Tuesday, October 24, 2023 1:00 PM

### Lecture 10: Link | Syllabus

\*Class Week 10/15

#### **Database Systems by Coronel & Morris**

## **Chapter 13: Business Intelligence & Data Warehouses**

## \* 13.1 The Need for Data Analysis

Organizations are always looking for a competitive advantage through product development, market positioning, sales promotions, and customer service. Thanks to the Internet, customers are more informed than ever about the products they want and the prices they are willing to pay. So than, how can companies survive on lower margins and still make a profit? The key is in having the right data at the right time to support the decision-making process.

#### \* 13.2 Business Intelligence

Business intelligence (BI) is a term that describes a comprehensive, cohesive, and integrated set of tools and processes used to capture, collect, integrate, store, and analyze data with the purpose of generating and presenting information to support business decision making. BI is a framework that allows a business to transform data into information, information into knowledge, and knowledge into wisdom

#### \* 13.2-a Business Intelligence Architecture

BI architecture is composed of many interconnected parts: people, processes, data, and technology working together to facilitate and enhance a business's management and governance.

BI framework has six basic components:

- ETL tools Data extraction, transformation, and loading (ETL)
- Data Store Generally represented by Data warehouse or a data mart, usually optimized for data analysis and query speed
- Query & Reporting used by the data analysis to create queries that access the database and create reports.
- Data Visualization used to present data in meaningful way visually using charts and graphs
- Data Monitoring and alerting this allows for the real-time monitoring of business activities.
- Data Analytics Performs data mining and data analysis using the data in the data stores.
- \* Governance is a method or process of government. In this case, BI provides a method for controlling and monitoring business health and for consistent decision making. Furthermore, having such governance creates accountability for business decisions

#### \* 13.2-b Business Intelligence Architecture

Improved decision making is the main goal of BI, but BI provides other benefits:

- Integrating architecture This is the integrated umbrella for a disparate mix of IT systems within an organization
- Common User Interface A common user interface familiar to all company members providing up to date information
- Common Data repository This provides a framework to integrate under a common environment with a single version
- Improved organizational Performances An increased bottom line due to less waste, increased sales, turnover and much more

#### \* 13.3 Business Support Data

Although BI is used at strategic and tactical managerial levels within organizations, its effectiveness depends on the quality of data gathered at the operational level. Yet, operational data is seldom well suited to the decision support tasks.

Operational data is well-suited for decision support tasks its is also stored in a relational database with a normalized structure, and optimized to support transactions linked to daily operations.

Decision Support Data differs from operational data in its time span and granularity. Drill down is the decomposing of data to a lower level and Roll up is the aggregating a data into a higher level.

| CONTRASTING OPERATIONAL AND DECISION SUPPORT DATA CHARACTERISTICS |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|
| CHARACTERISTIC  | OPERATIONAL DATA                             | DECISION SUPPORT DATA  |  |  |
| Data currency   | Current operations<br>Real-time data         | Historic data<br>Snapshot of company data<br>Time component (week/month/year)              |  |  |
| Granularity   | Atomic-detailed data                         | Summarized data  |  |  |
| Summarization level   | Low; some aggregate yields                   | High; many aggregation levels  |  |  |
| Data model  | Highly normalized<br>Mostly relational DBMSs | Non-normalized<br>Complex structures<br>Some relational, but mostly multidimensional DBMSs |  |  |
| Transaction type  | Mostly updates                               | Mostly query   |  |  |
| Transaction volumes   | High-update volumes                          | Periodic loads and summary calculations  |  |  |
| Transaction speed   | Updates are critical                         | Retrievals are critical  |  |  |
| Query activity  | Low to medium                                | High   |  |  |
| Query scope   | Narrow range                                 | Broad range  |  |  |
| Query complexity  | Simple to medium                             | Very complex   |  |  |
| Data volumes  | Hundreds of gigabytes                        | Terabytes to petabytes   |  |  |

# \* 13.3-b Decision Support Database Requirements

A decision support database is a specialized DBMS tailored to provide fast answers to complex queries. There are three main requirements for a decision support database :

