Deriving the Conceptual Model of a Data Warehouse from Information Requirements

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Abstract: Business requirements are essential for developing any information system, including a data warehouse. However, requirements written in natural language may be imprecise. This paper offers a model for business requirement formalization according to certain peculiarities of elements of multidimensional models, e.g. the distinction between quantifying and qualifying data. We also propose an algorithm that generates candidate data warehouse schemas and is based on distinguishing data warehouse schema elements in formal requirements. Then, resulting schemas are processed by a semi-automated procedure in order to obtain a data warehouse schema that matches business requirements best of all.

1 INTRODUCTION

Companies should use performance measurement systems, if they want to succeed in competition with others. During the performance measurement, its results should be compared with the target values to understand, whether goals are achieved or not. For implementation of a performance measurement system a data warehouse could be used.

"A data warehouse is a subject-oriented, integrated, non-volatile, and time-variant collection of data in support of management decisions" (Inmon, 2002). Developing a data warehouse that fits all requirements of potential users is not the easiest task. There is no common understanding about the best method for conceptual modeling of data warehouses and the most expressive modeling language for that purpose. Conceptual models of data warehouses can be classified according to their origination (Rizzi et al., 2006): E/R model based, UML based, and independent conceptual models, e.g. Dimensional Fact Model (Golfarelli et al., 1998). The necessity to develop special conceptual models for data warehouses is founded on existence of two types of data that should be modeled quantifying and qualifying data, and elements of multidimensional paradigm, e.g. dimensions, hierarchies, cubes, whose semantics can't be modeled properly with standard modeling languages. Besides the specialized conceptual

models for data warehouses, developers also need formal methods to construct these models (Rizzi, 2009). All methods can be classified as supply- or demand-driven according to the way how the data warehouse requirements are determined. The requirements for data warehouses differ from those applied to other types of systems – here we can speak about the information requirements (Winter and Strauch, 2003). In supply-driven methods the existing models of data sources are investigated to understand what data is used in an enterprise. In demand-driven approaches the required data for analysis needs is established mostly by interviewing users. However, more new approaches, e.g. ontology-based (Romero and Abello, 2010), patternbased (Jones and Song, 2005), are proposed to gain the most suitable conceptual model of a data warehouse for the implementation of the strategy of an organization and to avoid the limitations of existing methods. In the supply-driven approach the constructed conceptual model may not reflect all analysis needs, because it reflects the operational needs of data source systems. In the requirementdriven approach the data warehouse model depends on interviewed users, their understanding about the enterprise, and ability to precisely express their analysis needs.

We propose a method for transforming information requirements to conceptual model of a data warehouse. In this case, requirements are

 Kozmina N., Niedrite L. and Golubs M.. Deriving the Conceptual Model of a Data Warehouse from Information Requirements. DOI: 10.5220/0004426301360144 In *Proceedings of the 15th International Conference on Enterprise Information Systems* (ICEIS-2013), pages 136-144 ISBN: 978-989-8565-59-4 Copyright © 2013 SCITEPRESS (Science and Technology Publications, Lda.) performance indicators of an organization that are gathered by interviewing users and formalized in accordance with the indicators model.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes related work. Section 3 introduces formal model for indicator definition. Section 4 presents the algorithm that transforms requirements. Section 5 describes the post-processing of schemas produced by algorithm. Section 6 ends the paper with conclusions.

2 RELATED WORK

Demand-driven methods can be divided more precisely according to the way of identifying requirements, e.g. user-driven (Westerman, 2001), (Poe, 1996) process-driven (Kaldeich and Oliveira, 2004), and goal-driven (Giorgini et al., 2005), (List and Machaczek, 2004) where users are interviewed and processes, goals, or indicators are modeled and analyzed to gain precise understanding of analysis needs of users and the organization. For example, (Poe, 1996) proposes a catalogue for storage of users' interviews to collect end-users' requirements, recommends to interview different groups of users to understand a business completely. In case of the process-driven approach, a business process is analyzed, e. g., in (Kaldeich and Oliveira, 2004) the "AS IS" and "TO BE" process models are constructed including the analyzed processes, as well as the corresponding data models. In case of the goal-driven approach, goals of an enterprise, goals of analyzed business processes are analyzed and data that should be analyzed to achieve these goals is identified. For example, in (Giorgini et al., 2005) the decisional modeling is performed, facts are identified and mapped onto entities or relations of data sources, but hierarchies of each fact are later constructed by applying supply-driven approach (Golfarelli et al., 1998).

