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S-MATCH: AN ALGORITHM AND AN IMPLEMENTATION  
OF SEMANTIC MATCHING

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# S-Match: an algorithm and an implementation of semantic matching

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**Abstract.** We think of *Match* as an operator which takes two graph-like structures (e.g., conceptual hierarchies or ontologies) and produces a mapping between those nodes of the two graphs that correspond semantically to each other. Semantic matching is a novel approach where semantic correspondences are discovered by computing, and returning as a result, the semantic information implicitly or explicitly codified in the labels of nodes and arcs. In this paper we present an algorithm implementing semantic matching, and we discuss its implementation within the *S-Match* system. We also test *S-Match* against three state of the art matching systems. The results, though preliminary, look promising, in particular for what concerns precision and recall.

## 1 Introduction

We think of *Match* as an operator that takes two graph-like structures (e.g., conceptual hierarchies, database schemas or ontologies) and produces mappings among the nodes of the two graphs that correspond semantically to each other. *Match* is a critical operator in many well-known application domains, such as schema/ontology integration, data warehouses, and XML message mapping. More recently, new application domains have emerged, such as catalog matching, where the match operator is used to map entries of catalogs among business partners; or web service coordination, where match is used to identify dependencies among data sources.

We concentrate on *semantic matching*, as introduced in [6], based on the ideas and system described in [2]. The key intuition behind semantic matching is that we should calculate mappings by computing the semantic relations holding between the concepts (and not labels!) assigned to nodes. Thus, for instance, two concepts can be equivalent, one can be more general than the other, and so on. We classify all previous approaches under the heading of *syntactic matching*. These approaches, though implicitly or explicitly exploiting the semantic information codified in graphs, differ substantially from our approach in that, instead of computing semantic relations between nodes, they compute syntactic “similarity” coefficients between labels, in the [0,1] range. Some examples of previous solutions are [12], [1], [15], [18], [5], [10]; see [6] for an in depth discussion about syntactic and semantic matching.

In this paper we propose and analyze in detail an algorithm and a system implementing semantic matching. Our approach is based on two key notions, the notion of

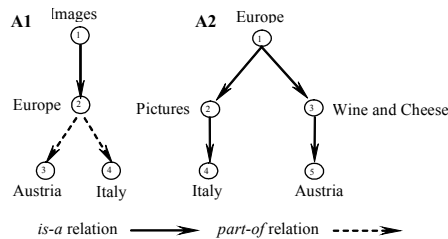
*concept of/at a label*, and the notion of *concept of/at a node*. These two notions formalize the set of documents which one would classify under a label and under a node, respectively. We restrict ourselves to trees, and to the use of hierarchies (e.g., ontologies, conceptual hierarchies) for classification purposes. While the classification of documents is undoubtedly the most important application of classification hierarchies, a new set of interesting applications have lately been found out. For instance in [7], classification hierarchies are used to classify nodes, databases and database contents (but in this latter set of applications we need to deal with attributes, a topic not discussed in this paper) in the Semantic Web.

The system we have developed, called *S-Match*, takes two trees, and for any pair of nodes from the two trees, it computes the *strongest semantic relation* (see Section 2 for a formal definition) holding between the concepts of the two nodes. The current version of *S-Match* is a rationalized re-implementation of the CTXmatch system [2] with a few added functionalities. *S-Match* is schema-based, and, as such, it does not exploit the information encoded in documents. We have compared *S-Match* with three state of the art schema-based matching systems, namely Cupid [12], COMA [4], and Similarity Flooding (SF) [15] as implemented within the Rondo system [14]. The results, though preliminary, look very promising, in particular for what concerns precision and recall.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides, via an example, the basic intuitions behind our algorithm and introduces the notions of concept of/at a label and of concept of/at a node. The algorithm is then articulated in its four macro steps in Section 3, which also provides the pseudo-code for its most relevant parts. Then, Section 4 describes *S-Match*, a platform implementing semantic matching, while Section 5 presents some preliminary experimental results. Finally, Section 6 provides some conclusions.

## 2 Semantic Matching

We introduce semantic matching by analyzing how it works on the two concept hierarchies of Figure 1 (a very simplified version of a catalog matching problem).



**Fig.1.** Two simple concept hierarchies

Preliminary to the definition of semantic matching is the definition of *concept of/at a node*, which, in turn, is based on the notion of *concept of/at a label*. Let us analyze these two notions in turn, starting from the second.

