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Data Quality Problems beyond Consistency and Deduplication

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Abstract. Recent work on data quality has primarily focused on data repairing algorithms for improving data consistency and record matching methods for data deduplication. This paper accentuates several other challenging issues that are essential to developing data cleaning systems, namely, error correction with performance guarantees, unification of data repairing and record matching, relative information completeness, and data currency. We provide an overview of recent advances in the study of these issues, and advocate the need for developing a logical framework for a uniform treatment of these issues.

1 Introduction

Data quality has been a longstanding line of research for decades \cite{20}. It is estimated that dirty data costs US companies alone 600 billion dollars each year \cite{9}. With this comes the need for data cleaning systems to improve data quality, and to add accuracy and value to business processes. As an example, data cleaning tools deliver “an overall business value of more than 600 million GBP” each year at BT \cite{31}. In light of this, the market for data cleaning systems is growing at 17% annually, substantially outpacing the 7% average of other IT segments \cite{21}.

There has been a host of work on data quality. Recent work has primarily focused on two central issues:

- \textit{Recording matching}: to identify tuples that refer to the same real-world entity \cite{10}, for data deduplication.
- \textit{Data repairing}: to find a repair (database) that is consistent \textit{w.r.t.} integrity constraints and minimally differs from the original data, by detecting and fixing (semantic) errors, to improve data consistency \cite{1}.\pagebreak

Most data cleaning systems on the market support record matching, \textit{e.g.}, ETL tools (extraction, transformation, loading; see \cite{24} for a survey). Some prototype systems also provide a data repairing functionality \cite{3,6,28,37}.\pagebreak

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There are other data quality issues that are not limited to algorithms for record matching or data repairing, but are also essential to developing practical data cleaning systems. Unfortunately, these issues have not received much attention from the research community. In particular, we highlight the following.

(1) **Certain fixes.** Prior data repairing methods are typically heuristic. They attempt to fix all the errors in the data, but do not guarantee that the generated fixes are correct. Worse still, new errors may be introduced when trying to repair the data. In practice, we often want to find certain fixes, i.e., fixes that are guaranteed to be correct, although we might not be able to fix all the errors in the data. The need for certain fixes is particularly evident when repairing critical data, e.g., medical data, in which a seemingly minor error may mean life or death.

(2) **Unification of data repairing and record matching.** Data repairing and record matching are typically treated as independent processes. However, the two processes often interact with each other: repairing helps us identify matches, and vice versa. This suggests that we unify repairing and matching by interleaving their operations.

(3) **Information completeness.** A data cleaning system should be able to tell us, given a database $D$ and a query $Q$, whether $D$ has complete information to answer $Q$. If the information is missing from $D$, the answer to $Q$ in $D$ is hardly sensible. Information completeness is as important as data consistency and deduplication. Indeed, pieces of information perceived as being needed for clinical decisions were missing from 13.6\% to 81\% of the time [29]. Traditionally we deal with this issue by adopting either the Closed World Assumption (CWA) or the Open World Assumption (OWA). However, real-life databases are often neither entirely closed-world nor entirely open-world. This asks for a revision of the CWA, OWA and the model of information completeness.

(4) **Data currency.** The quality of data in a real-life database quickly degenerates over time. It is estimated that “2\% of records in a customer file become obsolete in one month” [9]. That is, in a database of 500,000 customer records, 10,000 records may go stale per month, 120,000 records per year, and within two years about 50\% of all the records may be obsolete. As a result, we often find that multiple values of the same entity reside in a database, which were once correct, i.e., they were true values of the entity at some time, but most of them have become obsolete and inaccurate. This highlights the need for studying data currency, to identify the current values of entities in a database, and to answer queries with the current values.

This paper aims to bring attention to these issues. We present an overview of recent work on these four issues (in Sections 2 – 5, respectively). We argue that these issues interact with each other and also interact with data repairing and record matching; they should be uniformly treated in a logical framework (Section 6). We refer to the monograph [15] for a more complete treatment of these issues.
2 Certain Fixes Instead of Heuristics Repairs

Data repairing detects and fixes errors by using integrity constraints, such that data conflicts and errors emerge as violations of the constraints. A variety of constraints have been studied for data repairing, such as denial constraints [3], traditional functional and inclusion dependencies [1], and conditional dependencies [4,6,16,37].

