

# Lecture-1



16-07-19

Page \_\_\_\_\_

Tuesday

## ADBMS

### Advance Database Management System.

Data - Collection of object which can be collect.

It is a raw entity.

It is bits which form up information.

It is accepted by the computer system.

e.g. Glass, Each student's test score is one piece of data.

Information - Process of collection of data.

e.g. Glass is full of water,

The average score of a class or of the entire school is information that can be derived from the given data.

Information is the message that is being conveyed, whereas data are plain facts.

Once the data is processed, organized, structured or presented in a given context, it can become useful. Then data will become information/knowledge.

Database - It is defined as collection of interrelated data and DBMS is software used to manipulate data stored into database to generate information.

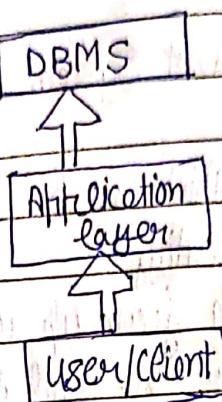
or set of records or programs to organize data.

Records - One student have only one record.

1-tier DBMS - Programmers communicate directly with the database for quick response, used for local application development.

→ When the database is directly available to the user for using it to store data.

## 2-tier DBMS -

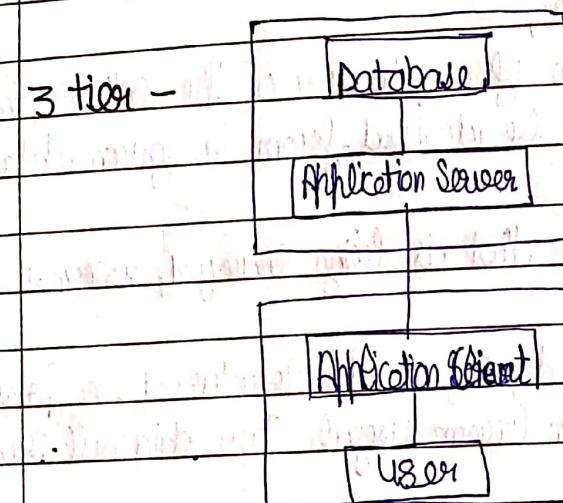


↳ Simple Client Server model

Disadvantage → ~~sustainability~~ Scalability

→ Reliability

## 3 tier -



for large web application.

client can't directly communicate with the server.

\* Logical representation or overall design of a database is called schema.

Three Schema Architecture

↳ This framework is used to describe the structure of a specific database system.

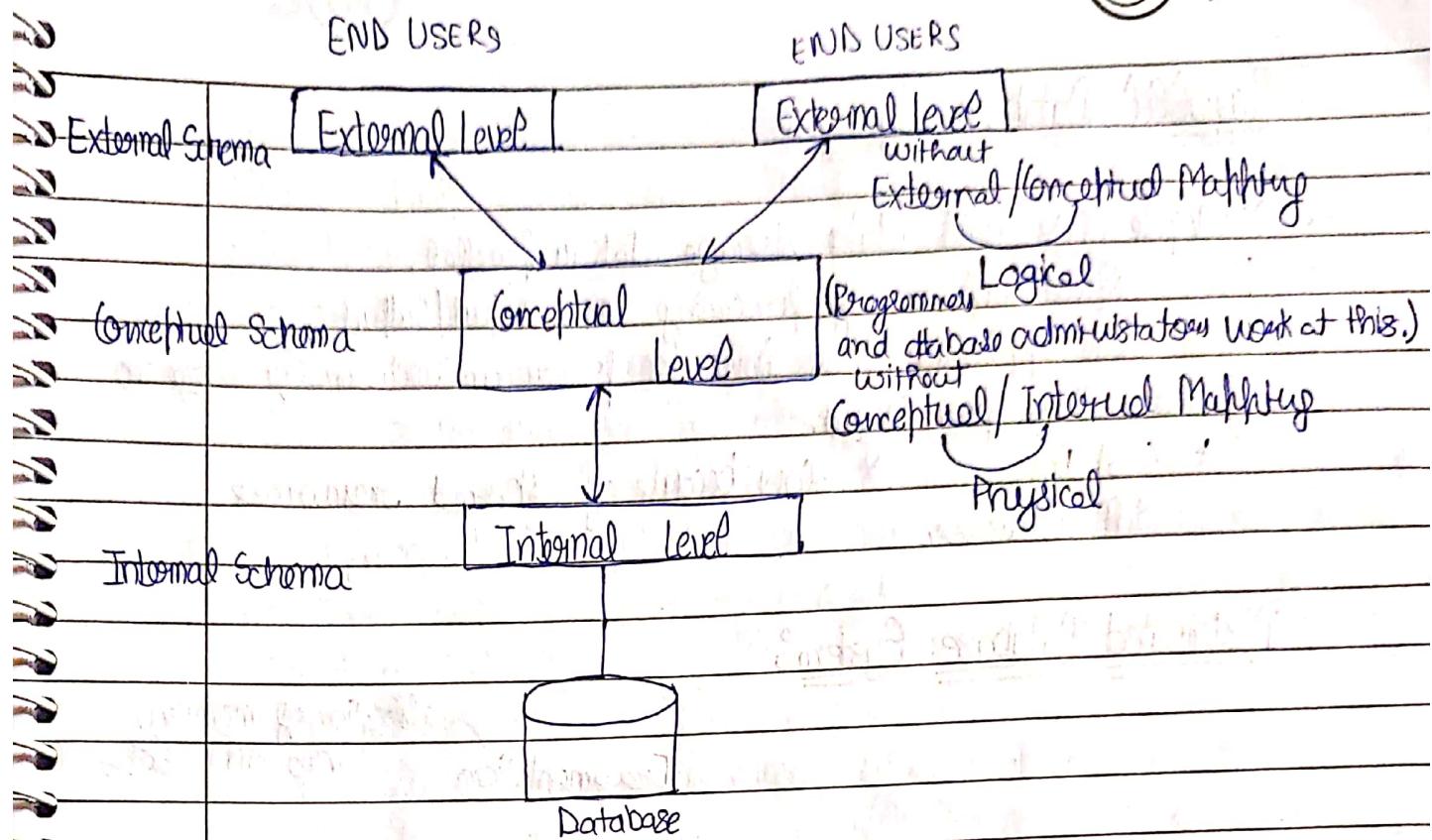
↳ Separate user application and physical database.