- Database Schema Must support complex, non-normalized data representations. Data must also be aggerated and summarized and Queries must be able to extract multidimensional time slices.
- Data Extraction and Filtering Allows batch and schedule data extraction, Supports different data sources and checks for inconsistent data or data validation rules. Helps advanced integration, aggregation, and classification.
- Database Size the DBMS must be capable of supporting very large databases (VLDBs). To support a VLDB adequately, the DBMS might be required to support advanced storage technologies, and even more importantly, to support multiple-processor technologies, such as a symmetric multiprocessor (SMP) or a massively parallel processor (MPP)

## \* 13.4 The Data Warehouse

Bill Inmon, the acknowledged "father" of the data warehouse, defines the term as "an integrated, subject-oriented, time-variant, nonvolatile collection of data that provides support for decision making."

| CHARACTERISTIC  | OPERATIONAL DATABASE DATA  | DATA WAREHOUSE DATA   |  |
|---|--|---|--|
| Integrated  | Similar data can have different representations or meanings. For example, Social Security numbers may be stored as ######## or as ######### and a given condition may be labeled as T/F or 0/1 or Y/N. A sales value may be shown in thousands or in millions. | Provide a unified view of all data elements with<br>a common definition and representation for<br>all business units.   |  |
| Subject-oriented  | Data is stored with a functional, or process,<br>orientation. For example, data may be stored<br>for invoices, payments, and credit amounts.   | Data is stored with a subject orientation that facilitates multiple views of the data and decision making. For example, sales may be recorded by product, division, manager, or region. |  |
| Time-variant  | Data is recorded as current transactions. For example, the sales data may be the sale of a product on a given date, such as \$342.78 on 12-MAY-2016.   | Data is recorded with a historical perspective<br>in mind. Therefore, a time dimension is added<br>to facilitate data analysis and various time<br>comparisons.                         |  |
| Nonvolatile Data updates are frequent and commo example, an inventory amount change each sale. Therefore, the data environm is fluid. |  |   |  |

\* This table summarizes the differences between data warehouses and operational databases. In summary, the data warehouse is a read-only database optimized for data analysis and query processing. Typically, data is extracted from various sources and are then transformed and integrated—in other words, passed through a data filter— before being loaded into the data warehouse. As mentioned, this process is known as ETL.

#### \* 13.4-a Data Marts

A data mart is a small, single-subject data warehouse subset that provides decision support to a small group of people. In addition, a data mart could be created from data extracted from a larger data warehouse for the specific purpose of supporting faster data access to a target group or function. That is, data marts and data warehouses can coexist within a business intelligence environment

#### \* 13.4-b The Twelve Rules That Define a Data Warehouse

| TWELVE RULES FOR A DATA WAREHOUSE |   |  |  |
|-----------------------------------|---|--|--|
| RULE NO.                          | DESCRIPTION   |  |  |
| 1                                 | The data warehouse and operational environments are separated.  |  |  |
| 2                                 | The data warehouse data is integrated.  |  |  |
| 3                                 | The data warehouse contains historical data over a long time.   |  |  |
| 4                                 | The data warehouse data is snapshot data captured at a given point in time.   |  |  |
| 5                                 | The data warehouse data is subject oriented.  |  |  |
| 6                                 | The data warehouse data is mainly read-only with periodic batch updates from operational data. No online updates are allowed. |  |  |

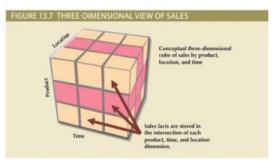
| 7  | The data warehouse development life cycle differs from classical systems development. Data warehouse development is data-driven; the classical approach is process-driven.  |  |
|----|---|--|
| 8  | The data warehouse contains data with several levels of detail: current detail data, old detail data, lightly summarized data, and highly summarized data.  |  |
| 9  | The data warehouse environment is characterized by read-only transactions to very large data sets. The operational environment is characterized by numerous update transactions to a few data entities at a time.   |  |
| 10 | The data warehouse environment has a system that traces data sources, transformations, and storage.   |  |
| 11 | The data warehouse's metadata is a critical component of this environmer.<br>The metadata identifies and defines all data elements. The metadata provides the source, transformation, integration, storage, usage, relationships, and history of each data element. |  |
| 12 | The data warehouse contains a chargeback mechanism for resource usage that enforces optimal use of the data by end users.   |  |