Integrity constraints are capable of detecting whether the data is dirty, i.e., the presence of errors in the data. However, they do not tell us which attributes of a tuple have errors and how we should correct the errors.

Example 1: Consider an input tuple \( t_1 \) given in Fig. 1(a). It specifies a transaction record (\( \text{tran} \)) of a credit card: an item purchased at place \( \text{where} \) and time \( \text{when} \), by a UK customer who is identified by name (\( \text{fn}, \text{ln} \)), phone number (area code \( \text{AC} \) and phone \( \text{phn} \)) and address (street \( \text{str} \), city \( \text{city} \), zip code). Here \( \text{phn} \) is either home phone or mobile phone, indicated by \( \text{type} \) (1 or 2, respectively). It is known that when \( \text{AC} = 020 \), city should be London (Ldn), and when \( \text{AC} = 131 \), city must be Edinburgh (Edi). This semantics of the data can be expressed as conditional functional dependencies (CFDs) [16]. The CFDs detect that tuple \( t_1 \) is inconsistent: \( t_1[\text{AC}] = 020 \) but \( t_1[\text{city}] = \text{Edi} \). However, they do not tell us which of \( t_1[\text{AC}] \) and \( t_1[\text{city}] \) is wrong, and to what value it should be changed.

In light of this, prior data repairing methods are heuristic: they do not guarantee to find correct fixes in data repairing. Worse still, they may introduce new errors when trying to repair the data. Indeed, the correct values of \( t_1[\text{AC}, \text{city}] \) are (131, Edi). Nevertheless, all of the prior methods may opt to change \( t_1[\text{city}] \) to Ldn; this does not fix the erroneous attribute \( t_1[\text{AC}] \) and worse still, messes up the correct attribute \( t[\text{city}] \).

In practice it is often necessary to guarantee each fix to be certain, i.e., assured correct (validated). This can done by using master data and editing rules. Master data (a.k.a. reference data) is a single repository of high-quality data that provides various applications in an enterprise with a synchronized, consistent view of its core business entities [27]. It is increasingly common for enterprises to maintain master data. Editing rules tell us which attributes of a tuple are wrong and what values from master data they should take, provided that some attributes are validated. As opposed to integrity constraints, they specify updates and have a dynamic semantics.
Example 2: A master relation $D_m$ is shown in Fig. 1(b). Each tuple in $D_m$ specifies a UK credit card holder (card) in terms of the name, home phone (Hphn), mobile phone (Mphn), address and gender. Consider the following editing rules:

- eR1: for an input tuple $t$, if there exists a master tuple $s$ in $D_m$ such that $s[zip] = t[zip]$, then $t$ should be updated by $t[AC, str, city] := s[AC, str, city]$, provided that $t[zip]$ is validated (e.g., assured by the users).

- eR2: if $t[type] = 2$ (indicating mobile phone) and if there exists a master tuple $s$ with $s[phn] = t[Mphn]$, then $t[FN, LN] := s[FN, LN]$, as long as $t[phn, type]$ are already validated.

When $t[zip]$ is assured correct, eR1 corrects attribute $t[AC]$ and enriches $t[AC]$, by taking values from master data $s[AC, str]$. Note that when the editing rule and $t[zip]$ are validated, the fix to $t[AC]$ is certainly correct. Similarly, when $t[Mphn, type]$ are validated, eR2 standardizes $t[AC]$ by changing Bob to Robert.

Certain Fixes. More specifically, we define certain fixes as follows (see [19] for details). Consider an input tuple $t$ and a set $Z$ of attributes such that $t[Z]$ is validated. We use $t \rightarrow_{(\varphi, t_m, Z)} t'$ to denote that tuple $t'$ is obtained from $t$ by means of updates specified in an editing rule $\varphi$ with a master tuple $t_m$. We denote by $\text{ext}(Z, \varphi, t_m)$ the validated region of $t'$, which includes attributes in $Z$ and the attributes updated by $\varphi$ with $t_m$.