External level / View

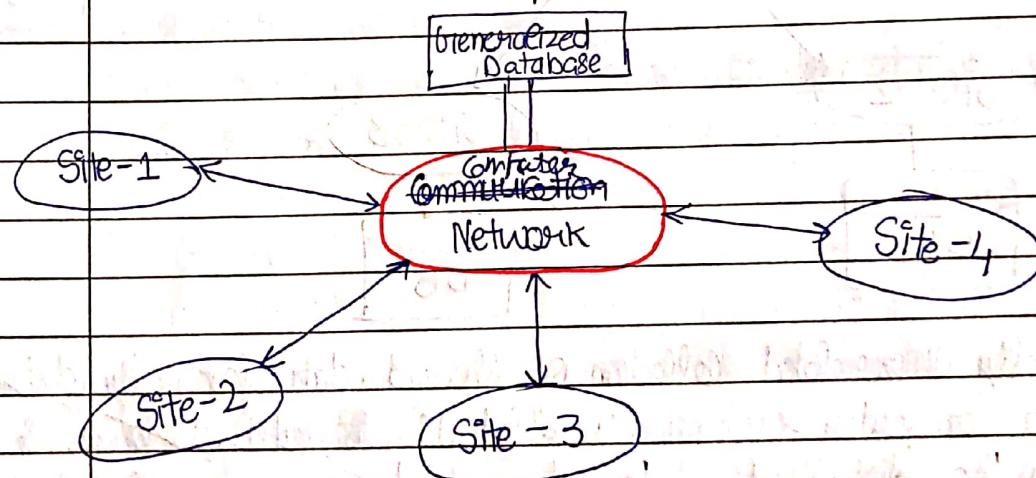
Conceptual level

Physical / Internal level

**Data Independence** - change one level of the database without changing the next higher level.



### Architecture of Generalized/Centralized Database



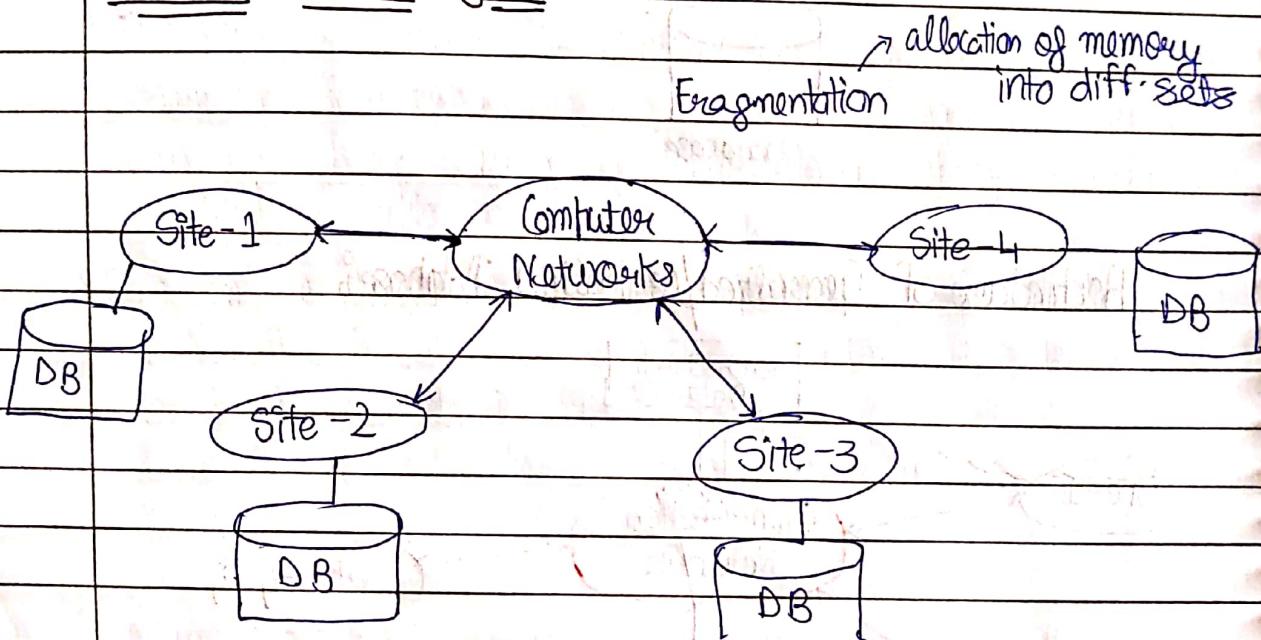
#### Disadvantage →

- When the central site computer or database system goes down, then every one (user) is blocked from using the system until the system comes back. — **Bottle neck**  
(no. of users are more — accessing the database is slow).
- Communication costs from the terminals to the central site can be expensive.
- less Reliability (If system fails, not getting access to database).

## Parallel Database System

- ↳ Multiple CPUs and data storage disk in parallel.
- ↳ Hence speed increase of processing and Input/Output
- ↳ Used for application that have to process on extremely large no. of transactions per second.
- \* Cost for diff. Processor
- \* slow because of shared resources

## Distributed Database System



A logically interrelated collection of shared data physically distributed over a computer network is called as distributed database. & principle → makes the distribution transparent to user, is called Distributed database.

- ↳ It consists of a single logical database that is split into a no. of fragments.
- ↳ Each fragment is stored on one or more computers under the control of separate DBMS, with the computers connected by a communication.
- ↳ These machines are spread geographically and connected together.
- ↳ Fragments allocated to diff. sites

by a variety of communication networks.

Advantages →

- ① No more Bottleneck
- ② More Reliable (copies of every database/records)
- ③ Better performance and greater efficiency
- ④ Lower communication cost
- ⑤ Easily expandable (As data volumes and transaction rates increase, user can grow the system incrementally).

Disadvantage →

Recovery from failures is more difficult than others.

