i,F_j} \). Similarly, added items, i.e., all items present in \( F_j \) but not in \( F_i \), also have no correspondence in \( M_{F_i,F_j} \). Only the latter case is of interest for \( M'_{S_j,T} \) because there are potentially schema elements in \( S_j \) (new data items) with missing correspondences. Therefore, we generate a new schema element in \( T \) and inherently new correspondences for each schema element in \( S_j \) which has no counterpart in \( T \) as defined by \( M'_{S_j,T} \). This generated correspondence set is added to \( M'_{S_j,T} \) and builds the final \( M_{S_j,T} \). Note, we do not differentiate between new items in \( F_j \) and those for which the match process does not bring out a correspondence in \( M_{F_i,F_j} \), e.g., due to low similarity of questions texts.

This approach has several advantages. We reuse the mapping \( M_{S_i,T} \). This mapping is manually checked (see below) and, thus, has a good quality. The mappings \( M_{F_i,S_i} \) and \( M_{F_j,S_j} \) are inherently given when a new input form together with its schema is imported into the MDR. Hence, the quality of \( M'_{S_j,T} \) is mainly driven by the quality of the computed mapping \( M_{F_i,F_j} \). Moreover, transformation expressions specified for schema correspondences of \( M_{S_i,T} \) can be reused. For example, a schema correspondence associates a text column of \( S_i \) containing date values that are transformed into dates using a special conversion expression, then we expect that the schema element in \( S_j \) for the same target item comprises also date values and the conversion expression can be applied again.

In a separate process (part “user-based mapping verification and correction” in Fig. 3), we allow users to modify the automatically generated mapping. The user feedback is important.
to correct the current mapping but also has implications to future mappings since it is reu
sed in the next match process. We allow the user to change the target schema but also the mapping itself. The former includes data type changes and aliasing of target columns. We also allow the user to modify the code and label of predefined answers since we have experienced different codes and labels of such answers over different input form versions. Mapping modifications occur when the user replaces the automatically determined transformation expression or decide to split a target column, e.g., when the predefined answer set for items using the same (question) text/description in two consecutive input form versions differ significantly. This decision can not be automatically derived but needs human interaction.

We currently use a spreadsheet to verify and modify a mapping. The spreadsheet is protected in some area to show as much information as possible and to modify as much information as necessary. Once a mapping is verified it can be imported and updated in the central MDR. This verification process on a single mapping can be iteratively executed to continually improve schema mappings. In the near future, we will work on a web-based user interface allowing selected users to verify and modify mappings online.

### 3.2 Schema Matching Techniques and Algorithms

In the following, we introduce selected algorithms computing the mapping for all input forms $F_0 < F_i \leq F_n$ of non-first input forms; the generation of the schema mapping $M_{S_i,T}$ for the first input form $F_0$ is simple as described in the previous subsection. The Algorithm 1 shows the overall matching process generating mappings $M_{S_i,T}$ for non-first forms $F_i$ ($i > 0$); this process has been introduced in the previous subsection. Algorithm 2 and Algorithm 3 show the process of aligning two selected input forms $F_{i-1}$ and $F_i$ in more detail. We use a blocking strategy in the match process determining the form mapping construction. The overall idea of blocking is to limit the search space and, thus, to reduce the number of

**Algorithm 1** Non-First-Form Match

**Require:** Input Forms $F_{i-1}, F_i$, mappings $M_{F_{i-1},S_{i-1}}, M_{F_i,S_i}$, target schema $T$, schema mapping $M_{S_i,T}$