Given a set $\Theta$ of editing rules and master data $D_m$, we say that a tuple $t'$ is a fix of $t$ by $(\Theta, D_m)$, denoted by $t \rightarrow_{(\Theta, D_m, Z)} t'$, if there exists a finite sequence $t_0 = t, t_1, \ldots, t_k = t'$ of tuples, and for each $i \in [1, k]$, there exists an editing rule $\varphi_i \in \Theta$ and a master tuple $t_{m_i} \in D_m$ such that (a) $t_{i-1} \rightarrow_{(\varphi_i, t_{m_i}, Z_{i-1})} t_i$, where $Z_i = \text{ext}(Z_{i-1}, \varphi_i, t_{m_{i-1}})$; (b) $t_i[Z] = t[Z]$; and (c) for all $\varphi \in \Theta$ and $t_m \in D_m$, $t' \rightarrow_{(\varphi, t_m, Z_m)} t'$. Intuitively, (a) each step of the correcting process is justified; (b) $t[Z]$ is validated and hence, remains unchanged; and (c) $t'$ is a fixpoint and cannot be further updated, i.e., the changes incurred to $t$ by $(\Theta, D_m)$ are “maximum”.

We say that $t$ has a certain fix by $(\Theta, D_m)$ w.r.t. $Z$ if there exists a unique $t'$ such that $t \rightarrow_{(\Theta, D_m, Z)} t'$.

Given a set $\Theta$ of editing rules and master data $D_m$, one can monitor input tuples and find their certain fixes. For each tuple $t$, the user may assure that a (possibly empty) set $t[Z]$ of attributes is correct. There is an algorithm that, given $Z$, iteratively employs $\Theta$ and $D_m$ to find a certain fix for as many attributes in $t$ as possible. The correctness of the fix is guaranteed by master data and editing rules. As opposed to data repairing, we do not stress fixing all the attributes of $t$ by requiring the users to validate a large region $t[Z]$. Nevertheless, when the users opt to find a certain fix for the entire $t$, there is an algorithm that, given $Z$, identifies a minimal set $Z'$ of attributes such that when $t[Z \cup Z']$ is validated, a certain fix for $t$ is warranted [19]. One can recommend $t[Z']$ to the users for validating, and the users may respond with more validated attributes (not necessarily $t[Z']$). From these an interactive process readily follows that proceeds until all the attributes of $t$ are validated.
Fundamental Problems. There are several important problems associated with certain fixes. Consider tuples of a relation schema $R$. One problem is to determine, given a set $\Theta$ of editing rules, master data $D_m$, and a set $Z$ of attributes of schema $R$, whether for all tuples $t$ of $R$, if $t[Z]$ is validated then $t$ has a certain fix by $(\Theta,D_m)$. In other words, it is to determine whether $\Theta$ and $D_m$ have conflicts. Another problem is to find, given $\Theta$ and $D_m$, a minimal set $Z$ of attributes such that for all tuples $t$ of schema $R$, if $t[Z]$ is validated then all the attributes of $t$ can be validated by $(\Theta,D_m)$. Intuitively, it is to find a minimal region for the users to validate. It is shown that these are intractable [19], but efficient heuristic algorithms have been developed for these problems.

3 Interaction between Repairing and Record Matching

Current data cleaning systems typically treat data repairing and record matching as separate processes, executed consecutively one after another. In practice, the two processes often interact with each other, as illustrated below.

Example 3: Consider the transaction records of Fig. 1(a) and master data for credit card holders given in Fig. 1(b), referred to as $\text{tran}$ and $\text{card}$ tuples, respectively. Following [11,16], we use CFDs $\varphi_1$–$\varphi_2$ to specify the consistency of the $\text{tran}$ data, and a matching dependency (MD) $\psi$ as a rule for matching $\text{tran}$ records and $\text{card}$ tuples:

$$\varphi_1: \text{tran}(\{AC=131\} \rightarrow \{\text{city} = \text{Edi}\}),$$
$$\varphi_2: \text{tran}(\{\text{type} = 1, \text{city}, \text{phn}\} \rightarrow \{\text{str}, \text{AC}, \text{zip}\}),$$
$$\psi: \text{tran}[\text{LN}, \text{city}, \text{str}, \text{zip}] = \text{card}[\text{LN}, \text{city}, \text{str}, \text{zip}] \land \text{tran}[\text{FN}] \approx \text{card}[\text{FN}]$$
$$\land \text{tran}[\text{type}] = 1 \rightarrow \text{tran}[\text{FN}, \text{phn}] \iff \text{card}[\text{FN}, \text{Hphn}]$$

