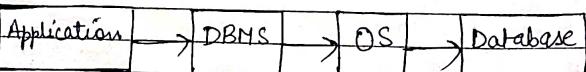


## DBMS

Date 15<sup>th</sup> April  
Page

### Introduction of Database :-

- 1) It is the collection of inter-related data and a set of program to access those data.
- 2) It is used to organise the data in the form of table, schema, view and report.
- 3) It is a primary goal to provide a way to store and retrieve database information i.e. both convenient and efficient.
- 4) Database management is the combination of two words. first is Database and second is Management.
- 5) It is the collection of related information stored, so that it is available to many users for different purpose.
- 6) It is also a collection of program that enables users to create and maintain the database.



- \* This interface b/w the application program and OS to access and manipulate that database.
- \* DBMS is a software which is used to manage database. for ex- MySQL, ORACLE etc. are very popular commercial databases which is used in different application.

### Characteristics of DBMS :-

- 1) It uses the digital repository established on a server to store and manage the information.
- 2) It can provide a clear and logical view of the process that manipulate data.
- 3) It contains automatic backup and recovery procedure.
- 4) It contains ACID properties which maintain data in a healthy state in case of failure.

A → Atomicity  
 C → Consistency  
 I → Isolation  
 D → Durability

- 5) It can reduce the complex relationship b/w data.
- 6) It is used to support manipulations and processing the data.
- 7) It provides security of data.

### Applications of DBMS :-

- 1) Banking :- for maintaining customer's information, A/c, loans and banking transactions.
- 2) University :- It maintains student's records, courses and grades.

3) Railway: - It checks availability of reservations in different trains.

4) Airlines: - For reservation and schedule information

5) Telecommunication: - It keeps record of call mode, generates monthly bills etc.

6) Finance: - It stores information about holidays, sales and purchase of financial instruments.

7) Sales: - for customer, product and purchase information.

#### Advantages of DBMS:

1) Control database redundancy → It can control data redundancy because it stores all the data in one single database file and that recorded data is placed in the database.

\* 2) Data sharing → In DBMS the authorized users of an organization can share the data among multiple users.

3) Easy Maintenance → It can be easily maintainable due to the centralized nature of the database system.

4) Reduce Time → It reduces development time and maintain once need.

\* 5) Back up → It provides backup and recovery subsystems which create automatic backup of data from h/w and s/w failure and restores the data if required.

\* 6) Multiple User Interface → It provides different type of interface like GUI, API.

#### Disadvantages of DBMS:

1) Cost of h/w and s/w

2) size

3) complexity

4) Higher impact of failure

#### Types of Database:

1) Centralized → a) It is a type of database that stores the data.  
b) It comfort the user to access the stored data from different locations through several application.  
c) The appl" contains the authentication process to let users access the data securely.

- 2) Distributed → a) In this database, data is distributed among different database system of organization.  
 b) These database systems are connected via communication link such as link helps to end user access data easily.  
 c) It has two type → i) Homogeneous  
     ii) Heterogeneous

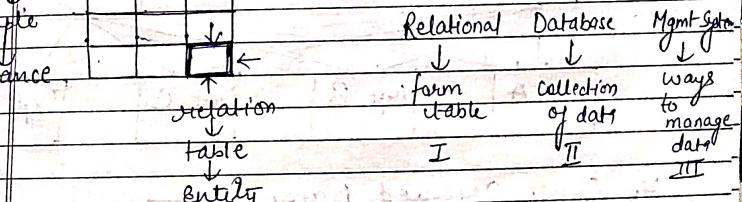
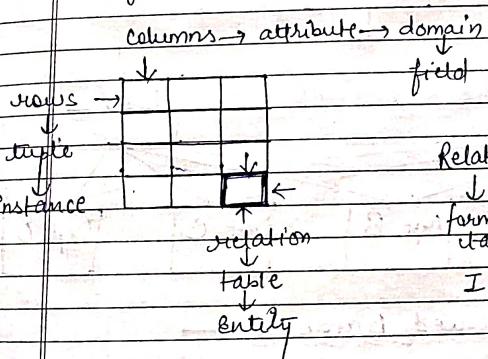
- 3) NoSQL → a) Not Only SQL  
 b) It is a type of database that is used for storing wide range of dataset.  
 c) It is not a relational database as it stores data not only in tabular form but in several different ways.  
 d) It also divided into four parts →  
     i) key values storage  
     ii) document oriented database  
     iii) graph database  
     iv) Wide column store

- 4) Cloud Database → a) It is a type of database where data is stored in a virtual environment and execute over the cloud computing platform.