The trivial but key observation is that labels in classification hierarchies are used to define the set of documents one would like to classify under the node holding the label. Thus, when we write *Images* (see the root node of A1 in Figure 1), we do not really mean “images”, but rather “the documents which are (about) images”. Analogously, when we write *Europe* (see the root node of A2 in Figure 1), we mean “the documents which are about Europe”. In other words, a label has an intended meaning, which is what this label means in the world. However, when using labels for classification purposes, we use them to denote the set of documents which talk about their intended meaning. This consideration allows us to generalize the example definitions of *Images* and *Europe* and to define the “concept of/at a label” as “the set of documents that are about what the label means in the world”.

Two observations. First, while the semantics of a label are the real world semantics, the semantics of the concept of a label are in the space of documents; the relation being that the documents in the extension of the concept of a label are about what the label means in the real world. Second, concepts of labels depend only on the labels themselves and are independent of where in a tree they are positioned.

Trees add structure which allows us to perform the classification of documents more effectively. Let us consider, for instance, the node with label *Europe* in A1. This node stands below the node with label *Images* and, therefore, following what is standard practice in classification, one would classify under this node the set of documents which are images and which are about Europe. Thus, generalizing to trees and nodes the idea that the extensions of concepts range in the space of documents, we have that “the concept of/at a node” is “the set of documents that we would classify under this node”, given it has a certain label and it is positioned in a certain place in the tree. More precisely, as the above example has suggested, a document, to be classified in a node, must be in the extension of the concepts of the labels of all the nodes above it, and of the node itself. Notice that this captures exactly our intuitions about how to classify documents within classification hierarchies.

Two observations. First, concepts of nodes always coincide with concepts of labels in the case of root nodes, but this is usually not the case. Second, when computing concepts of nodes, the fact that a link is *is-a* or *part-of* or *instance-of* is irrelevant as in all cases, when we go down a classification, we only consider concepts of labels.

We can now proceed to the definition of semantic matching. Let a *mapping element* be a 4-tuple  $\langle ID_{ij}, n_{1i}, n_{2j}, R \rangle$ ,  $i=1,\dots,N1$ ;  $j=1,\dots,N2$ ; where  $ID_{ij}$  is a unique identifier of the given mapping element;  $n_{1i}$  is the  $i$ -th node of the first graph,  $N1$  is the number of nodes in the first graph;  $n_{2j}$  is the  $j$ -th node of the second graph,  $N2$  is the number of nodes in the second graph; and  $R$  specifies a *semantic relation* which holds between the concepts of nodes  $n_{2j}$  and  $n_{1i}$ . Possible semantic relations are: *equivalence* ( $=$ ), *more general* ( $\supseteq$ ), *less general* ( $\sqsubseteq$ ), *mismatch* ( $\perp$ ), *overlapping* ( $\sqcap$ ). Thus, for instance, the concepts of two nodes are equivalent if they have the same extension, they mismatch if their extensions are disjoint, and so on for the other relations. We order these relations as they have been listed, according to their binding strength, from the strongest to the weakest, with *less general* and *more general* having the same binding power. Thus, *equivalence* is the strongest binding relation since the mapping tells us that the concept of the second node has exactly the same extension as the first, *more general* and *less general* give us a containment information with respect to the extension of the concept of the first node, *mismatch* provides a

containment information with respect to the extension of the complement of the concept of the first node, while, finally, *overlapping* does not provide any useful information, since we have containment with respect to the extension of both the concept of the first node and its negation.

*Semantic matching* can then be defined as the following problem: given two graphs  $G1, G2$  compute the  $N1 \times N2$  mapping elements  $\langle ID_{ij}, n_{1i}, n_{2j}, R' \rangle$ , with  $n_{1i} \in G1, i=1, \dots, N1, n_{2j} \in G2, j=1, \dots, N2$  and  $R'$  the strongest semantic relation holding between the concepts of nodes  $n_{1i}, n_{2j}$ . Notice that the strongest semantic relation always exists since, when holding together, more general and less general are equivalent to equivalence. We define a *mapping* as a set of mapping elements.

Thus, considering the mapping between the concepts of the two root nodes of A1 and A2 we have (the two  $I$ 's are the identifiers of the two nodes in the two trees):

$$\langle ID_{11}, 1, 1, \sqsupset \rangle$$

This is an obvious consequence of the fact that the set of images has a non empty intersection with the set of documents which are about Europe and no stronger relation exists. Building a similar argument for node 2 in A1 and node 2 in A2, and supposing that the concepts of the labels *Images* and *Pictures* are synonyms, we compute instead

$$\langle ID_{22}, 2, 2, = \rangle$$

Finally, considering also the mapping between node 2 in A1 and the nodes with labels *Europe* and *Italy* in A2, we have the following mapping elements:

$$\langle ID_{21}, 2, 1, \sqsubseteq \rangle$$

$$\langle ID_{24}, 2, 4, \supseteq \rangle$$

### 3 The algorithm

Let us introduce some notation (see also Figure 1). Nodes are associated a number and a label. Numbers are the unique identifiers of nodes, while labels are used to identify concepts useful for classification purposes. Finally, we use “ $C$ ” for concepts of nodes and labels. Thus,  $C_{Europe}$  and  $C_2$  in A1 are, respectively, the concept of label *Europe* and the concept of node 2 in A1.