Here (1) CFD $\varphi_1$ asserts that if the area code is 131, the city must be Edi; (2) CFD $\varphi_2$ states that when $\text{type} = 1$ (i.e., $\text{phn}$ is mobile phone), city and home phone uniquely determine street, area code and zip code; and (3) MD $\psi$ assures that for any $\text{tran}$ record $t$ and any $\text{card}$ tuple, if they have the same last name and address, and if their first names are similar, then their home phone and FN attributes can be identified (when $t[\text{type}] = 1$).

Consider tuples $t_2$ and $t_3$ in Fig. 1(a). One suspects that the two refer to the same person. If so, then these records show that the same person made purchases in the UK and in the US at about the same time (taking into account the 5-hour time difference between the two countries), indicating that a fraud has likely been committed.

Observe that $t_2$ and $t_3$ are quite different in their $\text{FN, city, str, zip}$ and $\text{phn}$ attributes. No rule allows us to identify the two directly. Nonetheless, they can be matched by interleaved matching and repairing operations:

(a) get a repair $t'_2$ of $t_2$ such that $t'_2[\text{city}] = \text{Edi}$ by applying CFD $\varphi_1$ to $t_2$;
(b) match $t'_2$ with master tuple $s_2$, to which MD $\psi$ can be applied; as a result of the matching operation, get a repair $t''_2$ of $t_2$ by correcting $t''_2[\text{phn}]$ with the master data $s_2[\text{Hphn}] = 6884563;
(c) find a repair $t_3'$ of $t_3$ by applying CFD $\varphi_2$ to $t_2''$ and $t_3$: since $t_2''$ and $t_3$ agree on their city and phn attributes and $t_2''[\text{type}] = t_3[\text{type}] = 1$, $\varphi_2$ can be applied. This allows us to enrich $t_3[\text{str}]$ and fix $t_3[\text{zip}]$ by taking corresponding values from $t_2''$, which have been confirmed correct with the master data in step (b).

Note that $t_2''$ and $t_3'$ agree on every attribute in connection with personal information. It is evident that they indeed refer to the same person; hence a fraud. Observe that not only repairing helps matching (e.g., from step (a) to (b)), but matching also helps us repair the data (e.g., step (c) is doable only after the matching in (b)).

**Unification.** The example tells us the following. (1) When taken together, record matching and data repairing perform much better than being treated as separate processes. (2) To make practical use of their interaction, matching and repairing operations should be *interleaved*, rather than executing the two processes one after another. Unifying matching and repairing, we state the data cleaning problem as follows.

Given a database $D$, master data $D_m$, integrity constraints $\Sigma$ and matching rules $\Gamma$, the data cleaning problem is to find a repair $D_r$ of $D$ such that (a) $D_r$ is consistent (i.e., satisfying $\Sigma$), (b) no more tuples in $D_r$ can be matched to master tuples in $D_m$ by matching rules of $\Gamma$, and (c) $D_r$ minimally differs from the original data $D$.

The interaction between repairing and matching has been observed in, e.g., [8,18,36]. Here, [8,36] investigate record matching in the presence of error data, and suggest to integrate matching and data merge/fusion. In [18], a rule-based framework is proposed in which CFDs and MDs are both treated as cleaning rules. These rules tell us how to fix errors by updating the data, and allow us to interleave repairing and matching operations. Based on these rules, algorithms have been developed to clean data, in the presence or in the absence of master data. It has been shown that by unifying repairing and matching, these algorithms substantially improve the accuracy of repairing and matching taken as separate processes [18].

