

# CS 338 course note

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## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction to database</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Relational</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Relational algebra and calculus</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>SQL manipulation</b>	<b>7</b>
4.1	Data manipulation . . . . .	7
4.2	Data modification . . . . .	9
4.3	advance topic . . . . .	11
<b>5</b>	<b>ER</b>	<b>12</b>
5.1	Basic . . . . .	12
5.2	Mapping . . . . .	14
<b>6</b>	<b>Normalization</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>Transaction</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>8</b>	<b>Storage and indexing</b>	<b>21</b>
8.1	better way to organize data . . . . .	21
8.2	Better way to store data . . . . .	22

# 1 Introduction to database

1. Terms
  - Data redundancy: presence of duplicate data in multiple data files
  - Data inconsistency: the same attribute may have different values
2. Database
  - a collection of related information stored in a structured form
3. DBMS:
  - a collection of programs that manipulate a database
4. Data Model
  - Relational Model
  - Object-oriented model
  - semi-structured data model
  - network model
  - Hierarchical model
5. Schema
  - Physical schema: database at physical level
  - logical schema: database at logical schema
  - External schema: database at external schema

## 2 Relational

### 1. Terms

- attribute: each column with in a table
- domain: all possible value of a attribute
- Primary key: a attribute in a row that must be unique in a table
- Tuple: rows
- Schema of a relation: definiton of a table
- a instance: table content

### 2. Integrity Constaints

is a condition that must be true for any instance of the database

Domain constrain: must satisifeid domain

Primary key constraints: each relation must have a primary key, and they must be unique

Foreign key: set of filed in one relation used to refert to a tuple in another relation

### 3 Relational algebra and calculus

1. Relational Query language  
A major strength of the relational model: supports simple, powerful querying of data
2. Relational algebra  
Result of a retrieval is new relation  
sequence of relational algebra operations forms a relational algebra expression
3. Operations
  - selection ( $\sigma$ ): select a subset of rows from relation
  - projection( $\pi$ ) deletes unwanted columns from relation
  - cross-product(X) allows us combine 2 relations
  - Set-difference (-) tuples in relation1 but not 2
  - Union(Y) tuple in one of 1 or 2

Format: (operation)<sub>boolean</sub> (relation)
4. Boolean  
used to show true value
5. Assignment operation  
< – allowed to assign variable
6. Union compatible  
if 2 relations have the same degree and all attributes are defined on same domains
7. Foreign key  
Assume R1(ABC), R2(EFG) there is a FK: R1.A references R2.G  
the value of R1.A must be  
Null or unique in R2  
however, R2.G does not need to be PK
8. Rename operation (useless)  
format:  $p_{(relation)}(relation)$  or  $p_{(col,col)}(relation)$   
the first one rename relation, but the second one only rename column
9. Join operation  
symbol:  $\bowtie$   
a combination of cross product and selection, notice must have different attributes name  
The following are the same:
  - $e < -R1XR2$   
result  $< -\sigma_{bool}(e)$

- $R1 \text{ (join)}_{bool}(R2)$
10. Natural join operation  
 $\text{result} \leftarrow R1 * R2$   
 Assume  $R(ABC), S(AD), R * S \rightarrow (ABCD)$   
 will auto=same attributes, and combine attributes, also allowed same attribute name
  11. Division Operation  
 Assume  $R1(r1_i), R2(r2_i), R1 \div R2 =$   
 $(r1_i)$  such that  $r1_i \notin R2$  and keep all tuple that all not included  $r1_i$  appear in  $R2$
  12. Aggreation:  
 $G_i g_{f_i(A_i)}(E)$ , allowed optional  $As$  to change the name of function  $F1$   
 function includes
    - avg
    - min
    - max
    - sum
    - count