**Ensure:** Schema mapping $M_{S_i,T}$

1. $M_{F_{i-1},F_i} := \text{match-form}(F_{i-1}, F_i)$
2. $M_{S_{i-1},S_i} := \text{compose}(\text{inverse}(M_{F_{i-1},S_{i-1}}), \text{inverse}(M_{F_i,S_i}))$
3. $M'_{S_i,T} := \text{compose}(M_{S_{i-1},S_i}, M_{F_{i-1},S_{i-1}})$
4. $S'_{\text{non-matched}} := S_i \setminus \text{domain}(M'_{S_i,T})$
5. Create schema mapping $M''_{S'_{\text{non-matched}},T}$ with empty correspondence set
6. For each $e_{S_{i-1}} \in S'_{\text{non-matched}}$
7. Create new schema element (column) $e_t$ in target schema $T$
8. Create new correspondence $c(e_{S_{i-1}}, e_t, 1) \rightarrow M''_{S'_{\text{non-matched}},T}$
9. End
10. $M_{S_i,T} := \text{union}(M'_{S_i,T}, M''_{S'_{\text{non-matched}},T})$
11. Return $M_{S_i,T}$
Algorithm 2 Match-Form

Require: Input Forms $F_{i-1}, F_i$, threshold $t$
Ensure: Form mapping $M_{F_{i-1}, F_i}$
1: for $g_{F_{i-1}} \in G_{F_{i-1}}$ do
2:     for $g_{F_i} \in G_{F_i}$ do
3:         if $g_{F_{i-1}}.title = g_{F_i}.title$ then
4:             $M_{F_{i-1}, F_i} := \text{union}(M_{F_{i-1}, F_i}, \text{match-block}(g_{F_{i-1}}, g_{F_i}, t))$
5:         end if
6:     end for
7: end for
8: return $\text{filterBest}(M_{F_{i-1}, F_i})$

Algorithm 3 Match-Block

Require: Blocks $g_{F_{i-1}}, g_{F_i}$, threshold $t$
Ensure: Block-based schema mapping $M_{g_{F_{i-1}}, g_{F_i}}$
1: create $M_{g_{F_{i-1}}, g_{F_i}}$ with empty correspondence set
2: for $item_{F_{i-1}} \in g_{F_{i-1}}.items$ do
3:     for $item_{F_i} \in g_{F_i}.items$ do
4:         $s := \text{similarity}(item_{F_{i-1}}, item_{F_i}, t)$
5:         if $s \geq t$ then
6:             create correspondence $c(item_{F_{i-1}}, item_{F_i}, s) \rightarrow M_{g_{F_{i-1}}, g_{F_i}}$
7:         end if
8:     end for
9: end for
10: return $M_{g_{F_{i-1}}, g_{F_i}}$

The data items of two blocks are only compared when their corresponding block identifier is identical. The reason for this is twofold. Firstly, in some cases there are a lot of very similar group titles within a single input form, such as questions 1, questions 2, ... or medication 1, medication 2, ... etc. which makes it challenging to find the most similar group. Secondly, some input forms contain recurring items, i.e., a defined list of items (questions) occurring on several pages. In such cases, the participant gives information to an
Algorithm 4 filterBest

Require: Form mapping $M_{F_{i-1}, F_i}$
Ensure: Filtered form mapping $M_{F_{i}, F_{i-1}}$

1: $Set_{ItemDomain} := \emptyset$, $Set_{ItemRange} := \emptyset$
2: $C_{sorted} := \text{sort C of } M_{F_{i-1}, F_i}$ order by descending similarity
3: for $c \in C_{sorted}$ do
4:   if $\text{domain}(c) \in Set_{ItemDomain}$ OR $\text{range}(c) \in Set_{ItemRange}$ then
5:     remove $c$ from $M_{F_{i}, F_{i-1}}$
6:   else
7:     $\text{domain}(c) \rightarrow Set_{ItemDomain}$
8:     $\text{range}(c) \rightarrow Set_{ItemRange}$
9:   end if
10: end for
11: return $M_{F_{i-1}, F_i}$

undefined number of medications, diseases in the past, children etc.; mostly this undefined number is a priori limited by the number of groups that the form designer created. However, such group replications result in multiple correspondences between data items and it is hard to automatically decide which element of form $F_{i-1}$ refers to which element in form $F_i$ when the group information is ignored.