**Fundamental Problems.** When integrity constraints (for data repairing) and matching rules (for record matching) are taken together, the classical consistency and implication problems for constraints need to be revisited. These issues are investigated for CFDs and MDs in [18], which shows that these problems remain to be NP-complete and coNP-complete, respectively, the same as their counterparts for CFDs alone.

There are two fundamental questions about rule-based data cleaning. The **termination problem** is to decide whether a cleaning process stops, i.e., it reaches a fixpoint, such that no more rules can be applied. The **determinism problem** asks whether all terminating cleaning processes end up with the same repair, i.e., all of them reach a unique fixpoint. When CFDs and MDs are treated as cleaning rules, both problems are PSPACE-complete [18].
4 Relative Information Completeness

Given a database $D$ and a query $Q$, we want to know whether a complete answer to $Q$ can be found in $D$. Traditional work on this issue adopts either the CWA or the OWA. The CWA assumes that a database contains all the tuples representing real-world entities, but the values of some attributes in those tuples are possibly missing. The OWA assumes that tuples may also be missing. As remarked earlier, few real-life databases are closed-world. Under the OWA, one can often expect few sensible queries to find complete answers.

Databases in real world are often neither entirely closed-world nor entirely open-world. This is particularly evident in the presence of master data. Master data of an enterprise contains complete information about the enterprise in certain aspects, e.g., employees and projects, and can be regarded as a closed-world database. Meanwhile a number of other databases may be in use in the enterprise. On one hand, these databases may not be complete, e.g., some sale transactions may be missing. On the other hand, certain parts of the databases are constrained by the master data, e.g., employees. In other words, these databases are partially closed.

**Example 4:** Consider a company that maintains $\text{DCust}(cid, name, AC, phn)$, a master data relation consisting of all its domestic customers, in which a tuple $(c, n, a, p)$ specifies the id $c$, name $n$, area code $a$ and phone number $p$ of a customer. In addition, the company also has databases (a) $\text{Cust}(cid, name, CC, AC, phn)$ of all customers of the company, domestic (with country code $CC = 01$) or international; and (b) $\text{Supt}(eid, dept, cid)$, indicating that employee $eid$ in dept supports customer $cid$. Neither $\text{Cust}$ nor $\text{Supt}$ is part of the master data.

Consider query $Q_1$ posed on $\text{Supt}$ to find all the customers in NJ with $AC = 908$ who are supported by the employee with $eid = e_0$. The query may not get a complete answer since some tuples may be missing from $\text{Supt}$. However, if $Q_1$ returns all NJ customers with $AC = 908$ found in master data $\text{DCust}$, then we can safely conclude that $\text{Supt}$ is complete for $Q_1$ and hence, there is no need to add more tuples to $\text{Supt}$ to answer $Q_1$.

Now consider a query $Q_2$ to find all customers supported by $e_0$. Note that the international customers of $\text{Cust}$ are not constrained by master data. As a result, we are not able to tell whether any $\text{Supt}$ tuples in connection with $e_0$ are missing. Worse still, we do not even know what tuples should be added to $\text{Supt}$ to make the answer to $Q_2$ in $\text{Supt}$ complete. Nevertheless, if we know that $(eid \rightarrow dept, cid)$ is a functional dependency (FD) on $\text{Supt}$, then we can also conclude that the answer to $Q_2$ in $\text{Supt}$ is complete as long as it is nonempty.

Relative Information Completeness. A practical data cleaning system should be able to decide whether a database has complete information to answer a query. To this end, as shown by the example, we need a model to specify partially closed databases. There has been a host of work on incomplete information, notably representation systems (e.g., $c$-tables, $v$-tables) and models for
missing tuples \cite{22,26,30} (see \cite{35} for a survey). However, the prior work neither considers master data nor studies the question mentioned above.

Given a database \(D\) and master data \(D_m\), we specify a set \(V\) of containment constraints \cite{13}. A containment constraint is of the form \(q(D) \subseteq p(D_m)\), where \(q\) is a query posed on \(D\), and \(p\) is a simple projection query on \(D_m\). Intuitively, the part of \(D\) that is constrained by \(V\) is bounded by \(D_m\), while the rest is open-world. We refer to a database \(D\) that satisfies \(V\) as a partially closed database \(w.r.t. (D_m, V)\). A database \(D'\) is a partially closed extension of \(D\) if \(D \subseteq D'\) and \(D\) is partially closed \(w.r.t. (D_m, V)\) itself.