Data at each site is under control of DBMS. DBMS also has its own rights i.e. it can handle local application independently. Each database in DBMS in a distributed system must have atleast one local application.

It can be classified into two parts - Heterogeneous DDBMS  
Homogenous DDBMS

Heterogeneous DDBMS -

- ① Different sites used dissimilar schema and software.
- ② System may be composed of relational, network, hierarchical and object oriented DBMSs. (variety of DBMS).
- ③ Query Processing is complex due to dissimilar schema.
- ④ A site may not be aware of other site and there is limited operation and processing user request.
- ⑤ It has different type of interface.

Wednesday

### Homogeneous DDBMS -

- ① It has identical database or tables and also have identical operating system.
- ② It has single interface.
- ③ Each site is aware of all other sites and cooperate with other sites to process user request.
- ④ They are easier to design and manage.

### Lecture - 2

Fragmentation occurs in a dynamic memory allocation system when many of free blocks are too small to satisfy any request.

- ↳ It is a task of dividing a table into a set of smaller table.
- ↳ The subset of table are fragmentation.
- ↳ Data can be stored in different computers by fragmenting the whole database into several pieces called fragments. Each piece is stored at a different site.
- ↳ It is logical data units stored at various sites in a distributed database system.

### Advantages of Fragmentation:

1. Usage: In general, application work with views rather than entire relations. Therefore, for data distribution, it seems appropriate to work with subsets of relation as the unit of distribution.
2. Efficiency: Data is stored close to where it is most frequently used. In addition, data that is not needed by local application is not stored.
3. Parallelism: With fragments as the unit of distribution, a transaction can be divided into several sub queries that

operate on fragments. This should increase the degree of concurrency, a parallelism, in the system, thereby allowing transactions that can do so safely to execute in parallel.

4. Security: Data not required by local application is not stored, and consequently not available to unauthorized users.

### Disadvantages of fragmentation:

1. Performance: The performance of global application that requires data from several fragments located at different sites may be slower.
2. Integrity: It control may be more difficult if domain functional dependencies are fragmented and located at different sites.

*(Semi-Join) Operations*

Types: 1. Horizontal fragmentation (Rows) (Attribute must be same)  
a) Primary Horizontal fragmentation (Basic operators  $>$ ,  $<$ ,  $=$ )  
b) Derived Horizontal fragmentation (AND, OR, NOT)  
2. Vertical fragmentation (Columns) (Rows must be same)  
a) Partitioning (Bottom-up) (By adding new attributes)  
b) Splitting (Top-down) (divided into no of fragments)  
3. Hybrid fragmentation

### Horizontal Fragmentation:

- ① Groups the tuples of a table in accordance to values of one or more fields.
- ② It also conforms to the rule of reconstruction.
- ③ Each HF must have all columns of original base tables.
- ④ All fragments are stored at diff. site and each fragmentation has diff. tuple.

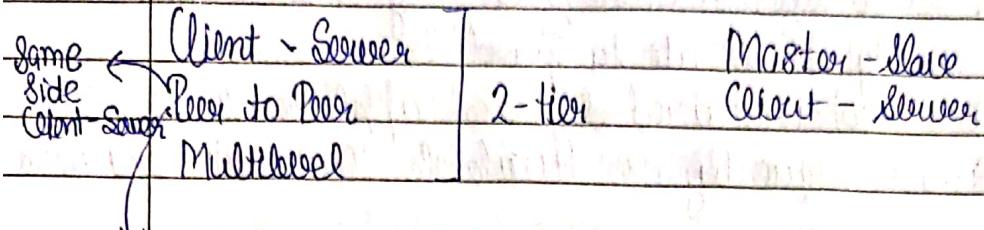
## LECTURE - 3



date 19/07/19  
page \_\_\_\_\_

Friday

### Architecture - Organizing the Database



All the sites act as distributed system

Single Client - Single Server

Multiple Client - Multiple Server

Global Schema → logical representation of

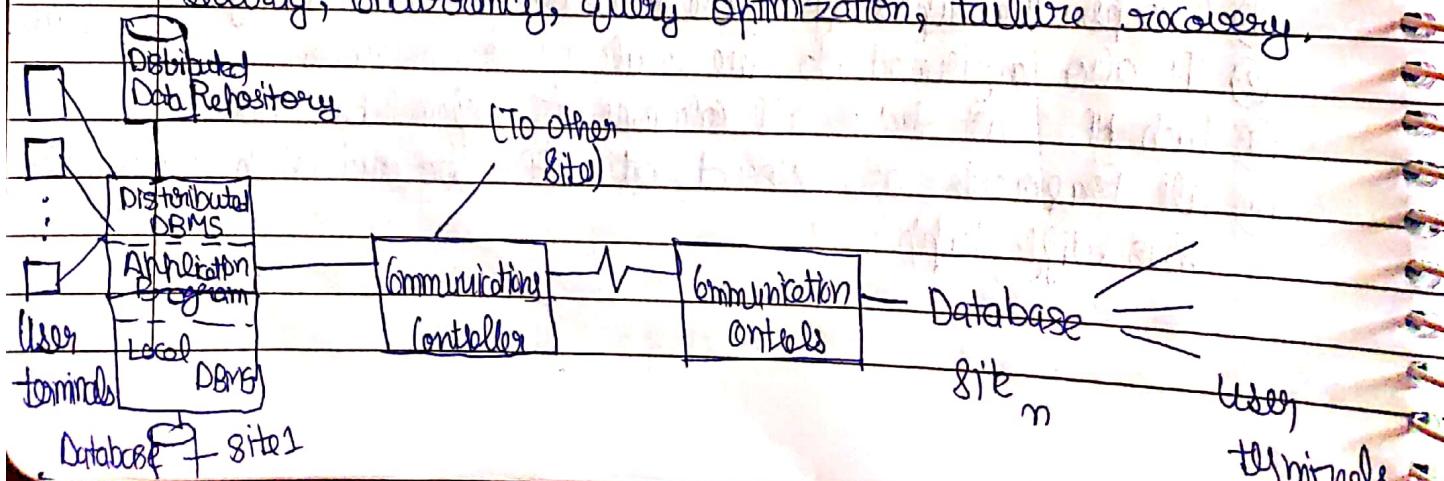
whole database.

only responding the request

### Distributed DBMS architecture

Functions of

- Locate data with a distributed data dictionary.
- Determine location from which to retrieve data and process query components.
- DBMS translation between models with different local DBMS (using middleware).
- Data consistency (via multiphase commit protocols).
- Global primary key control.
- Scalability.
- Security, concurrency, query optimization, failure recovery.