We utilize two specific matchers to decide whether two data items are equivalent. Both matchers take two items as input and return the calculated similarity between them. The first matcher computes the trigram similarity of concatenated item code and text (e.g., question text). The second matcher compares two items by the overlap of their corresponding pre-defined code lists. The reason is that two items using similar question text but mainly differ in their code lists should not be merged since a merge of two items also implies the merge of their code lists. Finally, a correspondence between both items is created and added to the resulting form mapping when the averaged similarity of both matcher exceeds a given threshold $t$.

The match process creates mapping portions for each block-wise comparison (see Algorithm 2) which are added to the intermediate mapping $M'_{F_{i-1}, F_i}$. This mapping typically contains multiple correspondences for a single schema element of $F_{i-1}$ and $F_i$ since the correspondence creation is only limited by the given threshold. Currently, we utilize a threshold of $t = 0.75$ which is small enough to recognize all true correspondences resulting in a high recall (see also Sect. 5). However, the lower the threshold the more correspondences are usually created which normally affects the precision negatively. To reduce the number of correspondences and to increase the precision we apply a filtering step in the post-matching process. The result of the filtering step (see Algorithm 4) is a 1:1 mapping containing a correspondence for each data item to the most similar counterpart which is not used by another correspondence. An equivalent filter algorithm is described in [Me04].
3.3 Schema Merging

Mapping the schema of a second input form to the same target table implies that the associated target schema needs to be adapted. Following our concept, there are two situations in which the target schema is adapted. First, schema elements of the new source schema for which no counterpart in the current target schema could be found are associated with new schema elements that are added to the target schema. The target schema increases since only table columns can be added; we avoid column deletions in the mapping generation process because they would result in losing data. Other possible schema modifications, such as data type transformations, are reported to and solved in the user-based mapping validation, the second process in which the target schema can be adapted. In this process, the user can verify and refine the created mapping. Column deletions would result when the user maps a new column of the source schema for which the mapping process has not found a counterpart and, thus, a new target column has been created. Since the validation process is necessary before the target schema is implemented and data is loaded to the target schema, the deletion of schema elements is only an intermediate step. In case the mappings to a single target table needs to be completely reorganized, we firstly remove and recreate the target table and then load relevant data from source systems afterwards.

4 Schema Matching Infrastructure

We utilize a service-based infrastructure to manage source schemas including corresponding metadata of input forms. Fig. 4 shows an overview of the infrastructure consisting of different input systems, the MDR and the Research Database. There are two types of input systems differentiated by their functionality to use and provide metadata of input forms. We use LimeSurvey [Li16] as online input system which is currently the only system providing metadata and data. The commercial system Teleform is used to design paper-based input forms which can be automatically scanned and converted (OCR) after they have been filled with data by study participants. Although, Teleform system manages metadata about the designed input form, we were unable to use them since form designers in LIFE used the graphical mode to design forms which brings out no utilizable metadata. Therefore, we manually created metadata according to the designed input forms. There is a large amount of external sources including laboratory data and those generated by medical devices and/or provided in spreadsheets etc. The MDR imports metadata about input forms and schema directly from the API of the LimeSurvey system. The metadata of other input systems are specified using a spreadsheet template. All collected metadata data are accessible by a comprehensive RESTful web-service interface. We use a web-based application to import metadata as well as creating and managing mappings. Mappings can be downloaded and distributed to research groups who have provided input forms of an assessment. They validate and correct mappings; mappings within the repository are updated when mapping spreadsheets are returned and uploaded. We will work on a web-application allowing to adapt mappings directly instead of using spreadsheets.

A fundamental part of the MDR infrastructure is the central repository. Fig. 5 shows the high-level relational schema of this repository. It consists of two main parts for managing schemas, code lists and their mappings. For the first part, the schema and mapping portion,
we explicitly differentiate between source and target schemas (see repository tables holding source and target table and column metadata). Unlike target schema, source schemas contain selected descriptions of the corresponding input form, i.e., information about the form, groups and items. This schema portion is denormalized but simplifies the import and querying and will never updated since source schemas of input forms will never change. Each imported source schema and created target schema is associated with a source (table Source). We additionally describe sources by connection information allowing to access sources, e.g., when the target schema is manipulated and when the data are extracted, transformed and loaded from sources to the target.