In information supply-driven approach we can speak about methods e.g. (Inmon, 2002), (Golfarelli et al., 1998) that utilize the existing data models of transaction systems. A data warehouse model is obtained by transforming models of data sources. For example, (Golfarelli et al., 1998) analyze manyto-one associations in the data source models to construct an attribute tree that is used later to form dimensions, hierarchies, and other elements of multidimensional paradigm.

3 THE FORMAL MODEL FOR INDICATOR DEFINITION

Data warehouses have specific features when they are used for implementation of performance measurement systems: new data sources, e.g. workflow logs, specific data analysis approaches, e.g. process monitoring based on performance indicators, and data warehouse model that reflects the previous two aspects, which may determine the data items to be included into the data warehouse model.

Indicators are the focus of data analysis in the performance measurement process. The definition of indicators can be expressed on various levels of formality. We proposed a formal specification of indicators in our previous work (Niedritis et al., 2011). At the same time, the data warehousing models are built to represent the information needs for data analysis. So, we could perceive indicators as an information requirement for a data warehouse system. Therefore, the formalization of indicators could be based on the nature of elements of multidimensional models, e.g. the distinction between quantifying and qualifying data.

The type of an information system to be developed has some impact on the way of formulating sentences that express requirements. Before starting our study, we assumed that information requirements for data warehouses used for performance measurement have similar structure. This assumption was based on our observations on how the information needs were described in real life projects. We based the proposed model also on the structure evaluation of the sentences that formulate performance indicators taken from the performance measures database (Parmenter, 2010).

3.1 Concepts of the Formal Model of Requirements

The requirement formalization is represented as a UML class diagram by (Niedritis et al., 2011).

show	Refinement	Action	Operation		\$
month	Qualifiyng Data	Object			in
AVG	Aggregation	Action	Oper	Operation	
contacts ocurrance	Quantifying Data	Object			Rec
where	Condition Type				ĮU.
customer type	Qualifyng Data	Simple Expression	Simula	Typified	.em
=	Comparison		Condition	Condition	ent
'key customer'	Constant	Simple Expression	Condition		

Figure 1: Requirement formalization example (Niedritis et al., 2011).

In this paper we use an implementation model of the requirements formalization for the algorithm described in Section 4.2, but for better understanding we give a short description of main concepts in this section.

Let's see an indicator example: "Average number of contacts made with key customers per month". Using our proposed requirement model it is reformulated as follows: "show month, average (contact occurrence) where customer type is 'key customer'". Figure 1 demonstrates the application of the model. The left column is filled with parts of the requirement statement and all the rest columns (left to right) contain names of the model levels.

In the proposed model a requirement can be classified as Simple or Complex Requirement. A complex requirement is composed of two or more simple requirements with an Arithmetical Operator. A simple requirement consists of a verb (Operation) that denotes a command, which refers to an Object, and zero or one Typified Condition. There are two kinds of data in data warehousing: Quantifying (measurements) and Qualifying (properties of measurements). An object is either an instance of quantifying or qualifying data depending on the requirement.

A Complex Operation consists of two or more Actions. There are two possible types of action: Aggregation (used for calculation and grouping, "roll-up") and Refinement (used for information selection, "drill-down", as an opposite to an aggregation). Information refinement is either showing details, i.e., selecting information about one or more objects, or slicing, i.e., showing details, according to a certain constraint (Typified Condition). Conditions can be simple or complex. Complex condition joins two or more simple conditions by Logical Operators (AND, OR, NOT). Simple condition consists of a Comparison of two Expressions, for example, "time is greater than last_access_time - 1 second". An expression too may be either a Simple or a Complex Expression. A complex expression contains two or more simple expressions with an arithmetical operator between the simple expressions. A simple expression belongs either to qualifying data (e.g. "last access time") or to Constants (e.g. "1 second").