- b) It provides the user with various cloud computing services like SaaS, PaaS, IaaS etc for accessing the database.  
 c) Other example of database such as AWS, MS Azure, Google cloud SQL.

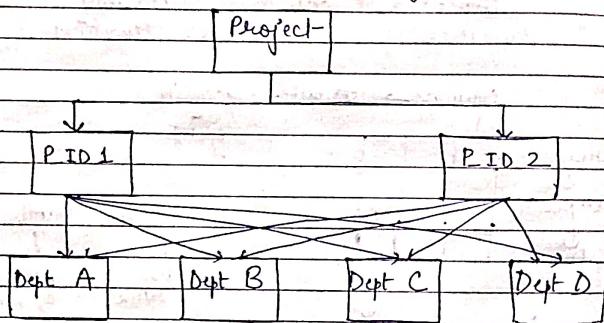
### 5) Relational DBMS (RDBMS) →

- a) It stores the data in the form of rows (tuple) and columns (attribute) and together form a table. (Horizon).



- b) The relational database uses SQL for storing, manipulating as well as maintaining the data.  
 c) Each table in the database carries a key that make the data unique from others.  
 d) MySQL, MS-SQL server, Oracle etc.

- 6) N/w Database → a) This database typically follows the n/w data model.  
 b) In this representation of data is in the form of node connected by links b/w them.  
 c) It allows each record to have multiple children and parent node to form a generalized graph structure.



#### 7) Hierarchical Database →

- a) It organises data in tree like structure.  
 \* b) Data get stored in the form of records and that are connected via links.  
 c) Each child record in the tree will contain only one parent. On the other hand, each parent record can have multiple child records.

## RDBMS

- 1) Introduced by Dr. E.F. Codd.  
 2) It stores the data in the form of related tables.  
 \* 3) An important feature of relational systems is that a single database can be spread across several tables.

#### 4) All modern DBMS

→ MySQL  
 → MS SQL Server  
 → IBM DB2  
 → ORACLE } Microsoft access

- 5) In relational database most commonly used database. It contains several tables and each table has its primary key.  
 6) Everything in the relational database is stored in the form of relations.

#### 7) Object Oriented Database →

- a) It uses the object-based data model approach for storing data in the database system.  
 b) It is represented and stored as objects which are similar to objects used in the Object Oriented Programming Language.

Diagram illustrating the structure of a relational table:

	columns		
primary key	Emp.ID	Emp.name	Post
E1	John	PO	90,000
E2	Kate	Clerk	50,000
E3	Mike	PO	90,000
E4	Nick	Clerk	50,000

Annotations:

- columns**: A bracket above the header row.
- primary key**: An arrow points from the first column to the header row.
- rows**: An arrow points from the first row to the body of the table.
- domain**: An arrow points from the last row to the last column.
- data values**: An arrow points from the value "90,000" in the fourth row to the fourth column.

### Properties of Relational Table :-

- 1) Values are atomic.
- 2) Column values are of the same kind.
- 3) Each row is unique.
- 4) Each column has a unique name.
- 5) The sequence of the rows and columns is insignificant.

### Properties of Rows / Records :-

- 1) No two tuples are identical to each other in all their entries.
- 2) All tuples of relation have same format and the same no. of entries.
- 3) The order of tuple is irrelevant, they are identified by their content not by their position.

### Properties of attribute :-

- 1) Every attribute of a relation must have a name.
- 2) Null values are permitted for attribute.
- 3) Attribute that uniquely identify each tuple of a relation are the primary key.
- 4) Default value can be specified for an attribute automatically inserted if no other value is specified for an attribute.

### Data Icons / Cells :-

- 1) The smallest unit of the data in the table is the individual data items.
- 2) It is stored at the intersections of tuples and attributes.