Code lists and transformation expressions are managed in the second portion of the repository schema. We differentiate between code lists of sources and target. Source code lists are defined when the input forms and their corresponding schema is imported whereas target code lists are created and adopted by the match process. Target code lists can be adapted by users when the corresponding schema mapping is validated to modify codes and labels, e.g., to replace alphanumeric with numeric codes. During the mapping generation process a mapping is created interrelating source and target code lists. The code list mapping is then used in the ETL process when data need to be transformed.

There are columns in source and target schemas which are not associated with code lists (e.g., text input such as comments or numeric values). To transform values of such columns we define and implement database functions on demand. For example, we implemented general functions converting values between different data types but also specific functions, such as transforming values from pounds to kilograms. Moreover, we also experienced the requirement to transform only specific values. Such values are typically expressions
for a special state, e.g., to express that a value could not be measured etc. Such “default” values can be differently defined by several groups designing the input forms but should be harmonized when the data are transferred to the target. Therefore, we pre-define value mappings (table Single Value Transformation) defining which source value is transformed into which target value. Transformations are associated to column mappings and, thus, are not globally executed per default.

Each source and target column is associated with the data type it is implemented. However, different database management systems including MySQL, MSSQL, and Oracle provide similar data types which differ at least in their name (MySQL: VARCHAR → Oracle: VARCHAR2). While data types of a source schema column are associated (table Data Type) in the import process, we provide a predefined data type mapping to construct the target schema using the correct data type. Unlike other mappings, the data type mappings do not map two equivalent data types but associate data type patterns to concrete target data types. A data type pattern represents multiple data types using the same type (e.g., VARCHAR, NUMERIC) but varying in their length and precision; length and precision are restricted by an upper and lower bound. Using data type patterns instead of concrete data types necessitates only few predefined data type mappings to address type differences of several database management systems. All these kinds of transformations can be specified for a single correspondence (table Column Mapping) and influences the target schema creation or adoption as well as data transformation processes.

5 Evaluation

In this section, we first give an overview about metadata and then discuss selected results.
5.1 Evaluation Data and Setup

System and matcher evaluation is typically difficult in the absence of a gold standard of an at least similar scenario. We use metadata and available mappings for the evaluation. This data has been collected over the last five years (since 2011). Mappings are verified by a small set of persons who have been qualified by special internal trainings. Therefore, we use these available mappings as gold standard for the evaluation. Tab. 1 shows an overview of the assessment and input form quantity structure per input systems and examination type. Most assessments has been implemented by input forms in LimeSurvey. The Teleform system is mainly used for questionnaires. Laboratory Data and input forms for process documentation is captured by our in-house LIMS (Laboratory Information Management System). All other data sources, i.e., spreadsheets, desktop databases etc. are subsumed by “External Sources”. Especially in LimeSurvey and Teleform, there are 2 to 4 input forms per assessment. Assessments of the LIMS and of external sources are mainly implemented by a single input form. These forms are typically “virtual” forms, i.e., they are created to capture data generated by laboratory devices (within the wet lab) or are extracted, prepared, and imported from medical devices into an import schema. An exception includes physical examination forms (no laboratory results) of the LIMS. These forms are input forms to document specimen extraction processes. The complexity of assessments (measured by average number of items per form) differs widely. It ranges from 10 items (input forms for laboratory processes) to approx. 170 items used in interviews and, thus, does not depend on the input system but on the examination type. We also see that complex assessments are mainly implemented in multiple input forms. Hence, a manual mapping generation is a very resource-intensive task.