# \* 13.5 Star Schemas

The star schema is a data-modeling technique used to map multidimensional decision support data into a relational database. In effect, the star schema creates the near equivalent of a multidimensional database schema from the existing relational database. Star schemas yield an easily implemented model for multidimensional data analysis while preserving the relational structures on which the operational database is built.

- \* The basic star schema has four components: facts, dimensions, attributes, and attribute hierarchies
  - 1. Facts Numeric measurements (values) that represent a specific business aspect or activity. Fact tables contains facts that are linked through their dimensions, which are explained in the next section. Facts can also be computed or derived at run time. Such computed or derived facts are sometimes called metrics to differentiate them from stored facts.
  - 2. Dimensions Qualifying characteristics that provide additional perspectives to a given fact. Dimensions are the magnifying glass through which you study the facts. Such dimensions are normally stored in dimension tables.

- 3. Attributes Used to search, filter, or classify facts. Dimensions provide descriptive characteristics about the facts through their attributes. Therefore, the data warehouse designer must define common business attributes that will be used by the data analyst to narrow a search, group information, or describe dimensions.
- 4. Attribute Hierarchies Attributes within dimensions can be ordered in a well-defined attribute hierarchy. The attribute hierarchy provides a top-down data organization that is used for two main purposes: aggregation and drill-down/roll-up data analysis.





# \* The Professor's Summery of the Star Schema

Fact tables that we see in the middle of star/snowflake schema, are ALWAYS denormalized, with multiple repeating values in the columns that link to dimensions - eg. multiple date values, product values, location values, POS terminal # values etc (because each row in a fact table contains those columns as raw 'facts').

Dimension tables, in a star schema are ALSO denormalized - eg. location dimension, with city, state, region columns, will have repeating values for states (because many cities are in each state), and repeating region values (because many states are in each region).

Dimension tables in a snowflake schema are normalized, because we create a chain (hierarchy) of them using the star's dimension columns.

The fact table ALWAYS stays denormalized. Such a fact table is said to employ star schema, if we use star-like denormalized columns for BI - eg. to find out how much of a product we sold in a city, we'd query the fact rows for city name, and if we need it, can also do state-level analyses (because states are listed in the location dimension table).

Using a snowflake schema, doing location analysis for a product at a city level is similar to the above paragraph - we simply look for the city name, and if necessary, get extra info about the city (eg tax rate) by looking at the dimension table. BUT to do state level analysis, we need to follow the city->state link, and use the state-level dimension table ie traverse a branch of the snowflake.

To avoid traversing those branches in a snowflake, we trade off ('waste') space by creating extra 'copies' of the fact table, where a column such as city (lowest value in the hierarchy of 'location') is REPLACED instead with 'state' values, and in another copy, with 'region' values. This lets us do star-like analyses again, because a fact row directly points the state table, and in another copy, directly points to the region table - no traversing the chain necessary (at the expense of extra storage).

Which schema (star or snowflake) is used to model the warehouse, determines whether we maintain denormalized (or normalized) dimension tables [fact tables always stay denormalized]. 'For BI purposes, the idea is to take the 'single unified view' of data which is in the fact table (which contains numerous columns (think of a single Amazon purchase order item) - they can be categorized into dimensions, and in each dimension, even be hierarchically grouped - an example would be 'location'), and DERIVE additional tables, with data pre-aggregated along those (hierarchies of) dimensions. This lets us slice-and-dice (along dimensions), and zoom in/out (along just one dimension), all without expensive querying at runtime (on billions of rows), because the 'group by' calculations have been done already (that resulted in those aggregated data tables).'