Degree : - Total number of columns.

Cardinality : - i) Total no of tuples  
ii) The relation whose cardinality is zero, is called empty table.

Domain : - i) It refers to the possible values each attribute can contain.

ii) It can be specified using standard data type such as int, float etc.

Data Model - 1970  
Launch - 1985

## 12 Rules

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1) Information Rule → This rule simply requires that all data should be presented in data form. This is the basis of relational model.

2) Guaranteed Access Rule → Every single data element (values) is guaranteed to be accessible logically with a combination of table name, primary key (row values) and attributes (col name).

3) Systematic Treatment of Null Values →

The null values in a database must be given a systematic and uniform treatment. A null values can be interpreted.

\* Data missing.

\* Data is not known or data is not applicable.

4) Active Online Catalogue → The structure description of the entire database must be stored in an online catalogue. It is also known as data dictionary which is access by authorized user. User can use the same query language to access the catalogue which they use to access the database itself.

5) Comprehensive Data Sub-Languages Rule →

A database can only be access using a language having linear syntax that support DDL (Data Definition Language), DML (Data Manipulation Language) and DB Transaction Management Operations.

6) View Updating Rule → Data can be presented in different logical combinations called views.

- \* Full range of data manipulation
- \* Direct access to a table available.

7) High Level Insert, Delete and Update →

The database must support insertion, updation and deletion.

- \* It must not be limited to a single row.
- \* It must also support union, intersection and minus operations to yield sets of data records.

8) Physical Data Independence → The data stored in a database must

be independent of the applications that access the database.

- \* Any change in physical structure of database must not have any impact on how the data has been accessed by external applications.

9) Logical Data Independence → The logical data in the database must be independent of its user view (applications). Any changes in logical data must not affect application uses it.

10) Integrity Independence → The database language (SQL) should support constraints on user input that maintain database integrity.

- \* No component of a primary key can have null values.
- \* If foreign key is defined in one table, any value in it must exist as a primary key in another table.

11) Distribution Independence → The end user must not be able to see the data is distributed over various locations. User should always get the impression that the data is located at. This rule has been regarded as a foundation of distributed database system.

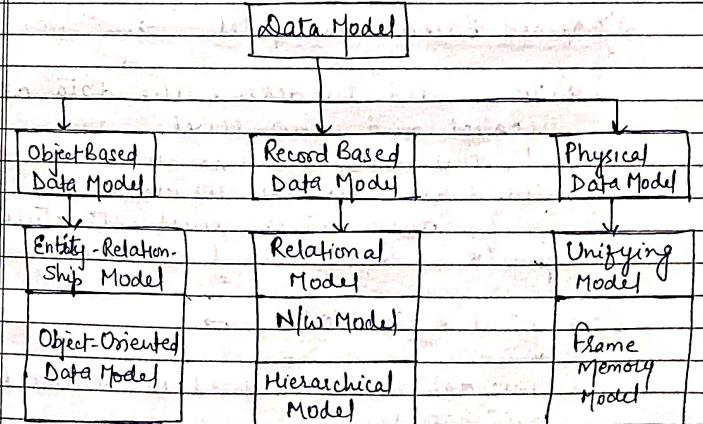
12) Non-Subversion Rule → There should be no way to modify a database structure other than through the multiple row database languages (SQL). Most databases support by administrative rules that allow some direct manipulations of data structure.

Data Model → Data model is the modelling of the data descriptions, data semantic and consistency constraints of the data. Data model provides the conceptual tools for describing the design of a database at each level of data abstractions.  
\* It is defined a collection of high level data descriptions construct that hide many low level storage details.

Types of Data Model :-

1) Object Based Data Model →

- a) That model provides flexible structuring capability.
- b) It is used to describe the data at the logical and view level.



Entity Relationship Model → It is logical representation of data as object and relationship among them.

These objects are also known as entities and relationship is an association among these entities.

Object Oriented Data Model → In this model information of data is displayed as an object and these objects store the values in the instance variable.

This model works with object-oriented programming language like Python, Java, Perl and C# .net.