| Data Source | Examination Type | | [Assessments] | [Forms] | avg ([Forms per Assessment]) | avg ([Items per Form]), (min - max) |
|-------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------|
| LimeSurvey  | Interview       |             | 88          | 195                       | 2.2                                | 133.43 (19 - 844)                  |
|             | Questionnaire   |             | 287         | 568                       | 1.9                                | 53.44 (13 - 728)                   |
|             | Phys. Examination |             | 218         | 438                       | 2.0                                | 74.20 (13 - 789)                   |
| Teleform    | Questionnaire   |             | 59          | 194                       | 3.3                                | 86.51 (37 - 411)                   |
|             | Phys. Examination |             | 1           | 4                         | 4.0                                | 36.75 (36 - 37)                    |
| LIMS        | Laboratory Data |             | 121         | 123                       | 1.0                                | 20.56 (14 - 191)                   |
|             | Phys. Examination |             | 57          | 89                        | 1.6                                | 10.63 (8 - 17)                     |
| External Sources | Interview |             | 3           | 3                         | 1.0                                | 105.00 (18 - 206)                  |
|             | Laboratory Data |             | 1           | 1                         | 1.0                                | 25.10 (25 - 25)                    |
|             | Questionnaire   |             | 18          | 18                        | 1.0                                | 59.17 (16 - 153)                   |
|             | Phys. Examination |             | 71          | 74                        | 1.1                                | 48.35 (6 - 276)                    |

Tab. 1: Quatity Structure of Input Forms and Items per Examination Type and Input System
The idea of Tab. 2 is to show the number and complexity of generated mappings. In particular, it counts assessments (target schemas) in column 2 which are associated with a given number of input forms (= |source schema| = |mappings|) in column 1. For example, there are 538 assessments interrelated with only a single input form, 138 assessments which are associated with two input forms and so on. Hence, more than the half of available assessments are associated with a single input form for which the match generation process has not been applied. This set includes old input forms which are used as a test form but also new input forms which haven’t changed so far. The number of assessments decreases for an increasing number of mappings. There is only one assessment available which is associated to 10 input forms, each contains on average 103 items.

### Quality Evaluation

The goal of this evaluation is to analyze the quality of the match generation process. The evaluation utilizes the available and manually checked mappings from the productive instance as gold standard; we only include assessments to which two or more input forms are associated (see Tab. 2 column 1). We created mappings by varying the distance measure and the threshold. We implemented different trigram distance measures and the Levenshtein distance; distances are converted into similarities $0 \leq \text{sim}(x, y) \leq 1 \subset R$. The similarity value 0 means that x and y are maximal distant and the value 1 stands for equality of x and y. Fig. 6 consists of three charts showing precision, recall and F-measure for the for different distance measures and threshold values ranging from 0.5 to 1.0 (stepwidth 0.1). All utilized distance measures have a higher precision than 95%; TrigramJaccard shows the best precision over all measured thresholds while Levenshtein distance measure result in smallest precision values but with a small offset to TrigramJaccard. In constrast to precision, Levenshtein’s recall values are on the high end while those of TrigramJaccard are on the lower end. The lowest recall (63%) obtain all distance measures for the threshold 1.0. Except TrigramJaccard all used distance measures achieve an F-measure higher than 92% using a threshold from 0.5 to 0.9. The lowest F-measure (77%) for all distance measures is obtained for threshold 1.0. This means that there are only minimal changes in question texts.
of corresponding data items between different input forms. Larger text changes normally result in a shifted meaning of data item and, thus, are also mapped to a new target column. However, diving into the results shows that our approach doesn’t recognize negations, i.e., data items using nearly the same question text and same code lists but the meaning is turned around. The word “not” is too short to influence the distance measures. Moreover, there is also a small set of data items which utilize images instead of question text. The MDR doesn’t import images, i.e., the item description (question text) for such data items is empty. Hence, mappings between such items are typically false positive by chance.

