

# **Data Management**

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Academic year 2018/2019

Part 1
Introduction to the course

http://www.dis.uniroma1.it/~lenzerini/home/?q=node/53



#### This course is for ...

- ☐ Students of the Master of Science in Engineering in Computer Science
  - ☐ 6 credits
- Prerequisites
  - □ A good knowledge of the fundamentals of Programming Structures and Programming Languages
  - □ A good knowledge of the fundamentals of Databases, in particular SQL, relational data model, Entity-Relationship data model, conceptual and logical database design



# **Objectives**

- □ Knowledge on the structure and the functionalities of Data Management systems from the point of view of data administrators
- □ Knowledge on the structure and the functionalities of Data Management systems from the point of view of Data Management tool designers
- ☐ Other advanced topics in data management



# Organization of the course

Teacher: Maurizio Lenzerini

Home page of Prof. Maurizio Lenzerini

http://www.dis.uniroma1.it/~lenzerini

Home page of the course:

http://www.dis.uniroma1.it/~lenzerin/home/?q=node/53

#### Office hours:

- Tuesday, 5:00 pm
- Dipartimento di Ingegneria Informatica Automatica e Gestionale Antonio Ruberti,

Via Ariosto 25, 2nd floor, room B203 (if available), or room B217 (otherwise)



# Organization of the course

Lectures (via Eudossiana 18):

```
    Monday, 10:00 am – 13:00 am (Classroom 41)
```

Wednesday, 08:00 pm – 10:00 pm (Classroom 41)

Exercises during lectures

- Exam
  - written exam
  - oral exam (if needed)



# Organization of the course

#### **Material**

- ☐ M. Lenzerini, Lecture notes, Available for download from the Moodle system
- ☐ R. Ramakrishnan, J. Gehrke. Database Management Systems. McGraw-Hill, 2004
- □ Papers on specific topics
- More material available in the course web site
  - exercises
  - problems proposed in past exams



# **Course topics**

- ☐ The structure of a Data Base Management System (DBMS)
  - Relational data and queries
  - Buffer manager
- Transaction management
  - The concept of transaction
  - Concurrency management
- ☐ Crash management
  - Classification of failures
  - Recovery
- □ Physical structures for data bases
  - File organizations for data base management
  - Principles of physical database design
- Query processing
  - Evaluation of relational algebra operators
  - Fundamentals of query optimization
- Advanced topics in data management
  - Datawarehousing
  - OLTP vs OLAP



# The Relational Data Model (E.F. Codd – 1970)

#### **CHECKING-ACCOUNT** Table

branch-name	account-no	customer- name	balance
Orsay	10991-06284	Abiteboul	\$3,567.53
Hawthorne	10992-35671	Hull	\$11,245.75

- The Relational Data Model uses the mathematical concept of a relation as the formalism for describing and representing data.
- Question: What is a relation?
- Answer:
  - Mathematically speaking, a relation is a subset of a cartesian product of sets.
  - A relation can be considered as a "table" with rows and columns.



## **Query Languages for the Relational Data Model**

Codd introduced two different query languages for the relational data model:

- Relational Algebra, which is a procedural language.
  - It is an algebraic formalism in which queries are expressed by applying a sequence of operations to relations.
- Relational Calculus, which is a declarative language.
  - It is a logical formalism in which queries are expressed as formulas of first-order logic.

Codd's Theorem: Relational Algebra and Relational Calculus are essentially equivalent in terms of expressive power.

DBMSs are based on yet another language, namely SQL, a hybrid of a procedural and a declarative language that combines features from both relational algebra and relational calculus.