## Local Transaction Steps:

1. Application makes request to distributed DBMS.
2. DDBMS checks distribute data repository for location of data, find that it is local.
3. DDBMS sends request to local DBMS.
4. Local DBMS processes request.
5. Local DBMS sends results to application.

Application Program → DDBMS

DDBMS ↔ Database data repository

DDBMS → Local DBMS

Local DBMS ↔ Database Site 1

Local DBMS → Application Program

## Global Transaction Steps:

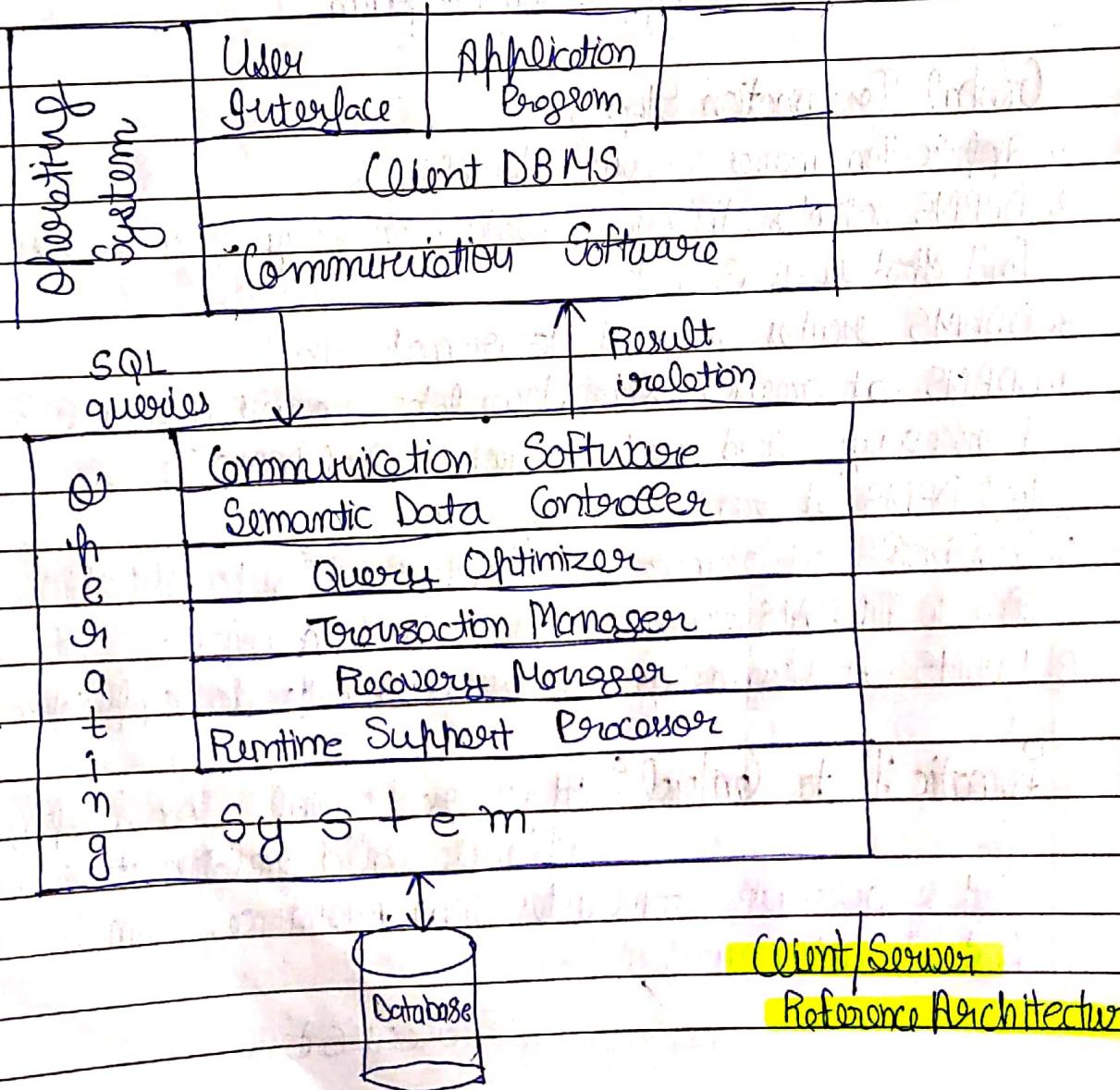
1. Application makes request to DDBMS.
2. DDBMS checks distribute data repository for location of data, find that it is remote.
3. DDBMS routes request to remote site.
4. DDBMS at remote site translates request for its local DBMS if necessary, and sends request to local DBMS.
5. Local DBMS at remote site processes request.
6. Local DBMS at remote site sends results to DDBMS at remote site.
7. Remote DDBMS sends results back to originating site.
8. DDBMS at originating site sends results to application.

\* **Somatic Data Control:** It is responsible for keeping a database valid relative to a specified set of constraints. It includes view maintenance, somatic integrity control and security control.

data protective access control

## Client/Server Systems

- This provides two-level architecture which make it easier to manage the complexity of modern DBMS, where the functionality is divided into servers and clients.
- The Server functions, primarily deals with data management, query processing, optimization, transaction and storage management.
- Client functions includes usually user interface. (management the data that is echoed to the client, management of the transaction factor).
- This is quite common in relational systems where the communication between the client and servers is at the level of SQL statements.