The algorithm is organized in the following four macro steps:

*Step 1:* for all labels  $L$  in the two trees, compute  $C_L$

*Step 2:* for all nodes  $N$  in the two trees, compute  $C_N$

*Step 3:* for all pairs of labels in the two trees, compute relations among  $C_L$

*Step 4:* for all pairs of nodes in the two trees, compute relations among  $C_N$

Thus, as from the example in Section 2, when comparing  $C_2$  in A1 and  $C_2$  in A2 (the nodes with labels *Europe* and *Pictures*) we first compute  $C_{Images}, C_{Europe}, C_{Pictures}$  (step 1); then we compute  $C_2$  in A1 and  $C_2$  in A2 (step 2); then we realize that  $C_{Images} = C_{Pictures}$  (step 3) and, finally (step 4), we compare  $C_2$  in A1 with  $C_2$  in A2 and, in this case, we realize that they have the same extension. The detail of how these steps are implemented is provided below. Here it is important to notice that steps 1

and 2 can be done once for all, for all trees, independently of the specific matching problem. They constitute a phase of *preprocessing*. Steps 3 and 4 can only be done at run time, once the two graphs which must be matched have been chosen. Step 3 produces a matrix, called  $C_L$  matrix, of the relations holding between concepts of labels, while step 4 produces a matrix, called  $C_N$  matrix, of the strongest relations holding between concepts of nodes. These two matrices constitute the main output of our matching algorithm.

Let us consider these four steps in detail, analyzing in turn the preprocessing phase, the computation of the  $C_L$  matrix and, finally, the computation of the  $C_N$  matrix.

### 3.1 The preprocessing phase

As from above, the first step is the computation of the concept of a label. The most natural choice is to take the label itself as a placeholder for its concept. After all, for instance, the label *Europe* is the best string which can be used with the purpose of characterizing “all documents which are about Europe”. This is also what we have done in the examples in Section 2: we have taken labels to stand for their concepts; when computing the concepts of nodes, we have reasoned about their extensions.

Collapsing the notions of label and of concept of label is in fact a reasonable assumption, which has been implicitly made in all the previous work on syntactic matching (see, e.g., [12], [4]). However, it does have a major drawback in that labels are most often written in some (not well defined) subset of natural language and, as we all know, natural language presents lots of ambiguities and complications. Thus, for instance, there are many possible different ways to state the same concept (as we have with *Images* and *Pictures*); dually, the same sentence may mean many different things (e.g., think of the label *tree*); *Image* and *Images*, though being different words, for our purposes have the same classification role; labels may be composed of multiple words as, for instance, *wine and cheese* in Figure 1; and so on.

The key idea underlying semantic matching is that labels, which are written in some *external language*, should be translated into an *internal language*, the language used to express concepts. The internal language should have precisely defined syntax and semantics, thus avoiding all the problems which relate to the problem of understanding natural language. We have chosen, as internal language, a logical propositional language where atomic formulas are atomic concepts, written as single words, and complex formulas are obtained by combining atomic concepts using the connectives of set theory. These connectives are the semantic relations introduced in Section 2, plus *union* ( $\sqcup$ ). The semantics of this language are the obvious set-theoretic semantics.

Various work on translating natural language into more or less precisely defined internal forms has been done. We have implemented the ideas first introduced in [2], [13] which specifically focus on the interpretation of labels, as used within classification hierarchies. We provide here only the main ideas, as they are needed in order to understand the overall matching algorithm, and refer to [2], [13] for the details. The core idea is to compute atomic concepts, as they are denoted by atomic labels (namely, labels of single words), as the *senses* provided by WordNet [16]. In the

simplest case, an atomic label generates an atomic concept. However, atomic labels with multiple senses or labels with multiple words generate complex concepts. Following [2] and [13], we have implemented the translation process from labels to concepts where the main steps are as follows:

1. *Tokenization*. Labels at nodes are parsed into tokens by a tokenizer which recognises punctuation, cases, digits, etc. Thus, for instance, *Wine and Cheese* becomes  $\langle \textit{Wine}, \textit{and}, \textit{Cheese} \rangle$ .
2. *Lemmatization*. Tokens at labels are lemmatized, namely they are morphologically analyzed in order to find all their possible basic forms. Thus, for instance, *Images* is associated with its singular form, *Image*.
3. *Building atomic concepts*. WordNet is queried to extract the senses of lemmas at tokens identified during step 2. For example, the label *Images* has the only one token *Images*, and one lemma *Image*, and from WordNet we find out that *Image* has eight senses, seven as a noun and one as a verb.
4. *Building complex concepts*. When existing, all tokens that are prepositions, punctuation marks, conjunctions (or strings with similar roles) are translated into logical connectives and used to build complex concepts out of the atomic concepts built in step 3 above. Thus, for instance, commas and conjunctions are translated into disjunctions, prepositions like *of*, *in* are translated into conjunctions, and so on. For instance, the concept of label *Wine and Cheese*,  $C_{\textit{Wine and Cheese}}$  is computed as  $C_{\textit{Wine and Cheese}} = \langle \textit{wine}, \{senses_{WN\#4}\} \rangle \sqcup \langle \textit{cheese}, \{senses_{WN\#4}\} \rangle$  where  $\langle \textit{cheese}, \{senses_{WN\#4}\} \rangle$  is taken to be union of the four senses that WordNet attaches to *cheese*, and similarly for *wine*.

After the first phase, all labels have been translated into sentences of the internal concept language. From now on, to simplify the presentation, we assume that the concept denoted by a label is the label itself. The goal of the second step is to compute concepts at nodes. These are written in the same internal language as concepts of labels and are built suitably composing them. In particular, as discussed in Section 2, the key observation is that a document, to be classified in a certain node, must be in the extension of the concepts of the labels of all the nodes above the node, and also in the extension of the concept of the label of the node itself. In other words, the concept  $C_n$  of node  $n$ , is computed as the intersection of the concepts at labels of all the nodes from the root to the node itself. Thus, for example,  $C_4$  in A1 in Figure 1 (the node with label *Italy*) is computed by taking the intersection of the concepts of labels *Images*, *Europe* and *Italy*, namely

$$C_4 = \textit{Images} \sqcap \textit{Europe} \sqcap \textit{Italy}$$

The pseudo-code of a basic solution for the off-line part is provided in Figure 2.

```

1.  concept: wff;
2.  node: struct of {
3.      nid: int;
4.      lab: string;
5.      clab: concept;
6.      cnod: concept;
7.  };
8.  T: tree of(node);
9.  function TreePrep(T) {
10.  foreach node∈T do{

```



```

11.         node.clab:= BuildClab(node.lab);
12.         node.cnod:= BuildCnod(node,T);
13.         }}
14. function BuildCnod(node, T){
15.     return Filter(mkwff( $\sqcap$ , GetCnod(GetParent(node, T)),
16.                    node.clab));}

```

**Fig.2.** The tree preprocessing algorithm

Let us analyze it in detail. Lines 1-8 define variables and data types. `clab` and `cnod` are used to memorize concepts of labels and concepts of nodes, respectively. They are both of type `Concept`, which, in turn, is of type `wff` (remember that concepts are codified as propositional formulas). A node is a 4-tuple  $\langle nid, lab, clab, cnod \rangle$  representing the node unique identifier, the node label, the concept of the label  $C_L$ , and the concept of the node  $C_N$ .

$T$  is our tree. Initially, the nodes in  $T$  contain only their unique identifiers and labels. Lines 9-13 describe the function `TreePrep` which gradually enriches the tree nodes with semantic information, by doing all the needed preprocessing. `TreePrep` starts from the root node and progresses top-down, left-to-right, and for each node it computes first the concept of the label and then the concept of the node. To guarantee this we assume that, as in the example of Figure 1, nodes are lexicographically ordered, starting from the root node. The function `BuildClab`, which is called at line 11, builds a concept for any label it takes in input. `BuildClab` implements the four steps briefly described above in this section. The only further observation to be made is that, in case WordNet returns no senses, `BuildClab` returns the label itself, suitably manipulated to be compatible with the senses returned by WordNet.

Lines 14-16 illustrate how `BuildCnod` constructs the concept of a node. In doing so, `BuildCnod` uses the concept of the parent node (thus avoiding the recursive climbing up to the root) and the concept of the label of that node. The concept at a node is built as the intersection of the concepts of labels of all the nodes above the node being analyzed. `Mkwff` takes a binary connective and two formulas and builds a formula out of them in the obvious way. The `Filter` function implements some heuristics whose aim is to discard the senses which are inconsistent with the other senses; see [2], [13] for the details.