A partially closed database \(D\) is said to be complete for a query \(Q\) relative to \((D_m, V)\) if for all partially closed extensions \(D'\) of \(D\) \(w.r.t. (D_m, V)\), \(Q(D') = Q(D)\). That is, there is no need for adding new tuples to \(D\), since they either violate the containment constraints, or do not change the answer to \(Q\). In other words, \(D\) already contains complete information necessary for answering \(Q\) (see \cite{12,13} for details).

**Fundamental Problems.** One problem is to determine, given a query \(Q\), master data \(D_m\), a set \(V\) of containment constraints, and a partially closed database \(D \ w.r.t. (D_m, V)\), whether \(D\) is complete for \(Q\) relatively to \((D_m, V)\). Another problem is to decide, given \(Q\), \(D_m\) and \(V\), whether there exists a partially closed database \(D\) that is complete for \(Q\) relatively to \((D_m, V)\). The analyses of these problems help us identify what data should be collected in order to answer a query. These problems are investigated in \cite{12,13}. As indicated by Example 4, the complexity of these problems varies depending on different queries and containment constraints \cite{12,13}.

## 5 Data Currency

A data cleaning system should support data currency analysis: among multiple (possibly obsolete) values of an entity, it is to identify the latest value of the entity, and to answer queries using the latest values only. The question of data currency would be trivial if all data values carried valid timestamps. In practice, however, timestamps are often unavailable or imprecise \cite{38}. Add to this the complication that data values are often copied or imported from other sources \cite{2,7}, which may not support a uniform scheme of timestamps.

Not all is lost. It is often possible to deduce currency orders from the semantics of the data. Moreover, data copied from other sources inherit currency orders in those sources. Taken together, these often allow us to deduce sufficient current values of the data to answer certain queries, as illustrated below.

**Example 5:** Consider two relations of a company shown in Fig. 2. Each \texttt{Emp} tuple is an employee record with name, address (country, zip code, street), salary and marital status. A \texttt{Dept} tuple specifies the name, manager and budget of a department. Records in these relations may be stale, and do not carry timestamps. Here tuples \(t_1\), \(t_2\) and \(t_3\) refer to the same employee Mary, while \(t_4\) does not refer to Mary. Consider the following queries posed on these relations.

(1) Query \(Q_1\) is to find Mary’s current salary. No timestamps are available for
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>UK</td>
<td>EH9 1SU</td>
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<td>80k</td>
<td>married</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bob</td>
<td>Luth</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>DB9 FJ8</td>
<td>8 Cowan St</td>
<td>80k</td>
<td>married</td>
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(a) Relation Emp

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<th>mgrAddr</th>
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</table>

(b) Relation Dept

Fig. 2. A company database

us to tell which of 50k or 80k is more current. However, we may know that the salary of each employee in the company does not decrease, as commonly found in the real world. This yields currency orders \( t_1 \prec_{\text{salary}} t_3 \) and \( t_2 \prec_{\text{salary}} t_3 \), i.e., \( t_3 \) is more current than \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \) in attribute salary; in other words, \( t_3[\text{salary}] \) is more current than both \( t_1[\text{salary}] \) and \( t_2[\text{salary}] \). Hence the answer to \( Q_1 \) is 80k.

(2) Query \( Q_2 \) is to find Mary’s current last name. We can no longer answer \( Q_2 \) as above. Nonetheless, we may know the following: (a) marital status can only change from single to married and from married to divorced; but not from married to single; and (b) Emp tuples with the most current marital status also contain the most current last name. Therefore, \( t_1 \prec_{\text{LN}} t_2 \) and \( t_1 \prec_{\text{LN}} t_3 \), and the answer to \( Q_2 \) is Dupont.

(3) Query \( Q_3 \) is to find Mary’s current address. We may know that Emp tuples with the most current salary contain the most current address. From this and (1) above, we know that the answer to \( Q_3 \) is “6 Main St”.