## \* 13.6 Online Analytical Processing

Online analytical processing (OLAP) is a BI style whose systems share three main characteristics:

Multidimensional data analysis techniques - The most distinctive characteristic of modern OLAP tools is their capacity for
multidimensional analysis, in which data is processed and viewed as part of a multidimensional structure. This type of data
analysis is particularly attractive to business decision makers because they tend to view business data as being related to o ther
business data.

- Advanced database support To provide a seamless interface, OLAP tools map the data elements from the data
  warehouse and the operational database to their own data dictionaries. This metadata is used to translate end-user data analysis
  requests into the proper (optimized) query codes, which are then directed to the appropriate data sources
- Easy-to-use end-user interfaces The end-user analytical interface is one of the most critical OLAP components. When properly implemented, an analytical interface permits the user to navigate the data in a way that simplifies and accelerates decision making or data analysis

### \* 13.6-d OLAP Architecture

The OLAP architecture is designed to meet ease-of-use requirements while keeping the system flexible.

An OLAP system has three main architectural components:

- 1. Graphical user interface (GUI)
- 2. Analytical processing logic
- 3. Data-processing logic

#### \* 13.6-e Relational OLAP

Relational online analytical processing (ROLAP) provides OLAP functionality by using relational databases and familiar relational query tools to store and analyze multidimensional data.

ROLAP adds the following extensions to traditional RDBMS technology:

- Multidimensional data schema support within the RDBMS
- Data access language and query performance optimized for multidimensional data
- Support for very large databases (VLDBs

## \* 13.6-f Multidimensional OLAP

Multidimensional online analytical processing (MOLAP) extends OLAP functionality to multidimensional database management systems (MDBMSs). An MDBMS uses proprietary techniques to store data in matrix-like n-dimensional arrays. MOLAP's premise is that multidimensional databases are best suited to manage, store, and analyze multidimensional data. Conceptually, MDBMS end users visualize the stored data as a three-dimensional cube known as a data cube.

| RELATIONAL VS. MULTIDIMENSIONAL OLAP |  |  |  |  |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| CHARACTERISTIC                       | ROLAP  | MOLAP  |  |  |
| Schema                               | Uses star schema<br>Additional dimensions can be added<br>dynamically  | Uses data cubes<br>Multidimensional arrays, row stores, column stores<br>Additional dimensions require re-creation of the<br>data cube |  |  |
| Database size                        | Medium to large  | Large  |  |  |
| Architecture                         | Client/server<br>Standards-based                                       | Client/server Open or proprietary, depending on vendor   |  |  |
| Access                               | Supports ad hoc requests Unlimited dimensions                          | Limited to predefined dimensions<br>Proprietary access languages   |  |  |
| Speed                                | Good with small data sets; average for medium-sized to large data sets | Faster for large data sets with predefined dimensions  |  |  |

# \* 13.7 SQL Extensions for OLAP

The proliferation of OLAP tools has fostered the development of SQL extensions to support multidimensional data analysis.

\* The ROLLUP Extension - is used with the GROUP BY clause to generate aggregates by different dimensions. As you know, the GROUP BY clause will generate only one aggregate for each new value combination of attributes listed in the GROUP BY clause. The ROLLUP extension goes one step further; it enables you to get a subtotal for each column listed except for the last one, which gets a grand total instead.

The syntax of the GROUP BY ROLLUP command sequence is as follows:

```
SELECT column1 [, column2, ...], aggregate_function(expression)
FROM table1 [, table2, ...]
[WHERE condition]
GROUP BY ROLLUP (column1 [, column2, ...])
[HAVING condition]
[ORDER BY column1 [, column2, ...]]
```

\* The CUBE Extension - is also used with the GROUP BY clause to generate aggregates by the listed columns, including the last one. The CUBE extension enables you to get a subtotal for each column listed in the expression, in addition to a grand total for

# the last column listed.

# The syntax of the GROUP BY CUBE command sequence is as follows:

```
SELECT column1 [, column2, ...], aggregate_function(expression)
FROM table1 [, table2, ...]
[WHERE condition]
GROUP BY CUBE (column1 [, column2, ...])
[HAVING condition]
[ORDER BY column1 [, column2, ...]]
```