### 2) Record Based Data Model →

- It is used to describe the data at logical and view level.
- In this data model is used to specify the overall logical structure and to specify the higher level structure and provided higher level description.

### 3) Physical Data Model →

- This data model is used to describe the data at low level.

## Data Language (DBMS Language) :-

DBMS has four types of languages :-

1) DDL :- i) Data Definition Language  
ii) Below tasks performed under DDL -

create → Used to create object in the database.

alter → used to alter the structure of database.

drop → used to delete object from the database.

truncate → used to remove all records from a table including all spaces.  
Allocated for the records are removed.

comment → used to add comment to the data dictionary.

rename → used to rename an object.

2) DML :- i) Data Manipulation Language  
ii) Below Tasks performed under DML -

select → It retrieves data from a database.

insert → It insert a data into a table.

update → It updates existing data within a table.

merge → It performs UPSERT operation such as insert and update operation.

CALL → It is used to call a structured query language (SQL) or a Java sub-program.

lockable → It controls concurrency.

delete → It deletes all records from a table.

8.) DCL :-  
i) Data Control Language  
ii) Below tasks performed under DCL -

System → It creates session, tables are all types of system privilege.

Object → Any command or query to work on table comes under object privilege.

grant → It gives user access privilege to a database.

revoke → It takes back permission from the user.

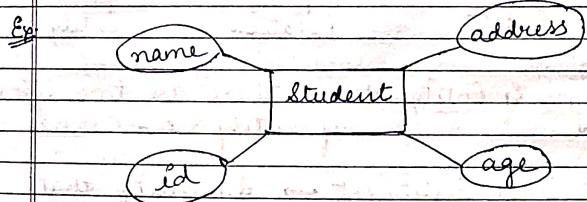
9.) TCL :-  
i) Transaction Control Language  
ii) Below tasks performed under TCL :-

commit → It is used to save the transactions on the database.

rollback → It is used to restore the database to original since the last commit.

## ER-Model

It is based on perception of real world that consists of a collection of basic objects called entities and of relationships among these objects.



### Components of ER-Model :-

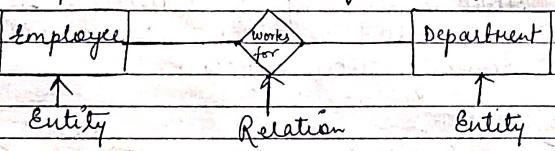
1) Entity	2) Attributes	3) Relation
→ Weak Entity	→ Key attributes → Composite → Multivalued → Derived.	→ One to One → One to many → Many to one → Many to many
→ Strong Entity		

Entity → It is a thing or object in the real world i.e. distinguishable from all other objects.

Anything about which we store information is called entity.

Entity set → It is a set of entities of the same type that share the same properties and attributes.

\* Entity is represented by rectangle.

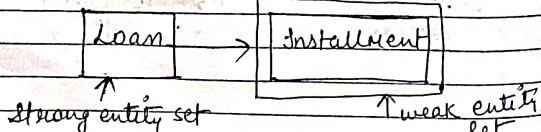


Types of Entity Set → There are two types of entity set -

i) Weak Entity set → An entity that depends on another entity called a weak entity set.

\* The weak entity set does not contain any key attributes of its own.

\* Weak entity is represented by double rectangle.



iii) Strong Entity set → A strong entity set contains sufficient attributes to uniquely identify all its entities. Primary key exists for a strong entity set. Strong entity set is represented by single rectangle.

Attributes → It describes the property of entity.

In entity set may contain any no. of attributes.

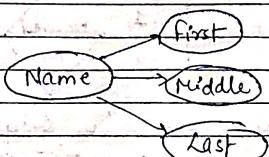
It is represented by ellipse.

Types of Attributes →

i) Simple (Key) Attribute → An attribute that cannot be further subdivided into components is called simple attribute.

simple → loan      ban ← key

ii) Composite Attribute → An attribute can be split into components is called composite attribute.



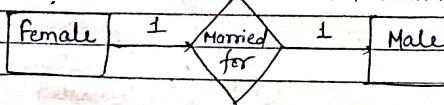
iii) Multivalued Attribute → It can have more than one values. These attributes called multivalued attribute.  
Double ellipse is used to represent multivalued attribute.

iv) Derived Attribute → It can be derived from other attributes so it is known as derived attribute.  
It represented by dashed ellipse.