5.3 Blocking Evaluation

The goal of this evaluation is to analyze the efficiency of the blocking strategy used by our approach. There are different other potential blocking strategies; Fig. 7 shows the number of comparisons (during mapping generation process) using these blocking strategies. Note, a matching is only executed when there are multiple input forms per assessment available (see Tab. 2). A brute force strategy doesn’t take a blocking into account and, thus, compares each items of each assessment with each other item (independently from the assessment). The resulting high number (6,982,700,000) of item comparisons can be decreased by a factor of 146 (to 47,810,000 comparisons) when generating the cross product of items of input forms belonging to the same assessment (target). We call this strategy assessment-wide brute force. Next, this number of comparisons can be halved (to 23,910,000 comparisons) when a matching is only executed between items of unmatched and already matched input forms. Computing correspondence similarities of items of a single unmapped input form with items of a single but already matched input form, e.g., the previous form as described above, results in, again, the half number of correspondences (11,410,000 comparisons).
This number of comparisons can be continuously decreased by a factor of 3 (to $3.8 \times 10^6$) when only items of equally named item groups between different input forms are matched. This is an overall reduction factor of 1,838 to the brute force strategy. This group blocking strategy is very efficient but simultaneously restrictive which could result in missing correspondences when two item groups are differently named but containing similar items for which a mapping should be generated. However, as described in Sect. 3, subsequent input forms of a single input system are usually copied and modified such that group names typically keep unchanged. Only group names of input forms between different input systems need to be synchronized.

6 Related Work

There have been several project grants over the last one and a half decades with the goal to scientifically determine metadata management in medical sciences and to design and implement tools managing metadata (see e.g. [St09]). The National Metadata Repository (N-MDR) is an attempt to create a software toolset to be used in medical research. It utilizes metadata foundations described by the ISO standard 11179 [IS16]. However, there were no implementations of the N-MDR available when LIFE has been started 2009. The same holds for the MDM-Portal [Du16] containing a large amount of input forms. The Operational Data Model (ODM) [Ku09] is a data exchange format provided by the CDISC consortia. All, the N-MDR, ISO standard and the ODM format, describe metadata on assessment level but don’t contain metadata structures for input forms and their mappings to target assessments.

A large amount of related work on schema matching has been published over the last one and a half decades. Selected surveys [RB01, Me04, Do06, ES07, DR07, LN07, BBR11] give a good introduction, overview and recent advances of the topic. Numerous software tools have been designed and implemented for schema matching including Cupid [MBR01], COMA/COMA++ [DR02, Au05], and AgreementMaker [CAS09] to name only a few of them. However, many tools automatically compute schema mappings and neither capture explicit user feedback nor implement and adopt the target schema. Moreover, several tools can only be executed in stand-alone mode. Our MDR is implemented as a service-based infrastructure; it runs as service and interacts with other applications in our production environment over a REST-ful web-service interface.

Like model-management approaches [Be03, Me05, QKL07] and tools, such as RONDO [MRB03], our approach derives and implements the target schema in a given relational database. In contrast to these approaches we only add new columns to the target schema.
and recreate the target schema or portions of it when other operations (attribute changes or deletions) are required. This strategy is simple but does not require powerful model-management-operators as introduced in [Me04].

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented an approach to manage metadata for data integration in medical sciences. The data are captured by different input forms and systems. Potentially, there are multiple input forms per assessment. They belong to different input systems but also structurally change over time. Metadata about input forms and schemas are collected and centrally managed by a Metadata Repository (MDR). Based on these metadata, the MDR automatically generates target schemas and schema mappings in a two step process. The first step derives the target schema from a schema of a selected input form. The second step iteratively creates mappings between schemas of input forms and the target schema by mapping data items of input forms. Target schema and schema mappings are extensively used by the ETL process to transfer data from data source to the research database. Moreover, the metadata are used to automatically create quality reports and to generate annotated schema forms.

Our approach is completely implemented using a service-based infrastructure running in a production environment of the large bio-medical research project LIFE. It has been applied for many input forms resulting in a target database with more than 900 assessments (target tables). We evaluated the schema matching approach by using manually verified mappings. In the future, we will associate data items of the target schema with public ontologies and terminologies as prerequisite to exchange and compare data with other studies on item level.

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