## Schema

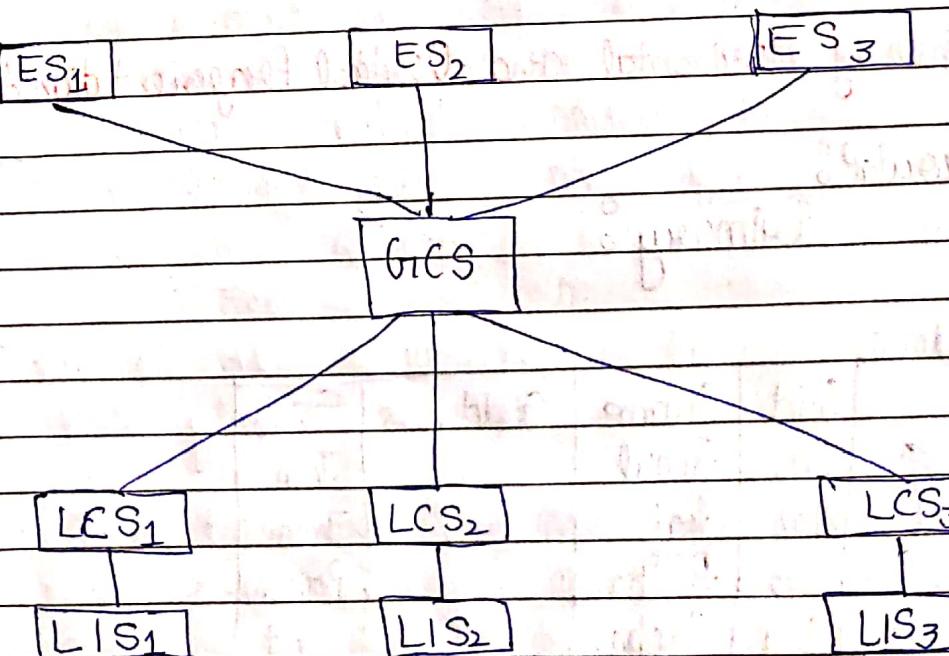
↳ graphical depiction of the database structure



Date \_\_\_\_\_  
Page \_\_\_\_\_

### Peer-to-Peer:

- Unlike Client/Server, peer-to-peer model doesn't differentiate between client & server.  
Instead each node can either be a client or server depending on whether the node is requesting or providing the service.
- This architecture generally has 4-level of Schema:
  - 1: Local Conceptual Schema (LCS): describes the logical organization of data at each site.
  - 2: Global Conceptual Schema (GCS): describes the enterprise's global (logical) view of the data.
  - 3: Local Internal Schema (LIS): It is an individual internal schema definition at each site.  
(Physical Data Organisation) at each site.
  - 4: External Schema (ES): (Work with the user view of data), support user applications and user access to the database.



Peer-to-Peer

Relational Database

(Not in Syllabus)



Date \_\_\_\_\_  
Page \_\_\_\_\_

Multi-DBMS architecture: It can be expressed through 6-level of schema:

1. Multi Database view level: Multiple user views comprising the work of this schema. (subset of integrated distributed system).
2. Multi Database conceptual level: Integrated Multi-Database that comprises of Global, logical, Multidatabase structure definition.
3. MultiDatabase Internal level: Data distribution occurs at diff. sites and Multi-database to handle data mapping.
4. Local Database view level: Public view of local data.
5. Local Database conceptual level: Work with local data occurrence at each site.
6. Local Database Tutorial level: Physical data occurrence at each site.

### Examples of Horizontal and Vertical Fragmentation:

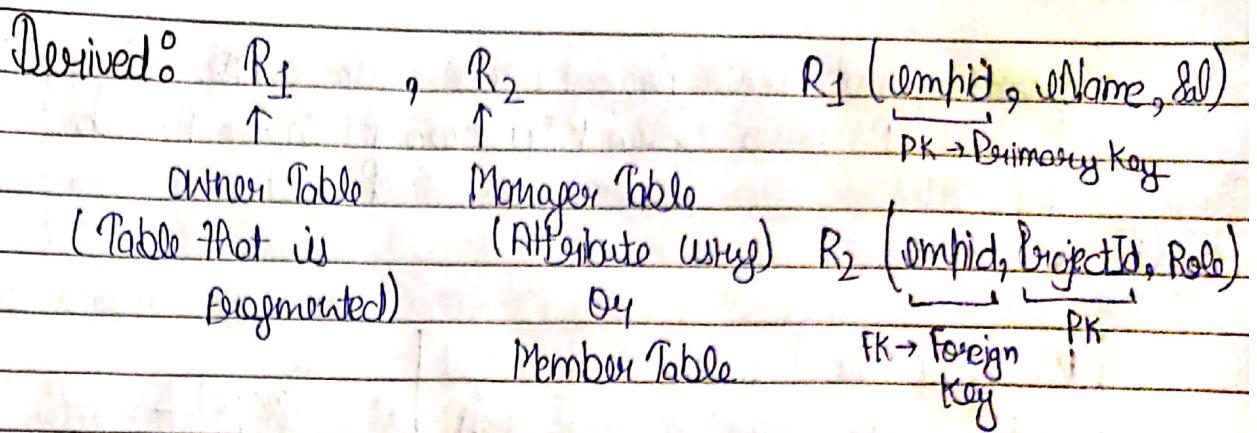
Horizontal:

Primary:

Student

	S.id	SName	SAddress	Ssub
F1 {	101	Rahul		JAVA
	102	Raj		JAVA
F2 {	103	Ritika		PYTHON
F3 {	104	Raghav		C++

F1 → Select \* from Student where Ssub = "JAVA";



DT < Owner >

	DNo	DName	Budget	Loc.
F1	D1	CSE	7K	Mumbai
F2	D2	Mach	3K	Delhi
	D3	ETC	10K	Delhi
F3	D4	MCA	5K	Jaipur

PK

PT < Member >

	PNo	PName	Budget	DNo
P1	DST	13K	D2	
P2	AICE	15K	D3	
P3	Avon	16K	D2	
P4	Architecture	13K	D1	
P5	Medical.	19K	D1	

PK

FK

Step 1  $\rightarrow$  Create Fragments of Owner table

F1  $\rightarrow$  Select \* from DT where Loc = 'MUMBAI';

F1	DNo	DName	Budget	Loc
	D1	CSE	7K	Mumbai

Step 2  $\rightarrow$  Perform semi-join operation on PT relation and fragments.