3.2 The Implementation Model of Formal Requirements

Formal requirement metadata is implemented using relational database tables depicted in Figure 2.

Requirements are stored in tables Requirement and SimpleRequirement. Each business requirement refers to some theme (Theme), e.g. Finance, Customer Focus, etc. Simple requirements are defined by Operation, **Object** and TypifiedCondition. An operation is either an aggregate function (isAggr=1) or a refinement operation (isAggr=0). An operation can consist of multiple suboperations, e.g. SUM(AVG(Income)). To indicate the sequence of them, an attribute Operation.Index is employed. The value of Object. Type is either 'qualifying' or 'quantifying'.

A simple condition involves two expressions and the value of a comparison. The expression type is defined by *Expression.isSimple*. A simple expression consists of either a qualifying data object, or a constant, and the type of an expression (*Expression.Type*) respectively. Otherwise, an expression is composed of multiple expressions and an arithmetical (*Expression.ArithmeticalOperator*) operator between them. A complex condition involves conditions and a logical operator.



Figure 2: The implementation model of formal requirements.

4 FROM REQUIREMENTS TO PRE-SCHEMAS

In this paper we propose a method for transforming information requirements to the conceptual model of a data warehouse (see Figure 3). The method uses requirements from formal requirements database and generates a simplified data warehouse schema (pre-schema or candidate schema) by an algorithm that analyses the structure of requirements. The next stage of the method is semi-automated candidate schemas are processed and restructured to remove duplicates and build dimension hierarchies. Finally, the improved schemas can be used as data warehouse schema metadata.



Figure 3: Pre-schema generation and restructuring.

4.1 A Pre-Schema and its Components

When exploring formal requirements, measures $(C_Measure)$ that characterize business processes are determined and so do attributes $(C_Attribute)$ that describe measures. *PreSchema* is a candidate schema of a data warehouse that includes measures and attributes derived from requirements. In Figure 4 an implementation model for storing candidate schemas and its elements is depicted.



Figure 4: A candidate schema (*PreSchema*) and its components.

PreSchema.Index represents a link to a simple requirement in requirement model. If in a formal requirement a measure has an aggregate function applied to it, then it is stored in C Aggregation. Tables C Level, C Hierarchy and C LevelHierarchy are employed to define attribute hierarchies. C LevelHierarchy.Index is some level's sequence number in a hierarchy. The meaning of an attribute isAccepted in PreSchema, C Measure, C Attribute, C Aggregation, and C AcceptableAggregation is described in Section 5.

4.2 PGA: The Pre-Schema Generation Algorithm

We propose a pre-schema generation algorithm (PGA) for distinguishing data warehouse pre-

schema elements in formal requirements stored in an implementation model (see Figure 2).

In Procedure 1 (*MakePreSchema*) requirements are reviewed in a context of the business requirement theme (lines 1-3). All simple requirements of a certain theme are processed (lines 4-22). Complex requirements are not reviewed, because objects, operations, and conditions are defined in simple requirements only.

If the type of an object is *Quantifying*, then it is a measure – $C_Measure$ (lines 11-13). To find aggregate functions ($C_Aggregation$) associated with the measure and to set its order, operations are checked by Function 1 (*ProcessOperations*; line 14, and 23-40). If the type of an object is *Qualifying*, then it is processed as an attribute – $C_Attribute$ (lines 15-18). Finally, simple conditions are handled by Procedure 2 (*ProcessSimpleConditions*; line 22, and 41-54). If an expression in a simple condition has the type *Qualifying*, then the appropriate object is an attribute (lines 46-51). Expressions with the type *Constant* are ignored.

5 THE PROCESSING OF A PRE-SCHEMA

Before discussing the process model of handling pre-schemas generated by PGA, the following assumptions should be considered:

- Two measures in a set of pre-schemas have the same name, iff their semantic meaning is the same. For instance, if two measures are named "total number", however, semantically one of them corresponds to "total number of students" and the other one – to "total number of teachers", then these two measures should be renamed respectively.
- Two attributes in a set of pre-schemas have the same name, iff their semantic meaning is the same.
 The explanation is equivalent to the abovementioned, but is related to attributes.
- Names of the measures in pre-schemas coincide with those in the data source.