### 3.2 The computation of the $C_L$ matrix

At run time the first step (step 3 above) is to compute the  $C_L$  matrix containing the relations existing between any two concepts of labels in the two trees. This step requires a lot of a priori knowledge ([2] distinguishes it in lexical and domain knowledge). We use two sources of information:

1. We use a library of what we have called in [6] “*weak semantics element level matchers*”. These matchers basically do string manipulation (e.g., prefix, postfix analysis, n-grams analysis, edit distance, soundex, data types, and so on) and try to guess the semantic relation implicitly encoded in similar words. Typical examples are discovering that *P.O.* and *Post Office* are synonyms and the same for *phone* and *telephone*. Element level weak semantics matchers have been vastly used in previous syntactic matchers, for instance in [12] and [4]. However there are two main differences. The first is that our matchers apply to concepts of labels and not to labels. Thus, on one side, their implementation is simplified by

the fact that their input has been somehow normalized by the previous translation step. However, on the other side, they must be modified to take into account the specific WordNet internal form. The second and most important difference is that our matchers return a semantic relation, rather an affinity level in the range [0,1].

2. We use a library of what we have called in [6] “*strong semantics element level matchers*”. These matchers extract semantic relations existing between concepts of labels using oracles which memorize the necessary lexical and domain knowledge (possible oracles are, for instance, WordNet, a domain ontology, a thesaurus). Again, following the work described in [2], our current implementation computes semantic relations in terms of relations between WordNet senses. We have the following cases: *equivalence*: one concept is equivalent to another if there is at least one sense of the first concept, which is a synonym of the second; *more general*: one concept is more general than the other if there exists at least one sense of the first concept that has a sense of the other as a hyponym or as a meronym; *less general*: one concept is less general than the other iff there exists at least one sense of the first concept that has a sense of the other concept as a hypernym or as a holonym; *mismatch*: two concepts are mismatched if they have two senses (one from each) which are different hyponyms of the same synset or if they are antonyms. For example, according to WordNet, the concept denoted by label *Europe* has the first sense which is a holonym to the first sense of the concept denoted by label *Italy*, therefore *Italy* is less general than *Europe*. Notice that, with WordNet, we cannot compute *overlapping*, and that the fact that WordNet does not provide us with any information is taken to be that two concepts have no relation.

A vanilla pseudo-code implementing this step is reported in Figure 3.

```

1. i, j: int;
2. N1, N2: int;
3. n1, n2: node;
4. T1, T2: tree of (node);
5. relation = {=, ⊆, ⊇, ⊥, ⊓};
6. clabreltemp, ClabMatrix(N1,N2): relation ;
7. function mkClabMatrix(T1,T2){
8.   for (i = 0; i < N1; i++) do
9.     for (j = 0; j < N2; j++) do
10.      ClabMatrix(i,j) := GetReltion(T1(i).clab,T2(j).clab)}
11. function GetRelation(clab1, clab2){
12.   clabreltemp:= GetRelFromWordNet(clab1, clab2);
13.   if (clabreltemp == " ")
14.     return GetRelFromMatcherLibrary(clab1, clab2);
15.   else
16.     return clabreltemp;}

```

**Fig. 3.** Computing the  $C_L$  matrix

T1 and T2 are trees preprocessed by the code in Figure 2.  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are nodes of T1 and T2 respectively, while N1 and N2 are the number of concepts of labels occurring in T1 and T2, respectively. ClabMatrix is the bidimensional array memorizing the  $C_L$  matrix. GetRelation tries WordNet first and then, in case WordNet returns no relation (it returns a blank), it tries the library of weak semantics element

level matchers. In case also this attempt fails, no relation (a blank character) is returned.

If we apply the code in Figure 3 to the example in Figure 1, we obtain the results in Table 1. In this case, given the input, only WordNet returns useful results.

**Table 1: The computed  $C_L$  matrix of the example in Figure 1**

A1 \ A2	$C_{Europe}$	$C_{Pictures}$	$C_{Wine}$	$C_{Cheese}$	$C_{Italy}$	$C_{Austria}$
$C_{Images}$		=				
$C_{Europe}$	=				$\sqsupseteq$	$\sqsupseteq$
$C_{Austria}$	$\sqsubseteq$				$\perp$	=
$C_{Italy}$	$\sqsubseteq$				=	$\perp$

Notice that we have one row for each label in A2 and one column for each label in A1. Each intersection between a row and a column contains a semantic relation. An empty square means that no relations have been found.