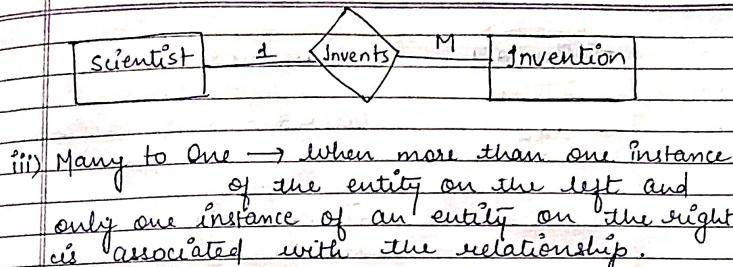
Relation → It is used to describe the relation b/w two entities. It is also called mapping.  
It is represented by diamond or rhombus.  
\* Mapping cardinalities or cardinality ratio express the no. of entities to which another entity can be associated by a relationship set.

Types of Relation →

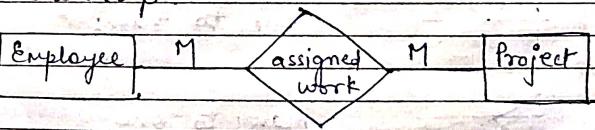
i) One to One → When only one instance of an entity is associated with the relationship.



ii) One to many → When only one instance of the entity is on the left and more than one instance of the entity on the right is associated with the relationship.



iv) Many to Many → When more than one instance of the entity on the left and more than one instance of the entity on the right is associated with the relationship.



Notation of ER- Model :-

— Rollno      Attributes

— Rollno      Key Attribute

— name      Composite Attribute  
              |  
              |— f-name  
              |— l-name

Phone no

Multivalued

age

Derived

Strong entity

Weak entity

Relationship

Links one to one

+ ←

one to many

> +

many to one

++

one to only one

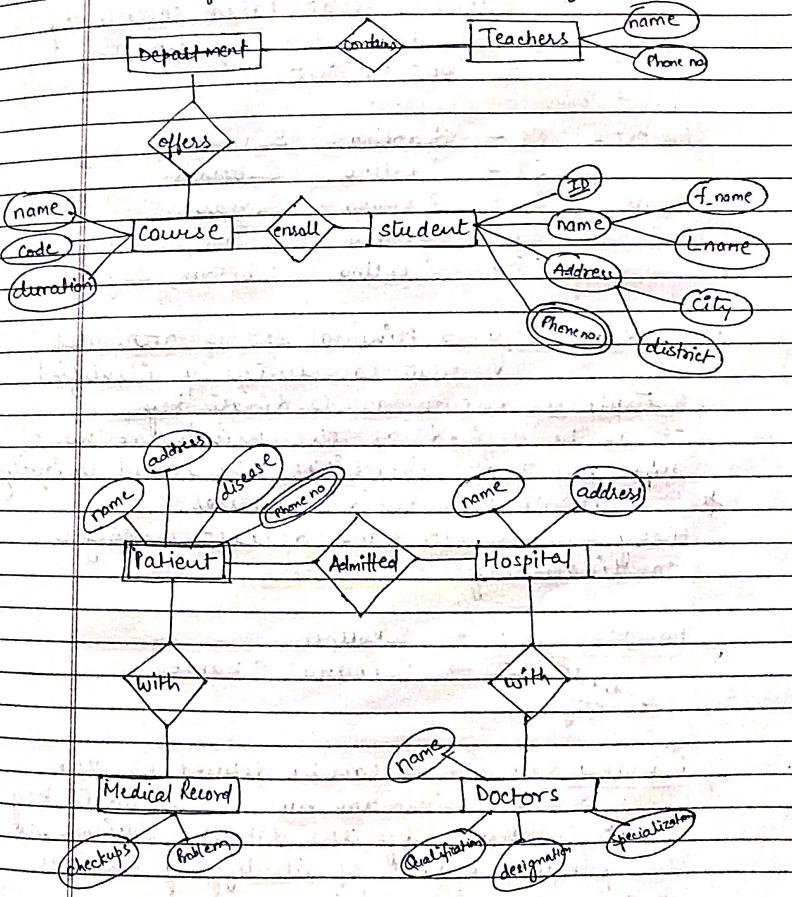
0 |

Zero or one

→ 0

Zero or many

- Q.17 Create an ER diagram of your college.  
Q.27 Construct an ER diagram for a hospital with a set of patients and a set of medical doctors.