First of all, an administrator picks up a certain theme to which a set of pre-schemas gained from requirements refers. Then, a pre-schema with the maximum number of attributes is selected. Let us call such pre-schema P_{MA} . If there are multiple P_{MA} like pre-schemas with different sets of attributes, their processing goes independently and is just the same as the one of P_{MA} pre-schema. In Figure 5 we

PGA Procedure 1: MakePreSchema Input: CurrentTheme: Theme					
1: 11	NOT EXIST Theme WHERE Theme.Name = CurrentTheme.Name				
2 · •	HEN (CREATE Theme · Theme Name ·=CurrentTheme Name ·)				
 	3. FIGE FIND Theme WHEPE Theme Name - CurrentTheme Name.				
7. EC	De FACH Dequirement MHEDE Dequirement isSimple = 1				
ייי בי הר 5.	ND Requirement ThemeID = CurrentTheme ID \mathbf{DO} .				
6.	CREATE Preschema: Preschema Index:=Requirement Index:				
0. 7.	PreSchema ThemeID:=Theme ID:				
8.	FIND SimplePeruizement				
9.	WHERE SimpleRequirement ID = Requirement SimpleReqID:				
10:	FIND Object WHERE Object ID = SimpleRequirement ObjectID:				
11:	IF Object type = 'Ouantifying' THEN (
12:	CREATE C Measure: C Measure. PreSchema:=PreSchema.ID:				
13:	C Measure.Name:=Object.Name:				
14:	ProcessOperations (SimpleRequirement.OperationID, C Measure.ID);)				
15:	ELSE (
16:	CREATE C Attribute: C Attribute.PreSchemaID:=PreSchema.ID;				
17:	C Attribute.Name:=Object.Name;				
18:	CAttribute.isTime:=Object.isTime;)				
19:	FIND TypifiedCondition WHERE				
20:	TypifiedCondition.ID = SimpleRequirement.TypifiedConditionID;				
21:	FIND Condition WHERE Condition.ID = TypifiedCondition.ConditionID;				
22:	RUN ProcessSimpleConditions(Condition.ID, PreSchema); END.				
PGA	Function 1: ProcessOperations, Input: CurrID:number, CurrMeasureID:number				
23: I	FIND Operation WHERE Operation.ID = CurrID;				
24:	IF Operation.SuboperationID != NULL				
25:	THEN (OperationIndex:=ProcessOperations(Operation.SuboperationID, CurrMeasure);				
26:	IF Operation isAggr = 1 THEN (CREATE C Aggregation;				
27:	FIND C Measure WHERE Measure.ID = CurrMeasure:				
28:	C Aggregation.MeasureID:=C Measure.ID;				
29:	C Aggregation.Value:=Operation.Value;				
30:	C Aggregation.Index:=(OperationIndex + 1);				
31:	RETURN OperationIndex + 1.)				
32:	ELSE				
33:	RETURN OperationIndex.)				
34:	ELSE (
35:	IF Operation isAggr = 1 THEN (CREATE C Aggregation;				
36:	FIND C Measure WHERE Measure.ID = CurrMeasure;				
37:	C Aggregation.MeasureID:=C Measure.ID;				
38:	C Aggregation.Value:=Operation.Value;				
39:	C Aggregation.Index:=1;				
40:	RETURN 1.))				
PGA	Procedure 2: ProcessSimpleConditions, Input: CurrentConditionID:number, CurrentPreSchema:PreSchema				
41: H	FIND Condition WHERE Condition.ID = CurrentConditionID;				
42: 1	IF Condition.isSimple = 1 THEN (
43:	FOR EACH Expression				
44:	WHERE Expression.ID = Condition.Expression1ID				
45:	OR Expression.ID = Condition.Expression2ID DO:				
46:	IF Expression.Type = 'Qualifying' THEN (
47:	FIND Object WHERE Object.ID = Expression.ObjectID;				
48:	CREATE C_Attribute;				
49:	C_Attribute.PreSchemaID:=CurrentPreSchema.ID;				
50:	C_Attribute.Name:=Object.Name;				
51:	C_Attribute.isTime:=Object.isTime;) END.				
52: I	ELSE (
53:	<pre>ProcessSimpleConditions(CurrentCondition.Condition1ID, CurrentPreSchema);</pre>				
54:	ProcessSimpleConditions(CurrentCondition.Condition2ID, CurrentPreSchema);) END.				

ignored the case of multiple pre-schemas with the same maximum number of attributes on purpose for better understanding.