Syntax: Create Table Project1 as select PNo, PName, Budget,  
 - PT.DNo from PT, where PT.DNo = f.DNo.

(Project1)

PT  $\bowtie$  F1

PT  $\bowtie$  F3

(Project3)

(Project2)

PT  $\bowtie$  F2

PT.DNo	P.No.	PName	Budget	
D1	P4	Architecture	13K	Project1
D1	P5	Medical	19K	

22/07/17

## LECTURE - 4

Monday

SQL Performance Tools: To check the performance of your database.

- Directly Accessing Database is not good, any failure can occur.
- Frequently Accessing Data from Database, to increasing the performance, view is used.

(Efficiency)

→ act as interface  
b/w database and  
end user.

Simple View: Working with single table

Complex View: Working with multiple table.

→ no need to access the Database

1. View is virtual on logical tables for the base (original) table.
2. View doesn't store data but it only stores the query statement.
3. View will create with help of Select statement.
4. View is used to retrieving data from table.  
Two types of views are there:
1. Simple View: It is access the required data from a single Base table.  
→ It can access a support or create DML operation or access it.

→ Simple view is also called updatable view.

DML → Select, insert, update, ~~delete~~

DDL → Create, drop, alter, truncate, rename, comment

DCL → Grant, Revoke

TCL → Commit, Rollback, Savepoint, ~~Set Transaction~~

Syntax of Simple View: (also for Complex view)

Create View <viewname> AS Select \* from <Table Name>  
 [ where (Condition) ];

optional

e.g.

Empl

Eid	EName	Sal
101	Jones	25000
102	Scott	15000
103	Allen	30000
104	Smith	60000
105	Warner	48000

→ Create view v1 AS Select \* from Empl;  
 → Insert into v1 values (106, 'ABC', 68000);  
 → Update ~~v1~~ v1  
~~Set~~ Sal = 80000 where Eid = 103  
 → Delete from v1  
 where Eid = 106;

→ not case sensitive

as

2: Complex view: They are applicable when we access the required data from multiple base table.

→ It doesn't support all DML operations on multiple base tables at a time.

→ It is also called as non-updatable view.

e.g.

Empl - PS

Eid	EName	Sal
101	Jones	25000
102	Scott	15000
103	Allen	30000
104	Smith	60000
105	Warner	48000
106	ABC	68000

Empl - BS

Eid	EName	Sal
101	Jones	25000
109	PQR	90000
110	STV	88000

Syntax : Create view <viewname> as select \* from <tablename>;

- Create view CV1 as select \* from emp. ~~for~~<sup>U</sup> select \* from emp. b;
- Output contains 8 Records
- select \* from CV1;
- Other operations are not allowed except select,  
Give where - constant or derived ~~not~~ field.

\* Diff. between Complex and Simple View in CSA - Lecture 6

Tuesday

## LECTURE-5

23/07/19

Index :

Select \* from emp where sal = 3000;

Empl (not index)

eno	ename	sal	deptno	job
1	KUMAR	5000	10	MANAGER
2	DELL	3000	20	CLERK
3	SRINIVAS	1000	30	CLERK
4	ROSE	2000	30	CLERK
5	MILLER	3000	40	CLERK

time consuming (To check  $sal=3000$ ).

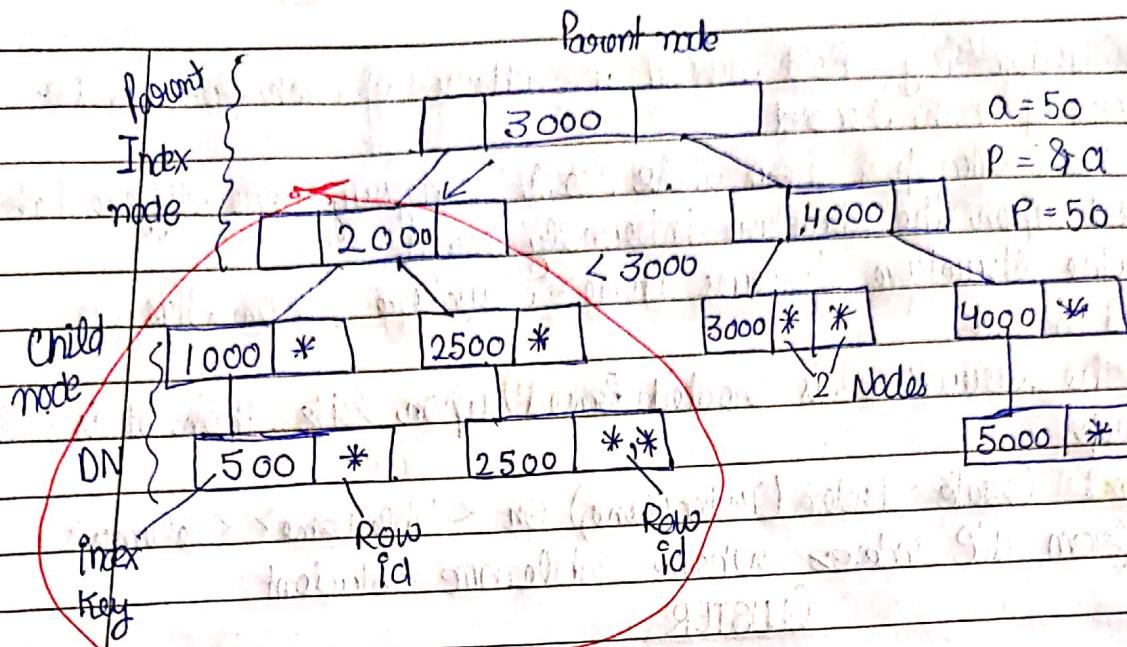
→ Index <sup>inc</sup> performance and efficiency of the database system.

→ Index is applied to a particular column.