(4) Finally, query \( Q_4 \) is to find the current budget of department R&D. Again no timestamps are available for us to evaluate the query. However, we may know the following: (a) Dept tuples \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \) have copied their mgrAddr values from \( t_1[\text{street, zip, county}] \) in Emp; similarly, \( s_3 \) has copied from \( t_3 \), and \( s_4 \) from \( t_4 \); and (b) in Dept, tuples with the most current address also have the most current budget. Taken together, these tell us that \( s_1 \prec_{\text{budget}} s_3 \) and \( s_2 \prec_{\text{budget}} s_3 \). Observe that we do not know which budget in \( s_3 \) or \( s_4 \) is more current. Nevertheless, in either case the most current budget is 6000k, and hence it is the answer to \( Q_4 \).

\( \square \)

**Modeling Data Currency.** To study data currency we need to specify currency orders on data values in the absence of timestamps but in the presence of copy relationships. Such a model is recently proposed in [17].

(1) To model partially available currency information in a database \( D \), it assumes a currency order \( \prec_{A} \) for each attribute \( A \), such that for tuples \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \) in \( D \) that represent the same real-world entity, \( t_1 \prec_{A} t_2 \) indicates that \( t_2 \) is more up-to-date than \( t_1 \) in the \( A \) attribute value.
(2) It uses denial constraints to express currency relationships derived from the semantics of the data. For instance, all the currency relations we have seen in Example can be expressed as denial constraints.

(3) A copy function from a data source to another is defined in terms of a partial mapping that preserves the currency order in the source. Based on these, one can define consistent completions $D^c$ of $D$, which extend $\prec_A$ in $D$ to a total order on all tuples pertaining to the same entity, such that $D^c$ satisfies the denial constraints and constraints imposed by the copy functions.

One can construct from $D^c$ the current tuple for each entity w.r.t. $\prec_A$, which contains the entity’s most current $A$ value for each attribute $A$. This yields the current instance of $D^c$ consisting of only the current tuples of the entities in $D$, from which currency orders can be removed. In light of this, one can compute certain current answers of a query $Q$ in $D$, i.e., tuples that are the answers to $Q$ in all consistent completions $D^c$ of $D$ (see [17] for details).

The study of data currency is related to temporal databases, which assume the availability of timestamps (see [32] for a survey). Also related is the line of work on querying indefinite data (see, e.g., [34]), which considers data that is linearly ordered but only provides a partial order, but does not evaluate queries using current instances. Algorithms for discovering copy dependencies and functions are developed in [217].

**Fundamental Problems.** Given a database $D$ on which partial currency orders, denial constraints and copy functions $\mathcal{P}$ are defined, we want to determine (1) whether a value is more up-to-date than another, and (2) whether a tuple is a certain current answer to a query. In addition, about copy functions $\mathcal{P}$, we want to determine (3) whether $\mathcal{P}$ is currency preserving for a query $Q$, i.e., no matter how we extend $\mathcal{P}$ by copying more values of those entities in $D$, the certain current answers to $Q$ in $D$ remain unchanged; and (4) whether $\mathcal{P}$ can be extended to be currency preserving for $Q$. These problems have been studied in [17] for different queries.

### 6 Open Research Issues

It is evident that functionalities for handling these issues should logically become part of a data cleaning system. We envisage that a data cleaning system should be able not only to detect data inconsistencies and duplicates, but it should also be able to compute certain fixes that are guaranteed correct. Moreover, it should also be able to improve data currency and information completeness, beyond data consistency and deduplication. Indeed, we naturally want data quality management to tell us whether the answers to our queries in a database are trustable or not. This requires that we take data consistency, currency and information completeness together, as illustrated in the example below.