# The Five Basic Operations of Relational Algebra

#### Operators of Relational Algebra:

- Group I: Three standard set-theoretic binary operations:
  - Union
  - Difference
  - Cartesian Product
- Group II. Two special unary operations on relations:
  - Projection
  - Selection

Note: Renaming can be expressed by Projection

- Relational Algebra consists of all expressions obtained by combining these five basic operations in syntactically correct ways.
- If you want to try using Relational Algebra, go to https://users.cs.duke.edu/~junyang/radb/



# Relational Algebra: Standard Set-Theoretic Operations

#### Union

- Input: Two k-ary relations R and S, for some k.
- Output: The k-ary relation R ∪ S, where R ∪ S =  $\{(a_1,...,a_k): (a_1,...,a_k) \text{ is in R or } (a_1,...,a_k) \text{ is in S} \}$

#### • Difference:

- Input: Two k-ary relations R and S, for some k.
- Output: The k-ary relation R S, where R S =  $\{(a_1,...,a_k): (a_1,...,a_k) \text{ is in R and } (a_1,...,a_k) \text{ is not in S} \}$

#### Note:

- In relational algebra, both arguments of the union and the difference must be relations of the same arity.
- In SQL, there is the additional requirement that the corresponding attributes must have the same data type.
- However, the corresponding attributes need not have the same names; the corresponding attribute in the result can be renamed arbitrarily.



#### **Union**

#### **Employee**

Code	Name	Age
7274	Rossi	42
7432	Neri	54
9824	Verdi	45

#### **Director**

Code	Name	Age
9297	Neri	33
7432	Neri	54
9824	Verdi	45

#### **Employee** $\cup$ **Director**

Code	Name	Age
7274	Rossi	42
7432	Neri	54
9824	Verdi	45
9297	Neri	33



#### **Difference**

#### **Employee**

Code	Name	Age
7274	Rossi	42
7432	Neri	54
9824	Verdi	45

#### **Director**

Code	Name	Age
9297	Neri	33
7432	Neri	54
9824	Verdi	45

#### **Employee – Director**

Code	Name	Age
7274	Rossi	42



# Relational Algebra: Cartesian Product

#### Cartesian Product

- Input: An m-ary relation R and an n-ary relation S
- Output: The (m+n)-ary relation R × S, where R × S =  $\{(a_1,...,a_m,b_1,...,b_n): (a_1,...a_m) \text{ is in R and } (b_1,...,b_n) \text{ is in S} \}$

Note:

$$|R \times S| = |R| \times |S|$$



## Relational Algebra: Cartesian Product

**Employee** 

Emp	Dept
Rossi	Α
Neri	В
Bianchi	В

**Dept** 

Code	Chair
Α	Mori
В	Bruni

**Employee** × **Dept** 

Emp	Dept	Code	Chair
Rossi	Α	Α	Mori
Rossi	Α	В	Bruni
Neri	В	Α	Mori
Neri	В	В	Bruni
Bianchi	В	Α	Mori
Bianchi	В	В	Bruni



# **The Projection Operation**

- Motivation: It is often the case that, given a table R, one wants to rearrange the order of the columns and/or suppress/rename some columns
- Projection is a family of unary operations of the form

```
\pi_{\text{<attribute list>}} (<relation name>)
```

or

PROJ<sub><attribute list></sub> (<relation name>)

- The intuitive description of the projection operation is as follows:
  - When the projection is applied to a relation R, it removes all columns whose attributes do not appear in the <attribute list>
  - The remaining columns may be re-arranged (and also renamed)
     according to the order in the <attribute list>
  - Any duplicate rows are eliminated



#### **The Projection Operation**

Show name and Site of employees

## **Employee**

Name	Site	
Neri	Napoli	
Neri	Milano	
Rossi	Roma	

PROJ Name, Site (Employee)

- To rename:  $PROJ_{N \leftarrow Name, A \leftarrow Age}$  (Employee)



# More on the Syntax of the Projection Operation

- In relational algebra, attributes can be referenced by position number
- Projection Operation:
  - Syntax:  $\pi_{i_1,...,i_m}(R)$ , where R is of arity k, and  $i_1,...,i_m$  are distinct integers from 1 up to k.
  - Semantics:

$$\pi_{i_1,...,i_m}(R) = \{ (a_1,...,a_m): \text{ there is a tuple } (b_1,...,b_k) \text{ in } R \text{ such that } a_1 = b_{i_1}, ..., a_m = b_{i_m} \}$$