### 3.3 The computation of the $C_N$ matrix

The second step at run time (step 4 above) computes the relations between concepts at nodes. This problem cannot be solved simply by asking an oracle containing static knowledge. The situation is far more complex, being as follows:

1. We have a lot of background knowledge computed in the  $C_L$  matrix, codified as a set of semantic relations between concepts of labels occurring in the two graphs. This knowledge is the background theory/axioms which provide the context (as defined in [9]) within which we reason.
2. Concepts of labels and concepts of nodes are codified as complex propositional formulas. In particular concepts of nodes are intersections of concepts of labels.
3. We need to find a semantic relation (e.g., equivalence, more general, mismatch) between the concepts of any two nodes in the two graphs.

As discussed in [6], the key idea behind our approach is to translate all the semantic relations into propositional connectives in the obvious way (namely: equivalence into equivalence, more general and less general into implication, mismatch into negation of the conjunction) and then to prove that the following formula:

$$Context \rightarrow rel(C_i, C_j)$$

is valid; where  $C_i$  is the concept of node  $i$  in graph 1,  $C_j$  is the concept of node  $j$  in graph 2,  $rel$  is the semantic relation (suitably translated into a propositional connective) that we want to prove holding between  $C_i$  and  $C_j$ , and  $Context$  is the conjunction of all the relations (suitably translated) between concepts of labels mentioned in  $C_i$  and  $C_j$ . The key idea is therefore that the problem of matching has been translated into a validity problem where the holding of a semantic relation between the concepts of two nodes is tested assuming, as background theory (context), all we have been able to infer about the relations holding among the concepts of the labels of the two graphs. Figure 4 reports the pseudo code describing step 4.

```

1. i, j, N1, N2: int;
2. context, goal: wff;
3. n1, n2: node;
4. T1, T2: tree of (node);
5. relation = {=,  $\sqsubseteq$ ,  $\supseteq$ ,  $\perp$ ,  $\sqcap$ };
6. ClabMatrix(N1,N2), CnodMatrix(N1,N2), relation:relation
7. function mkCnodMatrix(T1,T2,ClabMatrix){
8.   for (i = 0; i < N1; i++) do
9.     for (j = 0; j < N2; j++) do
10.      CnodMatrix(i,j) := NodeMatch(T1(i),T2(j),ClabMatrix)}
11. function NodeMatch(n1,n2,ClabMatrix){
12.   context:=mkcontext(n1,n2, ClabMatrix, context);
13.   foreach (relation in < =,  $\sqsubseteq$ ,  $\supseteq$ ,  $\perp$  >) do{
14.     goal:= w2r(mkwff(relation, GetCnod(n1), GetCnod(n2)));
15.     if VALID(mkwff( $\rightarrow$ , context, goal))
16.       return relation;}
17.   return  $\sqcap$ ;}

```

**Fig.4.** Computing the  $C_N$  matrix

CnodMatrix is the bidimensional array memorizing the  $C_N$  matrix. mkcontext at line 12 builds the context against which the relation is tested. foreach at line 13 tests semantic relations with decreasing binding power. w2r at line 14 translates a relation between two formulas containing only set theoretic connectives into a propositional formula. VALID at line 15 is tested by taking the negation of the formula and by testing unsatisfiability by running a SAT decider, namely a decider for propositional satisfiability (a formula is valid if and only if its negation is unsatisfiable). In case foreach fails on all the semantic relations in his argument, NodeMatch returns intersection. That this must be the case can be easily proved by reasoning by cases. In fact, given two sets one of the following relations  $=, \sqsubseteq, \supseteq, \perp, \sqcap$ , must be the case.

The semantic relations computed between all the pairs of  $C_N$ s for the hierarchies shown in Figure 1 are summarized in Table 2.

**Table 2: The computed  $C_N$  matrix of the example in Figure 1**

A1 \ A2	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_3$	$C_4$	$C_5$
$C_1$	$\sqsupseteq$	$\supseteq$	$\sqsupseteq$	$\supseteq$	$\sqsupseteq$
$C_2$	$\sqsubseteq$	$=$	$\sqsupseteq$	$\supseteq$	$\sqsupseteq$
$C_3$	$\sqsubseteq$	$\sqsubseteq$	$\sqsupseteq$	$\perp$	$\sqsupseteq$
$C_4$	$\sqsubseteq$	$\sqsubseteq$	$\sqsupseteq$	$=$	$\perp$

Each intersection between a row and a column reports the strongest semantic relation that the code of Figure 4 has been able to infer. For example, the concept at node *Images* ( $C_1$ ) in A1, is more general than the concept at node *Pictures* ( $C_2$ ) in A2. Notice that this table, contrarily to Table 1, is complete in the sense that we have a semantic relation between any pair of concepts of nodes. However, the situation is not as nice as it looks as, in most matching applications, intersection gives us no useful information (it is not easy to know which documents should be discarded or kept). [6] suggests that, when we have intersection, we iterate and refine the matching results; however, so far, we have not been able to pursue this line of research.