It is categorised into 2 types :

(i) B+ TREE

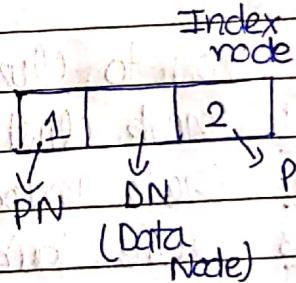
(ii) BITMAP



Syntax: Create Index Ix on emp(2d) column table

1) Table Scan  $\rightarrow$  Linear

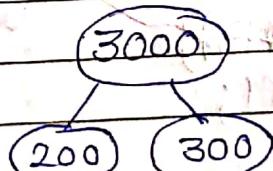
2) Index Scan  $\rightarrow$  Non-linear data-structure



Pointer  $\rightarrow$  Holds the address of another variable.

Row-Id  $\rightarrow$  Record-Id

Syntax:



1) Set Auto-increm on Archbin  $\rightarrow$  Show Index

2) Index

$\rightarrow$  If it is a database subject that makes data retrievable faster.

$\rightarrow$  DB Index works the same way as an index in a book.

$\rightarrow$  Index created on column and that col is called Index-Key.

- Each index-key hold row-id i.e. address of each record, i.e. address of each record.
- B-Tree, Bitmap, ~~these both~~ these both category are differentiated based upon the structure internally created.
- If the structure follows tree-structure, then this is called B-tree.
- If the structure is created based upon lists then it is called Bitmap.

Syntax: Create index <Indexname> on <Table name> <Column>  
Select \* from all\_index where tablename = student

### CLUSTER

A cluster is a db object that stores data related to two or more tables in a single disc space.

- How to Cluster the table.

Step1 Create cluster.

Step2 Create Index on cluster.

Step3 Create table.

Create cluster <Cluster name> (col.name Datatype);

Create cluster c1 (dno number(3));

Create index ci On cluster (I;

Index name

Create table dept (dno number(2), dname varchar(20),  
 cluster (1 (dno)));

Create table emp (emp\_no number(2), ename varchar(20),  
 cluster (1 (empno)));

Select rowid, d\_no, d\_name from dept;

Select rowid, emp\_no, ename, d\_no from emp;

Non

Friday

## LECTURE - 6

Sequence

Complexity

 QUERY PERFORMANCE TOOLS  $O(n^2)$   $O(n) - n^2$ 

① INDEX	→ SIMPLE (Create only one index)
② VIEW	→ COMPOSITE (From diff. indexes)
③ SEQUENCE	→ UNIQUE (Primary Index) (Id) NON-UNIQUE (normal Index) <small>FAIL UNIQUE INDEX doesn't</small>
④ CLUSTER	→ BIT MAP (Decide by support) B-TREE (Searching and Order of <small>eg(n)</small> ) FUNCTION (UPNAME, arithmetic function)

In the case of query performance tools, it will increase the performance of query based on efficiency, Time Complexity, Searching Time of the data, using tools, we can improve the performance of searching data : ① Index

② View

③ Sequence

④ Cluster

1. Index : It is used by query to find the data from table quickly. It is internal process of SQL engine. In generally, user can create an index for a particular table.

 Syntax : (Common Rule)

- Create a table of full time emp ~~full~~ (FTE) where data is emp\_id, emp\_name, gender, designation, salary.
- insert the data (minimum 5 entries).

① Simple Index : Create Index <index\_name> ON <table\_name> (attribute);

31/07/19

## LECTURE - 7



Date \_\_\_\_\_  
Page \_\_\_\_\_

Wednesday

It will create in a particular table and SQL engine by default create based on the primary key value.

Rules → a) Manipulation performed very less, in which we create index. (Bad effect on performance of database).

I

Implicit (Generated automatically)

✓ Explicit (User-defined)

→ `DROP INDEX <index-name>;`

(2) Composite Index: → `Create Index <index_name> ON <table_name> (column_name, column_name);`  
→ `DROP INDEX <index_name>;`

(3) Unique Index: can be created on unique column (means don't have duplicate value). Once unique index is created, the duplicate value not accepted in that particular column. Unique Index ensures entity integrity in a table.

Syntax:

→ `Create Unique Index <index_name> On <table_name> (at input).`

→ `Drop Unique Index <table_name>`

(4) BIT-MAP: used for millions of rows for uniqueness.

→ `Create BITMAP INDEX <index_name> ON <table_name> (column_name)`

(5) FUNCTION BASED INDEX

→ `Create Index <index_name> On <table_name> (<function>, column_name)  
(upper(column_name));`

## ⑥ Multi Index on table:

We can create more indexes in a particular table but it will decrease performance of SQL query.

## Cluster Index

cluster is a schema object that contains data from one or more table each have more attribute i.e.

2 types:

### 1. Index Cluster

→ Create cluster

→ Create index using cluster

→ insert data using cluster index

→ drop

### 2. Hash Cluster

- Create cluster <cluster name> (d ~~number~~ (2));
- Create index <index name> On <cluster <cluster name>
- Create table <dept> (insert data)
- Create table <emp> (insert data)

B1

B1	1	1
	1	
B2	2	2
	2	
B3	2	2
	2	
B4	3	3
	3	
	4	4

1	2	3	4	5	6

P. I	C. I.
S. I.	S. C. I.
Key	Non-Key

Index table

## LECTURE-8



Tuesday

06/Aug/19

### PL/SQL

Procedural Extension language for SQL

Structure define and way of calling the function

Block Header (It defines the Procedure and Function) acc. to Requirement

Declaration Header (Required no. of variables, constants, identifiers) used in programs

Execution Section (Execute the Program)

Exception Section (Runtime errors)

END;

System out function

DBMS output.PUT\_LINE (Message);

PRINT : 'Hello World'

DECLARE

Assignment operator

Message VARCHAR2 := 'Hello, World!';

BEGIN

DBMS\_OUTPUT.PUT\_LINE (Message);

END;

To Run the code from the SQL Command Line, you

may need to type '( )'

At begining of the first blank line of the PL/SQL Program.

↳ It supports structured programming and functional and procedures.