• Example: If R is R(A,B,C,D), then  $\pi_{C,A}(R) = \pi_{3,1}(R)$ 

 $\pi_{3,1}(R) = \{(a_1,a_2): \text{ there is } (a,b,c,d) \text{ in } R \text{ such that } a_1=c \text{ and } a_2=a\}$ 



# **The Selection Operation**

- Motivation: Given SAVINGS(branch-name, acc-no, cust-name, balance) we may want to extract the following information from it:
  - Find all records in the Aptos branch
  - Find all records with balance at least \$50,000
  - Find all records in the Aptos branch with balance less than \$1,000
- Selection is a family of unary operations of the form

 $\sigma_{\Theta}(R)$  OR  $SEL_{\Theta}(R)$ 

- where R is a relation and  $\Theta$  is a condition that can be applied as a test to each row of R.
- When a selection operation is applied to R, it returns the subset of R consisting of all rows that satisfy the condition ⊙
- Question: What is the precise definition of a "condition"?



# **The Selection Operation**

- Definition: A condition in the selection operation is an expression built up from:
  - Comparison operators =, <, >, ≠, ≤, ≥ applied to operands that are constants or attribute names or component numbers.
    - These are the basic (atomic) clauses of the conditions.
  - The Boolean logic operators ∧, ∨, : applied to basic clauses.

#### Examples:

- balance > 10,000
- branch-name = "Aptos"
- (branch-name = "Aptos") ∧ (balance < 1,000)</p>



# **The Selection Operator**

#### Note:

- The use of the comparison operators <, >, ≤, ≥
   assumes that the underlying domain of values is totally ordered.
- If the domain is not totally ordered, then only = and ≠ are allowed.
- If we do not have attribute names (hence, we can only reference columns via their component number), then we need to have a special symbol, say \$, in front of a component number. Thus,
  - \$4 > 100 is a meaningful basic clause
  - \$1 = "Aptos" is a meaningful basic clause, and so on.



## **The Selection Operator**

Show the employees whose salary is greater than 50

#### **Employee**

Code	Name	Site	Salary
7309	Rossi	Roma	55
5998	Neri	Milano	64
5698	Neri	Napoli	64

 $\sigma_{\text{Salary}} > 50$  (Employee)



# **Relational Algebra Expression**

- Definition: A relational algebra expression is an expression obtained from relation schemas using union, difference, cartesian product, projection, and selection.
- Context-free grammar for relational algebra expressions:

E := R, S, ... |  $(E_1 \cup E_2)$  |  $(E_1 - E_2)$  |  $(E_1 \times E_2)$  |  $\pi_X(E)$  |  $\sigma_{\Theta}(E)$ , where

- R, S, ... are relation schemas
- X is a list of attributes
- ⊕ is a condition.



## **Derived Operation: Intersection**

#### Intersection

- Input: Two k-ary relations R and S, for some k.
- Output: The k-ary relation R ∩ S, where

$$R \cap S = \{(a_1,...,a_k): (a_1,...,a_k) \text{ is in } R \text{ and } (a_1,...,a_k) \text{ is in } S\}$$

■ Fact:  $R \cap S = R - (R - S) = S - (S - R)$ 

Thus, intersection is a derived relational algebra operation.



# Intersection: example

#### **Employee**

Code	Name	Age
7274	Rossi	42
7432	Neri	54
9824	Verdi	45

#### **Director**

Code	Name	Age
9297	Neri	33
7432	Neri	54
9824	Verdi	45

#### **Employee** $\cap$ **Director**

Code	Name	Age
7432	Neri	54
9824	Verdi	45



# **Derived Operation: ⊕–Join and Beyond**

Definition: A ⊕-Join is a relational algebra expression of the form

$$\sigma_{\Theta}(R \times S)$$
 OR R JOIN <sub>$\Theta$</sub>  S

#### Note:

- If R and S have attribute A in common, then we use the notation R.A and S.A to disambiguate.
- The Θ-Join selects those tuples from R × S that satisfy the condition Θ. In particular, if every tuple in R Θ S satisfies Θ, then