## 4 SQL manipulation

### 4.1 Data manipulation

1. select basic format  
**select** (attribute) **from** (table) **where** (condition)  
if multiple table selected, they will be cross producted  
can use table.attribute to for duplicate column names  
where, order by, group by, having must be in this order
2. rename  
can rename attribute name **AS**  
can give table temp name right after it's name
3. **distinct**  
a key word to eliminate duplicates in rows  
usage: **select distinct** (attributes).....
4. nested query  
when nest a table in from, must give the table a name  
when used in where, no need to give name
5. **join**  
usage: (table) **join** (table) **on** (condition (only equality))
6. **natural join**  
usage: (table) **natural join** (table)  
other join is the same by different name
7. **Like**  
compare text value in pattern  
% compare zero or more characters  
\_ compare exactly one character
8. **IN** and **NOT IN**  
check if the attribute value is in the subsequence table
9. explicit sets  
like (1,2,3) for in and not in
10. **exists**  
will return true if the table have atleast one row
11. **Unique/not unique**  
not supported in SQLite  
will check if there is any duplicate rows
12. **any** and **all**  
used with compare operation like (<)

13. **order by**  
sort result on one or more of attribute  
from small to big  
used desc to reverse
14. **group by**  
include grouping attributes  
if used, **select** (attribute) can only include aggregation function and grouping attributes
15. **having**  
is like use aggregation in where
16. **union** and **intersection**, minus  
(q1) union/intersect/except (q2),



## 4.2 Data modification

1. Create table  
**Create table** table name (Attribute Domain, or integrity-constraint)
2. Domain type
  - char(n): a fixed length string
  - varchar(n): not fixed string length with maximum length n
  - int: integer
  - smallint: small integer
  - numeric(p, d): fixed point number: p is digit, n is the position of decimal
  - real, double precision: floating point and double precision floating point numbers
  - float(n): floating point number with n is digit
  - not null: can't be null
  - customized domain: create a specific domain
3. Date/time type
  - date: date
  - time: Time with day, hour minutes and second
  - timestamp: date+time
  - Interval: period of time
4. Integrity Constraint in SQL I
  - not null
  - primary key ( $A_i$ )
  - check (P): p is a condition
5. Foreign key  
**Foreign key** ( $A_i$ ) **References**  $R(b_i)$   
allow  $A_i$  refer to  $R(B_I)$
6. Drop table  
Drop table simply remove the table from database with all information
7. Alter table  
is used to add/change attribute type, domain  
**Alter table** (r) add (A D) drop (A D)
8. Delete  
**Delete from R where P**  
delete row from R where satisfied P

9. Insert  
**Insert into R values** (v)  
v must match the correct order of R's attributes
10. Update  
**Update R set** (attribute = expression) **where** (condition)
11. Case  
**Case when then else end**

### 4.3 advance topic













1. Views  
create a "temp" table  
**create view** view name **as** query
2. Why views  
view help to create data
3. Assertion  
**create assertion** (name) **check** (condition)
4. Triggers  
**create trigger** (name) **after** (some condition) (event)

## 5 ER

### 5.1 Basic

1. Entity (square)  
Real-world object distinguishable from other objects
2. Entity Set  
A collection of similar entities
3. Attribute (oval)  
an entity represents a set of attributes
4. Type of attributes
  - Simple: one atomic value
  - Composite: an attribute composed of several components
  - Multi-valued: an entity may have multiple values for the attribute
5. Keys
  - Super key  
an entity set is a set of one or more attributes whose values uniquely determine each entity
  - Candidate key  
of an entity set is a minimal super key
  - primary key (underline)  
is when candidate keys have only one attribute
6. Relationship (diamond)  
connected between 2 entities with a name and some attributes
7. Cardinality
  - 1-1  
means that an entity can only be connected with only one other entity
  - 1-many  
means that one object can be associated with many other entities
  - Many-many  
means that many can associate with many entities
8. Participation Constraint
  - Total participation (double line connected to the diamond)  
every entity in the entity set participates in at least one other entity
  - Partial participation  
can have no relation
9. Weak entity (double rectangle)  
Does not have a primary key  
must be total participation within a relationship

## SUMMARY OF ER NOTATION

Symbol	Meaning
	ENTITY TYPE
	WEAK ENTITY TYPE
	RELATIONSHIP TYPE
	IDENTIFYING RELATIONSHIP TYPE
	ATTRIBUTE
	KEY ATTRIBUTE
	MULTIVALUED ATTRIBUTE
	COMPOSITE ATTRIBUTE
	DERIVED ATTRIBUTE
	TOTAL PARTICIPATION OF $E_2$ IN R
	CARDINALITY RATIO 1:N FOR $E_1:E_2$ IN R
	SOME USE ARROW TO REPRESENT TOTAL PARTICIPATION