**Example 6:** Consider the relation $\text{Emp}$ shown in Fig. and a master relation $\text{EmpHistory}$ consisting of all the historical information of its employees, as shown in Fig. Each $\text{EmpHistory}$ tuple is an employee record with name, address
(country, zip code, street), phone, grade, salary and marital status. Two constant CFDs are posed on relations \textit{Emp} and \textit{EmpHistory}: \(\varphi_1: \textit{Emp}(\{ \text{country} = \text{UK}, \text{zip} = \text{"EH9 1SU"} \} \rightarrow \{ \text{street} = \text{"6 Main St"} \})\), and \(\varphi_2: \textit{Emp}(\{ \text{country} = \text{UK}, \text{zip} = \text{"DB9 FJ8"} \} \rightarrow \{ \text{street} = \text{"8 Crown St"} \})\), where \(\varphi_1\) states that in the UK, if one’s zip code is “EH9 1SU”, its street should be “6 Main St”; similarly, \(\varphi_2\) states that in the UK, if one’s zip code is “DB9 FJ8”, its street should be “8 Crown St”.

1. Query \(Q_1\) is to find Mary’s current salary. Recall from Example 5(1) that Mary’s most current salary is derived to be 80k, drawn from tuple \(t_3\) in relation \textit{Emp}. Observe the following: (a) \(t_3\) is consistent as it satisfies the CFDs. (b) Mary’s salary information gathered in relation \textit{Emp} is complete \(w.r.t.\) \textit{EmpHistory}, since it contains all Mary’s employment records in \textit{EmpHistory} table. Hence we can trust that the answer to \(Q_1\) is 80k, since the data is consistent and the information about Mary is complete.

2. Query \(Q_2\) is to find Bob’s current salary. The only record about Bob in \textit{Emp} is \(t_4\). Note that \(t_4\) is consistent since it satisfies the CFDs. The answer to \(Q_2\) is 55K in \textit{Emp}. However, the information about Bob is not complete: there are more records about Bob in \textit{EmpHistory}, with higher salaries. In other words, relation \textit{Emp} alone is not sufficient to answer \(Q_2\) correctly. Hence we cannot trust 55K to be the answer to \(Q_2\).

This example demonstrates that to determine whether our queries can be answered correctly, all of data consistency, data currency and information completeness have to be taken into account.

No matter how important, however, we are not aware of any data cleaning system that supports functionalities to handle all these central data quality issues. The study of these issues is still in its infancy, and it has raised as many questions as it has answered. Below we highlight some of the open issues.

\textit{Certain fixes}. One question is how to find certain fixes in the absence of master data. Another question concerns methods for discovering editing rules. Indeed, it is unrealistic to rely solely on human experts to design editing rules via an expensive and long manual process. It is likely, however, that editing rules can be deduced from master data and constraints such as CFDs and MDs, for which discovery algorithms are already in place \cite{5,33}.

\textit{Relative information completeness and data currency}. While the fundamental problems for these issues have been studied, efficient algorithms have yet to be developed and incorporated into data cleaning systems.
A uniform logical framework. To answer a query using a database $D$, one naturally wants $D$ to be both complete and consistent for $Q$, and moreover, does not contain duplicates and stale data. In addition, there are intimate connections between these issues. (1) Improving data completeness provides us with more information to repair and match the data, and conversely, data repairing and record matching help us enrich the data as shown in Example 2. (2) Identifying the current value of an entity helps resolve data inconsistencies and duplication, and repairing and matching help us remove obsolete data. (3) Data currency is essentially to deal with missing temporal information, and hence can naturally capitalize on techniques for relative information completeness such as containment constraints and master data. All these highlight the need for developing a uniform framework to handle certain fixes, data repairing, record matching, relative information completeness and data currency. The framework should support the interaction of these processes, to improve the accuracy of data cleaning.

It is both natural and feasible to develop such a framework based on constraints and master data (see e.g., [14] for a initial attempt in this direction). Indeed, (1) constraints are typically used to capture inconsistencies (e.g., [1,16]). (2) Record matching rules [11] and editing rules [19] can be expressed as dynamic constraints. (3) It is shown [13] that constraints for data consistency, such as denial constraints [1] and conditional dependencies [4,16], are expressible as simple containment constraints studied for relative information completeness. As a result, we can assure that only consistent and partially closed databases are considered by enforcing containment constraints. (4) It suffices to express data currency commonly found in practice as denial constraints [17], the same class of constraints for data consistency. (5) As remarked earlier, master data has proved effective in dealing with each and every of these issues.

References

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