$$\sigma_{\Theta}(R \times S) = R \times S$$



## **⊕**–Join and Beyond

- ⊕-joins are often combined with projection to express interesting queries.
- Example: F(name, dpt, salary), C(dpt, name), where F stands for FACULTY and C stands for CHAIR
  - Find the salaries of department chairs C-SALARY(dpt,salary) =  $\pi_{F.dpt, F.salary}(\sigma_{F.name} = C.name)$  (F × C))

Note: The  $\Theta$ -Join in this example is an equijoin, since  $\Theta$  is a conjunction of equality basic clauses.

Exercise: Show that the intersection R ∩ S can be expressed using a combination of projection and an equijoin.



# **Θ-Join and Beyond**

Example: F(name, dpt, salary), C-SALARY(dpt, salary)

Find the names of all faculty members of the EE department who earn a bigger salary than their department chair.

HIGHLY-PAID-IN-EE(Name) =

 $\pi_{F.name}$  ( $\sigma_{F.dpt = "EE" \land F.dpt = C.dpt \land F.salary > C.salary}$  (F × C-SALARY))

Note: The  $\Theta$ -Join above is not an equijoin.



# **Derived Operation: Natural Join**

The natural join between two relations is essentially the equi-join on common attributes.

Given TEACHES(facname, course, term) and ENROLLS(studname, course, term), we compute the natural join TAUGHT-BY(studname, course, term, facname) by:

```
\pi E.studname, E.course, E.term. ,E.course, T.facname (\sigma T.course = E.course \wedge T.term = E.term (ENROLLS \times TEACHES))
```

The resulting expression can be written using this notation:

ENROLLS ⋈ TEACHES

OR

**ENROLLS JOIN TEACHES** 



#### **Natural Join**

 Definition: Let A1, ..., Ak be the common attributes of two relation schemas R and S. Then

$$R \bowtie S = \pi_{\langle list \rangle} (\sigma_{R,A1=S,A1 \land ... \land R,A1=S,Ak}(R \times S)),$$

where t> contains all attributes of R × S, except for S.A1, ..., S.Ak (in other words, duplicate columns are eliminated).

■ Algorithm for R ⋈ S:

For every tuple in R, compare it with every tuple in S as follows:

- test if they agree on all common attributes of R and S;
- if they do, take the tuple in R × S formed by these two tuples,
  - remove all values of attributes of S that also occur in R;
  - put the resulting tuple in R ⋈ S.



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra queries for:

- 1. Find the cities with at least one school with a student who graduated with 100.
- 2. Find the schools where no student has graduated with 100.
- 3. Find the cities where all schools have a student who graduated with 100
- 4. For all school, find the student(s) who graduated with the minimum grade in the school.



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra query for:

 Find the cities with at least one school with a student who graduated with 100.



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school)
School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra query for:

1. Find the cities with at least one school with a student who graduated with 100.

PROJ<sub>city</sub> (SEL<sub>mark=100</sub> (Graduated) JOIN<sub>school=scode</sub> School))



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra query for:

2. Find the schools where no student has graduated with 100.



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school)
School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra query for:

2. Find the schools where no student has graduated with 100.

PROJ<sub>scode</sub> (School) – PROJ<sub>school</sub> (SEL<sub>mark=100</sub> (Graduated))



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school)

School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra query for:

2. Find the schools where no student has graduated with 100.

PROJ<sub>scode</sub> (School) –

PROJ<sub>scode</sub> (SEL<sub>mark=100</sub> (Graduated) JOIN<sub>school=scode</sub> School))

The scode of the schools with at least one graduated with 100



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra query for:

3. Find the cities where all schools have a student who graduated with 100

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Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school)
School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra query for:

3. Find the cities where all schools have a student who graduated with 100

```
PROJ<sub>city</sub> (School) – The cities with some school with no graduated with 100
```

```
PROJ<sub>city</sub> (School –

PROJ<sub>scode,city</sub> (SEL<sub>mark=100</sub> (Graduated) JOIN<sub>school=scode</sub> School)

The schools with at least one graduated with 100
```



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school)
School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra query for:

4. For all school, find the student(s) who graduated with the minimum grade in the school.



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school)
School(scode,city)

and write the Relational Algebra query for:

4. For all school, find the student(s) who graduated with the minimum grade in the school.

```
PROJ_{school,gcode} \ (Graduated - \\ PROJ_{gcode,mark,school} \ (Graduated \ JOIN_{mark>m \ and \ school=s} \\ PROJ_{m \ \leftarrow \ mark, \ s \ \leftarrow \ school} \ (Graduated))
```



- SQL is the standard language for relational DBMSs
- We will present the syntax of the core SQL constructs and then will give rigorous semantics by interpreting SQL to Relational Algebra.
- Note: SQL typically uses multiset semantics, but we ignore this property here, and we only consider the setbased semantics (adopted by using the keyword **DISTINCT** in queries)

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The basic SQL construct is:

```
SELECT DISTINCT <attribute list>
FROM <relation list>
WHERE <condition>
```

More formally,

```
SELECT DISTINCT R_{i1}.A1, ..., R_{im}.Am FROM R_1, ..., R_K WHERE \gamma
```

#### **Restrictions:**

- $R_1, ..., R_K$  are relation names (possibly, with aliases for renaming, where an alias S for relation name  $R_i$  is denoted by  $R_i$  AS N)
- ■Each R<sub>ij</sub>.Aj is an attribute of R<sub>ij</sub>
- $\blacksquare \gamma$  is a condition with a precise (and rather complex) syntax.



## SQL vs. Relational Algebra

SQL	Relational Algebra
SELECT	Projection
FROM	Cartesian Product
WHERE	Selection

Semantics of SQL via interpretation to Relational Algebra:

SELECT DISTINCT R<sub>i1</sub>.A1, ..., R<sub>im</sub>.Am

FROM  $R_1, ..., R_K$ 

WHERE  $\gamma$ 

corresponds to

$$\pi_{Ri1.A1...Rim.Am} (\sigma_{\gamma}(R_1 \times ... \times R_K))$$



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the SQL queries for:

- 1. Find the cities with at least one school with a student who graduated with 100.
- 2. Find the schools where no student has graduated with 100.
- 3. Find the cities where all schools have a student who graduated with 100
- 4. For all school, find the student(s) who graduated with the minimum grade in the school.



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the SQL query for:

1. Find the cities with at least one school with a student who graduated with 100.



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the SQL query for:

 Find the cities with at least one school with a student who graduated with 100.

select city
from Graduated join School on school = scode
where mark = 100



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school)

School(scode,city)

and write the SQL query for:

2. Find the schools where no student has graduated with 100.



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the SQL query for:

2. Find the schools where no student has graduated with 100.

select scode from School where scode not in (select scode

from Graduate join School on school=scode where mark = 100)



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the SQL query for:

3. Find the cities where all schools have a student who graduated with 100

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Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school) School(scode,city)

and write the SQL query for:

3. Find the cities where all schools have a student who graduated with 100 select city from School

where city not in (select city from School where scode not in (select scode from Graduate

where mark = 100)



Consider a database with relations

Graduated(gcode,mark,school)
School(scode,city)

and write the SQL query for:

4. For all school, find the student(s) who graduated with the minimum grade in the school.



- SQL is the standard language for relational DBMSs
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SELECT DISTINCT <attribute list>
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More formally,

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#### **Restrictions:**

- $R_1, ..., R_K$  are relation names (possibly, with aliases for renaming, where an alias S for relation name  $R_i$  is denoted by  $R_i$  AS N)
- Each R<sub>ii</sub>. Aj is an attribute of R<sub>ii</sub>
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