#### 4 A platform implementing semantic matching

Matching is a very hard task. Semantic matching does not have some of the problems that syntactic matchers have. Its major advantage is that the algorithm we have proposed is correct and complete in the sense that it always computes the strongest semantic relation between concepts of nodes (contrarily to what happens with syntactic matchers, see also the discussion of the testing results in the next section). This is, in fact, an obvious consequence of the fact that we have translated the problem of computing concepts of nodes (step 4) into a validity problem for the propositional calculus. However still a lot of problems exist which make it unlikely that we will ever be able to build the “ultimate good-for-all” semantic matcher. Thus, in practice, in semantic matching we have not eliminated the problem of incorrectness and incompleteness. We have only limited it to the translation of labels into concepts of labels (step 1) and to the computation of the semantic relations existing between pairs of concepts of labels (step 3). Steps 2 and 4, instead guarantee correctness and completeness. However, while, if step 2 is uncontroversial, step 4 still presents problems. These problems are due to the fact that, we have codified the semantic matching problem into a CO-NP problem (as it is the validity problem for the propositional calculus). Solving this class of problems requires, in the worst case, exponential time. Furthermore there is no SAT solver which always performs better than the others and at the moment we have no characterization of our matching problems which allows us to choose the “best” solver and heuristics (even if we have some preliminary evidence that most of our examples are in the “easy” part of the “easy-hard-easy” SAT phase transition).

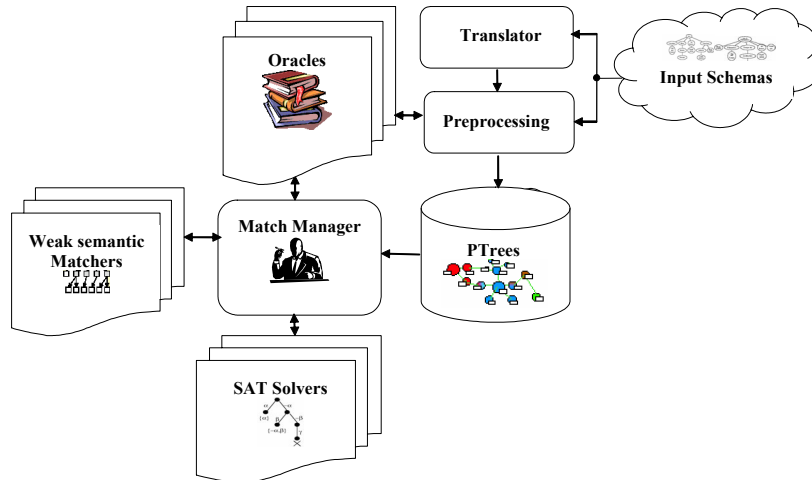


Fig. 5. Architecture of the S-match platform

Our approach is therefore that of developing a *platform* for semantic matching, namely a highly modular system where single components can be plugged, unplugged or suitably customized. The logical architecture of the system we have developed, called *S-Match*, is depicted in Figure 5. Let us discuss it from a data flow perspective. The module taking input schemas does the *preprocessing*. It takes in input trees codified into a standard internal XML format. This internal format can be loaded from a file manually edited or can be produced from a input format dependent *translator*. This module implements the preprocessing phase and produces, as output, enriched trees which contain concepts of labels and concepts of nodes. These enriched trees are stored in an internal database (the database labeled *PTrees* in figure 5) where they can be browsed, edited and manipulated. The preprocessing module has access to the set of *oracles* which provide the necessary *a priori* lexical and domain knowledge. In the current version WordNet is the only oracle we have. The *Matching Manager* coordinates the execution of steps 3 and 4 using the *oracles* library (used here as element level *strong semantics matchers*), the library of element level *weak semantic matchers*, and the library of *SAT solvers* (among the others, the SAT decider that we are currently testing is JSAT [11]).

S-Match is implemented in Java 1.4 and the total amount of code (without optimizations!) is around 60K.

## 5 A comparative evaluation

We have done some preliminary comparison between *S-Match* and three state of the art matching systems, namely Cupid [12], COMA [4], and SF [15] as implemented within the Rondo system [14]. All the systems under consideration are fairly comparable because they are all only schema-based, and they all utilize linguistic and graph matching techniques. They differ in the specific matching techniques they use and in how they combine them.