A pre-schema may contain a set of measures (M1, M2 ..., Mn). Further manipulations with the pre-schema depend on the number of measures that it contains. Having more than one measure, certain rules take place:

- 1. If there is at least one pre-schema with a set of measures that in any way intersects with a measure or a set of measure of another preschema (e.g. (M1, M2) \cap (M2, M3, M4) = M2; $(M1, M2) \cap M1 = M1$, etc.), then all pre-schemas with intersecting measures should be decomposed, the meaning because and granularity of fact measures are determined by the finest level attributes.
- 2. If the set of all pre-schemas contains different sets of measures (e.g. (M1, M2); (M3, M4, M5); M6; M7; etc.) that do not have overlapping elements, then there is no need to decompose the pre-schemas.
- 3. If a set of measures is the same for all preschemas assigned to a certain theme, then none of the pre-schemas should be decomposed.

In case of (1), a pre-schema P_{MA} is being decomposed into pre-schemas each of which contains only one measure, and a set of attributes is equal to that of P_{MA} . An example of decomposing a pre-schema with two measures is depicted in Figure 6a. Let's call each of the newly acquired pre-schemas in Figure 6a P'_D and P"_D.

Pre-schemas that contain the same measure as P_{MA} (or at least one of the decomposed preschemas) are of interest. Let's call a set of filtered pre-schemas P. Examples of such pre-schemas are illustrated in Figure 6 (b – pre-schema P', and c – pre-schema P'') containing two different measures: M1 as in P'_D , M2 as in P'_D .

 PP'_D and PP'_D are new pre-schemas that consist of measures and attributes from P'_D and P''_D respectively, and attributes that exist in each of preschemas of set P but are missing in the pre-schema P'_D (in Figure 6b – attribute A6) and P''_D (in Figure 6c – attributes A7, A8, and A9). However, before the attributes are actually added to either PP'_D or PP''_D , they should be arranged in hierarchies, so that measures would be described by the finest level attributes only. In Figure 6d PP'_D is an example of arranging distinct attributes from P'_D and P', whereas in Figure 6e PP''_D is the example of arranging those from P''_D and P''.

To order attributes of pre-schemas in hierarchies, we follow some data-driven algorithm (e.g. (Golfarelli et al., 1998)). First, an arbitrary attribute (let's denote it as A) from a set of distinct attributes of, say, P'_D and P' is selected. Then, in the data source a certain entity attribute (let's denote it as M_E) that corresponds to the measure of a preschema P'_D is determined.

Next, we move from M_E to all attributes that have a many-to-one relationship with M_E . We traverse in such way the attributes in data source until an attribute that corresponds to A is found (A_E). When found, A is classified either as a finest hierarchy level (if M_E is connected to A_E directly) or a coarser hierarchy level (if M_E is connected to A_E through two or more M:1 associations) of a certain hierarchy of the pre-schema PP'_D.



Figure 5: The process model of handling pre-schemas generated by PGA.

All attributes that can be reached from A_E by M:1 association and do exist in pre-schema PP'_D are ordered in hierarchy the same way as they have been traversed in the data source – from finest to coarsest level. Finally, the property *isAccepted* of all processed attributes and measures in the pre-schema PP'_D that have a matching entity attribute in the data source are updated to 1.



Figure 6 a: A pre-schema with maximum attribute count (P_{MA}) is being decomposed into two pre-schemas $(P'_D \text{ and } P''_D)$; b, c: two pre-schemas (P' and P''); d, e: PP'_D and PP''_D : pre-schemas P'_D and P''_D supplemented with attributes from P' and P'' respectively, ordered in hierarchies.