## 5.2 Mapping

1. Basic Principles
  - No loss of information
  - Minimal redundancy
  - Minimize the use of NULL
2. Mapping steps
  - Step1: Mapping of regular entity types
  - Step2: Mapping of Multivalued attributes
  - Step3: Mapping of Weak Entity Types
  - Step4: Map 1:1 relationship
  - Step5: Map 1:N relationship
  - Step6: map M:N relationship
  - Step7: Map N-ary relationship types
3. Step1:  
For each strong entity, create a relation R, and include all simple attribute  
break composite attribute  
PK are still PK
4. Step2:  
For each multivalued attribute A belong to S, create a new relationship C  
such that C have 2 column, one for A and one for FK to PK of S  
PK for C is A+FK
5. Step3: weak entity  
For each weak entity W, create a relation R, include the PK of owner  
entity E  
PK of R is: FK from owner + partial key of W
6. Step4  
for each 1 to 1, have 3 way:
  - Both total: combine both relation to 1 attribute but only remain one of the PK
  - One total: add a FK of PK from the 1 side to N relation
  - No total: create a new relation
7. Step5:  
in the N side, include a FK from the 1 entity
8. Step6  
Create a new relation include PK from both entity  
the PK in new relation is the combine of both PK from entity

9. Step7

For each n-ary relationship type R, create new relation C to represent R  
include all PK from all participant, combination is the PK of C

## Summary of ER Mapping

ER Model	Relational Model
Entity type	“Entity” relation
1:1 or 1:N relationship type	Foreign key (or “relationship” relation)
M:N relationship type	“Relationship” relation and two foreign keys
$n$ -ary relationship type	“Relationship” relation and $n$ foreign keys
Simple attribute	Attribute
Composite attribute	Set of simple attributes
Multivalued attribute	Relation and foreign key
Value set	Domain
Primary key	Primary key



## 6 Normalization

1. Why needed  
Redundancy
2. Functional Dependency  
Basis for normlization  
 $A \rightarrow B$   
where  $A, B$  are attributes  
where A's value can determine b's value  
A B must be different attributes
3. Good design  
left hand side of FD is always CK
4. Goal of Decomposition
  - Lossless  
do not loss any information
  - Dependency preservation  
all of the non-trival FDs each end up in just one relation
  - Boyce-Codd normal form  
no redundancy beyond goreign keys
5. Normal forms  
Where the relation satisfy a certain condition
6. Different levels
  - 1NF  
all attribute values are atomic (part of definition of relational model)
  - 2NF  
all non-key attributes must depend on a whole candidate key  
(No partial dependencies)
  - 3NF  
Table is in 2NF and all non-key attribtues must depend on only a canaditate key(no transitivei depdneces)
  - BCNF  
every determinant is a super key
  - BCNF > 3NF > 2NF > 1NF
7. Compute attribute closure  
given a starting key  $S = (a)$   
add any functional dependency  $a \rightarrow b$  to the set S  
recursily add function depdency of b to S  
until there is no more to add

8. BCNF decomposition

first find a key that its attribute closure is not the entire relation  
decompose to

- $R_1 \rightarrow$  that attribute closure
- $R_2 \rightarrow$  rest of attributes + the key

## 7 Transaction

1. Transaction  
is a unit of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items
2. ACID properties
  - Atomicity  
Either all operations of the transaction are properly reflected in the database or none are
  - Consistency  
Database constraints are preserved
  - Isolation  
Although multiple transactions may execute concurrently, each transaction must be unaware of other concurrently executing transactions intermediate transaction results must be hidden from other concurrently executed transactions  
means that every transaction must happen one by one
  - Durability  
after a transaction completes, the changes it has made the database persist, even with system failures
3. Transaction state
  - Active - the initial state; transaction stays in this state while it is executing
  - Partially committed  
after final statement has been executed
  - Failed  
after the discovery that normal execution can no longer proceed
  - Aborted  
After the transaction has been rolled back and the database restored to its state prior to the start of the transaction.. Two options after it has been aborted  
restart or kill
  - Committed  
after successful completion
4. commit  
cause a transaction to complete
5. Rollback  
cause the transaction to end, by aborting  
will have no effect to database (clear all previous not committed operation)