In our evaluation we have used three examples: the simple catalog matching problem, presented in the paper and two small examples from the academy and business domains. The business example describes two company profiles: a standard one (mini) and Yahoo Finance (mini). The academy example describes courses taught at Cornell University (mini) and at the University of Washington (mini).<sup>1</sup> Table 3 provides some indicators of the complexity of the test schemas.

**Table 3: Some indicators of the complexity of the test schemas**

	Images/Europe	Yahoo(mini)/Standard (mini)	Cornell(mini)/ Washington (mini)
#nodes	4/5	10/16	34/39
max depth	2/2	2/2	3/3
#leaf nodes	2/2	7/13	28/31

As match quality measures we have used the following indicators: *precision*, *recall*, *overall*, *F-measure* (from [3]) and *time* (from [19]). *precision* varies in the [0,1] range; the higher the value, the smaller is the set of wrong mappings (false positives) which have been computed. *precision* is a correctness measure. *recall* varies in the [0,1] range; the higher the value, the smaller is the set of correct mappings (true positives) which have not found. *recall* is a completeness measure. *F-measure* varies in the [0,1] range. The version computed here is the harmonic mean of precision and recall. It is global measure of the matching quality, growing with it. *overall* is an estimate of the post match efforts needed for adding false negatives and removing false positives. *overall* varies in the [-1, 1] range; the higher it is, the less post-match efforts are needed. *Time* estimates how fast matchers are in when working fully automatically. *Time* is very important for us, since it shows the ability of matching systems to scale up to the dimensions of the Semantic Web, providing meaningful answers in real time.

For what concerns the testing methodology, to provide a ground for evaluating the quality of match results, all the pairs of schemas have been manually matched to produce *expert mappings*. The results produced by matchers have been compared with expert mappings. In our experiments each test has two degrees of freedom: *directionality* and *use of oracles*. By directionality we mean here the direction in which mappings have been computed: from the first graph to the second one (forward direction), or vice versa (backward direction). For lack of space we report results obtained only with direction forward, and use of oracles allowed.

All the tests have been performed on a P4-1700, with 256 MB of RAM, with the Windows XP operating system, and with no applications running but a single matcher. The evaluation results are shown in Figure 6. From the point of view of the quality of the matching results *S-Match* clearly outperforms the other systems. As a consequence of the fact that the computation of concept of nodes is correct and complete, given the same amount of information at the element level, *S-Match* will always perform the best and the other matchers can only approximate its results.

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<sup>1</sup> Source files and description of the schemas tested can be found at our project web-site, experiments section: <http://www.dit.unitn.it/~p2p/>

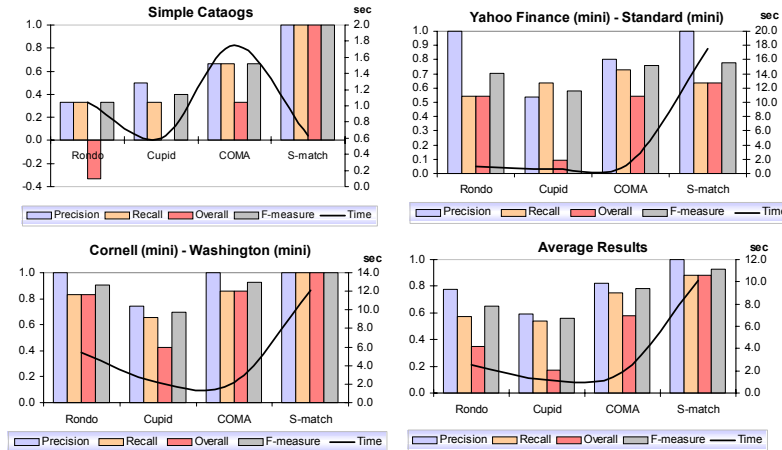


Fig.6. Experimental results

As a matter of fact, the only case where *S-Match* does not compute precision and recall at their maximum value is due to a mistake in computing the relation between two pairs of concepts of labels. From the point of view of time, *S-Match* is the lowest, this due to the fact that the computation of mappings in *S-Match* is translated into a validity problem. However these results do not look so bad as the ratio is always relatively small and, as stated above, the current version of our system has no optimizations.

## 6 Conclusion

We have presented an algorithm implementing semantic matching and its preliminary implementation within a semantic matching platform, *S-Match*. We have tested our current implementation against three state of the art systems and the results look very promising, with a point of attention on computation times.

This is only a first step and many issues still need to be dealt with. Some examples are: extend the current algorithm to dealing with attributes (this is of fundamental importance in order to move to the database domain), optimize the algorithm and its implementation, implement iterative semantic matching (as first defined in [6]), do a thorough testing of the system, which in turn will require the definition of a testing methodology, and so on.

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