↳ It provides procedure extension

through

- ↳ It supports Structural Programming ~~its~~ functions and Procedure.
- ↳ It supports Object Oriented Programming concept.
- ↳ It supports the development of Web Application and Server Pages.
- ↳ PL/SQL is not a Case Sensitive and uses some datatype as SQL.
- ↳ Block Headers defines the type of Block i.e. procedure & functions. And also it defines the way it is called.
- ↳ Declaration Section: It contains definition PL/SQL ~~of~~ identifiers such as Variable, Constants and so on.
- ↳ Declaration statement always start with Keyword **DECLARE**.
- ↳ Execution Section, It contains executable statements that has allowed to manipulate the variables that are declared in declaration section.
- ↳ It always begin with the Keyword **BEGIN** and ends with the keyword **END**.
- ↳ This is the mandatory section of PL/SQL. It supports all DML commands and SQL \*+, blocks ~~and~~ built-in functions.
- ↳ It also supports DDL command using native dynamic SQL or DBMS\_SQL package <sup>utility</sup> <sub>in</sub>

**SET SERVEROUTPUT ON;** <sup>(utility)</sup> <sub>in</sub> (Starting)

### PL/SQL Operators

Operators
1) +
2) -
3) * /

Operation / Description
Addition
Subtraction
Mul, div

## Operator

%

?

(,)

:

,

@

,

:=

=>

\*

\*

/

\

.

^

<

>

&

=

~

^

## Operations

Attribute Indicator

Character string delimiter

Component selector

Expression or list delimiter

Host Variable Indicator

Separator

Relational Operator

Remote Access Indicator

Statement terminator

Assignment Operator

Association Operator

Concatenation Operator

Exponential Operator

Multiplication Operator

Stepwise Increment

Range Operator

Not Equal To Operator

10/8/19

Wednesday

## LECTURE - 9



Date \_\_\_\_\_  
Page \_\_\_\_\_

WAP to print the numbers from 1 to 5.

loop & Initialization

↳ Increment / Decrement

↳ Condition check

Declare

i number;

Begin - - - - -

i := 1;

Loop

dbms\_output.Put\_line(i);

i := i + 1;

exit when i > 5;

end loop;

end;

Increment

Condition check

Initialization

8/8/19

Thursday

## LECTURE - 10

Variable name datatype [NOTNULL := value];

SQL > SET Serveroutput ON;

SQL > Declare

Var1 Integer;

Var2 Real;

Var3 : varchar(20);

Begin

Null;

End;

a	Static	Dynamic
b	a=5	& a
c=a+b	b=6	& b

Declare

a number := &a;  
b number := &b;  
c number;

Begin

c := a + b;

DBMS\_OUTPUT.PUT\_LINE(c)

End;

/

⇒ Set SERVEROUTPUT ON is used to display the buffer used by the dbms output.

⇒ After End, '/' tells SQL \*plus\* to execute the Block.

## Exception Handling:

In PL/SQL Exception uses two types:

- (1) System defined Exception
- (2) User defined Exception

(1) System defined Exception: This exception is defined by Oracle. There are different types of system defined exception are;

- (1) zero divide
- (2) value\_error
- (3) invalid\_number
- (4) no\_data\_found
- (5) too\_many\_rows
- (6) dupl\_colon\_index
- (7) cursor\_already\_open

(8) Invalid\_cursor

1. Zero divide → This Exception arises when you try to divide a number by 0.

e.g. a := 10	10	10
b := 8/b;	5	0
c := a/b;	2	Zero-Divide Exception.

2. Value error → This exception arises if the variable size is mismatch or data-type is mis-match.

- e.g. ① `X number(4) := 10000;`  
 ② `X number(4) := 'abc';`

3. Invalid number → This Exception, it arises when you try to perform any invalid mathematical operation or invalid numeric operation.

e.g. ~~sysdate + 10~~ ✓  
~~6 - feb-2019 + 10~~ ✗

4. No Data found → This Exception arises if data not found in table.

e.g.  
`Veno := & empno`

`select vename into Vename from Employee where  
 empno = Veno;`

5. Too many rows → It arises if the select statement try to fetch more than one record.

e.g.  
`Vdno := & deptno`

`select vname into Vname from Employee where  
 deptno = Vdno;`

6. dupl. value on index → It arises if you try to insert the duplicate value to primary column.

e.g. Create table emp (eno Number Primary key);  
Insert into emp values (100);  
Insert into emp values (100);

(2) User-defined Exception → Exception define by user, there are two types of user-defined exception:

Exception:

① RISE Statement

② RISE application Kilor

- a) RISE exception → We RISE the name of exception.
- b) In RISE application. User exception, the exception will generate by code.

If user has define the exception in rise statement then this exception is handled by user itself. Otherwise its optional.



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LECTURE - 13

Semi-structured database ↗ XML (Extensible Markup Language)  
↳ e.g. Relational database  
↳ ↓  
↳ Structured  
↳ opening and closing tags

## Extensible Markup Language

It is defined by W3C Consortium, it is derived from standard generalized markup language (GML), enclosing the text in between two tags - opening and closing tag. e.g.

< Employee name - Nikita > </ Employee name >

- XML tags are user defined tags whereas HTML tag are pre-defined tags.
- XML tag is case sensitive, whereas HTML is case insensitive.
- XML tag is used to define or describe the data, whereas HTML tag is used to display the data.
- XML is platform and language independent, and having one version 1.0.
- XML database is used to store huge amount of information in the XML format.
- There are two major type of XML database → ① XML enabled

## ② Native XML

- ① XML enabled → It is nothing but the extension provided for the conversion of XML document. This is a relational database where data is stored in tables consisting of rows and columns.

- ② Native XML → It is based on the container rather than table format. It can store huge amount of XML document and data native XML database has an advantage over the XML enabled database.

It is highly efficient to store, query and manipulate XML document in than XML enabled database.

Structured Data: The Data has a structure and is well organized either in the form of tables or, in some other way called structured data. Searching and extracting information from such type of data is very ~~data~~ easy. e.g. Relational Database, spreadsheet.

Unstructured Data: It is a data which is not organized in a pre-defined manner or doesn't have a pre-defined data model. e.g. image and graphics, pdf file, word document, audio, video, emails, power-point presentation etc.

Semi-Structured Data: It is an information that doesn't reside in a relational database but that have some organizational property that make it easier to analysis. e.g. XML and non-SQL Database are considered as semi-structured database.