6. isolation levels  
sql have 4 isolation levels about choice about what interaction are allowed by transactions that execute at about the same time
7. Serializable transaction (default)  
one set of statement must be done before another could run
8. Read-committed transactions  
can only see committed data, but not necessarily the same data at each statement
9. Repeatable-read transactions  
for every read, all previous read data will be read again
10. Read uncommitted (dirty read)  
can read even transaction is not committed

## 8 Storage and indexing

### 8.1 better way to organize data

1. DBMS structure

- Query optimization
- Relational operator algs
- Files and access methods
- BUffer management (TLB)
- Disk space management

2. Hash files (FYI)

The files is divied into M equal-sized buckets, numbered from 0 to M-1  
a hash function h determines item K is stored in bucket i, where  $i = h(K)$   
the hash function is very efficient, and insert K is also very efficient  
Collisions occur when a new record hashes to a bucket is full  
an overflow file is kept for sotring such records

3.  $B^+$  tree file organization

data file degradation problem is solved by using  $B^+$ tree file organization

4. indexes as Access paths

A single-level index is an auxiliary file that makes it more efficient to search for a record in the data file  
index ususally specified on one attribute of the file  
more attributes is allowed  
create a (search key, pointer to record) in the file, which ordered by search key

## 8.2 Better way to store data

### 1. Costs of Accessing Disk

the time of reading/writing a disk refer to input/output cost

- Seeking time: time to move the arm to proper track  
4-10 ms, specified by manufacturer
- RRotation time: time to rotate the disk to put the right sector under the read/write head  
depends on RPM, usually 4ms
- Transfer time: time between memory and disk  
defined by interface, usually negligible

### 2. Optimize Disk Access

Data is transferred between disk and main memory in blocks

block is a contiguous sequence of sectors from a single track, size from 512

B - kB

can minimize IO costs (like caching)

### 3. Different Level of RAID(redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks)

- 0: no redundant data, striping only
- 1: mirrored disks (prevent disk fail), mirror only, no striping
- 5: block-level data striping, parity information across all disks, both

### 4. Data striping

Data striping intentionally distributes data blocks of the same file over multiple disks to speed up access performance

### 5. Parity

A parity bit or check bit is a bit added to a string of binary code that indicates whether the number of 1-bits in the string (including the parity bit) is even or odd

### 6. RAID 5 parity method

Assume we have n data block with k bit each block

create a new block that its ith position contain the even/odd parity bit of all ith position in other block

so if one disk failed, we are able to recover it by some computation

### 7. Data backup

- online backup  
instant real-time backup  
RAID 1 and 5  
protect against one HD fail

- Offline backup  
done at each day, copy and ship to different location  
protect against complete failure, but can only recover data from one day ago
8. Alternative Mass storage device  
SSD, Tape drive
9. HDD vs SSD
- Fail rate  
HDD: 1.5 million hours  
SSD: 2.0 million hours
  - IO speed  
HDD: 50-120MB/s  
SSD: > 200 MB/s
  - File open speed  
SSD 30% faster
  - Affect by magnetism  
HDD will be effected, SSD does not
  - Ruggedness  
HDD might be damaged by movement, SSD does not
  - Battery life  
SSD: 2-3 watts, HDD: 5-7 watts
  - Cost  
HDD: \$0.03/gB  
SSD: \$0.2-0.3/gB
  - Capacity  
HDD: around 500GB and 2TB, 10TB for desktops  
SSD: 1TB for notebook, 4TB for desktop
  - OS boot time  
HDD: 30-40s  
SSD: 8-13s
  - Noise  
HDD: loud  
SSD: no sound
  - Vibration  
HDD: yes, SSD: no
10. Tape drive
- Pros  
3x cheaper than HDD  
require no electrical power, when not used

Faster than HDD  
less sensitive to damage  
30 year life  
Can be not active for long time

- Cons  
High entry cost: need IO machine: over \$1000  
not for random access  
need proper storage condition  
can be re-used for 100x at most  
require special driver