If an attribute or a measure exists only in requirements (i.e., in pre-schemas), then the property isAccepted of the attribute or measure is updated to 0. Also, it may happen that A_E cannot be reached from M_E by M:1 associations. Then A has the property isAccepted updated to 0 too. Such attributes or measures will be reviewed by administrator later on. Also, an administrator should review all aggregate functions that are applied to additive, semi-additive or non-additive measures to either accept an aggregation if its application to a certain measure is allowed, or decline if its application to the measure is inappropriate. The property isAccepted of the C Aggregation and C AcceptableAggregation is modified in obedience to the measure type. By that we indicate that certain elements of the modified P_{MA} (or P'_{MA}) pre-schema are ready for further analysis.

If there are any pre-schemas with measures that differ from those in already processed pre-schemas, then the algorithm is being iteratively executed from the step where a pre-schema with the maximum attribute count is found. The next step of the process is aimed at making a union of two or more pre-schemas on condition that all finest hierarchy level attributes coincide. If this condition isn't satisfied, then this step should be skipped.





Consider an example in Figure 7: there are two preschemas with the same finest hierarchy level attributes and same measures, however, coarser hierarchy level attributes might differ. Hierarchies in Figure 7a are: H1a: $A5 \rightarrow A7$; H2a: $A1 \rightarrow A8 \rightarrow A9$; H3a: A2; H4a: $A4 \rightarrow A12$. Hierarchies in in Figure 7b are: H1b: A5; H2b: A2; H3b: $A1 \rightarrow A8 \rightarrow A9$; H4b: $A4 \rightarrow A6 \rightarrow A10 \rightarrow A11$. It is possible to unite two (or more) pre-schemas, taking into an account several rules:

- If two hierarchies are equivalent (H2a \equiv H3b, H3a \equiv H2b), then one of the equivalent hierarchies will be added with no changes to the united preschema.
- If finest hierarchy level attributes are similar, but coarser hierarchy level attributes differ, then all alternative hierarchies will be included in the united pre-schema (both H4a and H4b).
- If finest hierarchy level attributes are similar, but in some hierarchies coarser level attributes are absent, then the hierarchy with the largest number of levels will be added to the united pre-schema (only H1a).

As a result, there is a pre-schema with the following hierarchies: $A5 \rightarrow A7$; $A1 \rightarrow A8 \rightarrow A9$; A2; $A4 \rightarrow A12$; $A4 \rightarrow A6 \rightarrow A10 \rightarrow A11$ (see Figure 7c).

Data source attributes may be divided into two groups: the ones that are equivalent to the attributes in pre-schemas gained from requirements, and the ones that aren't. Let's call the latter *descriptive* attributes as they might provide additional information on the attributes in pre-schemas. An administrator may add descriptive attributes to preschemas, if it is necessary.

The last step but one is an interview with the client during which all generated pre-schemas are being shown. The client should make a decision and choose one pre-schema that would meet the requirements for a new schema best of all.

Finally, to indicate that one of the pre-schemas is selected, an administrator updates the *isAccepted* property of a pre-schema to 1, and the pre-schema is being copied to the data warehouse metadata repository that mostly complies with CWM (Solodovnikova, 2008).

6 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we set forth an approach of building a candidate schema (pre-schema) of a data warehouse that complies with the business requirements stated by the client. We consider requirements as performance indicators of an organization that are gathered during the interview and formalized in accordance with the indicators model described in detail in (Niedritis et al., 2011).

The contribution of this paper is the pre-schema algorithm (PGA) generation that employs indicators, and the description of the semiautomated pre-schema post-processing. We believe that pre-schemas acquired this way will be more apt then schemas gained by applying other demanddriven methods. During the post-processing, preschema hierarchies are defined by a data-driven algorithm. However, there certainly are some presumptions that should be fulfilled first to enable the usage of PGA; for instance, (i) requirements have to be formalized in a specific way, (ii) measures or attributes with the same name but different semantic meaning should be renamed to be distinguishable from one another.

Our future work would include the implementation of the PGA, its testing on a large set of indicators of an existing data warehouse schemas followed by its evaluation. Also, quality attributes for evaluations of accepted pre-schemas should be introduced. Afterwards, the pre-schemas defined by PGA would be processed and the resulting pre-schema(s) would be compared with the existing data warehouse schemas.

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