## Keys of DBMS :-

1) Super Key → It is a set of one or more attribute that taken collectively allow us to identify uniquely an entity in an entity set.

for ex:-  
S1 - S\_Rollno - S\_name  
S2 - S\_Rollno - S\_branch  
<sup>super key</sup> S3 - S\_Rollno - S\_year  
S4 - S\_Rollno - S\_name, S\_branch  
S5 - S\_Rollno - S\_branch, S\_year

2) Candidate Key → Minimal set of attributes that can uniquely identify a tuple is known as candidate key.  
It can be defined as the minimum no. of super key that identifies the record uniquely.

\* It must contain unique values.

Every table must have atleast a single candidate key.

for ex:-  
C1 → S\_Rollno.  
Candidate key  
C2 → S\_Rollno, S\_name

3) Primary Key → It can be defined as the minimum no. of candidate key that is chosen by the database designer as the principle means of identifying entities within an entity set.

\* It is an unique key.  
It can identify only one tuple at a time.  
It cannot be null.  
It can has no duplicate value. It has unique values only.  
<sup>NOTE</sup> Primary keys are not necessary to be a single column, more than one column can also be a primary key for a table.

4) Composite Key → whenever a primary key consist of more than one attributes is called composite key.

5) Foreign Key → It is a column whose values are the same as the primary key of another table.  
It combines two or more relations at a time.  
They act as a cross-refernce b/w the tables.  
They are the columns of the table used to point the primary key of another table.

## Normalization

Functional Dependency :-

The functional dependency is a relationship b/w two attributes.

It typically exists b/w the primary key and non-key attribute within a table.

$\xrightarrow{\text{determinant}}$   $A \rightarrow B$   $\xrightarrow{\text{dependent}}$

The left side of dependency is known as determinant and the right side of the production is known as dependent.

Types of Functional Dependency :-

1) Trivial F.D.  $\rightarrow A \rightarrow B$  has a trivial dependency if  $B$  is the sub-set of  $A$ .

The following dependencies are also trivial -

$A - A$

$B - B$

$C - C$

2) Non-Trivial F.D.  $\rightarrow A \rightarrow B$  has non-trivial dependency if  $B$  is not a sub-set of  $A$ .

When  $A \cap B$  is null,  $A \rightarrow B$  is called non-trivial functional dependency.

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Inference Rule (IR)  $\rightarrow$  It is a type of association. It can apply a set of F.D. to define other F.D.

1) Reflexive Rule  $\rightarrow$  If  $Y$  is the subset of  $X$ , then  $X$  determines  $Y$ .

$$Y \subseteq X \Rightarrow X \rightarrow Y$$

↑ Reflexive Rule

2) Augmented Rule  $\rightarrow$  In this rule, partially it is called dependency.

If  $X$  is determinant  $Y$ , then  $XZ$  determines  $YZ$ .

$$X \rightarrow Y$$

$$XZ \rightarrow YZ$$

3) Transitive Rule  $\rightarrow$  In this rule, if  $X$  determines  $Y$  and  $Y$  determines  $Z$ , then  $X$  must also determine  $Z$ .

$$X \rightarrow Y$$

$$Y \rightarrow Z$$

$$X \rightarrow Z$$

4) Union Rule  $\rightarrow$  If  $X$  determines  $Y$  and  $X$  determines  $Z$ , then  $X$  must also determine  $Y$  and  $Z$ .

$$X \rightarrow Y$$

$$X \rightarrow Z$$

$$X \rightarrow YZ$$

5) Decomposition Rule → This rule is also known as project rule.  
It is the reverse of union rule.  
If  $X$  determines  $Y$  and  $Z$ , then  $X$  determines  $Y$  and  $Z$  separately.

$$\begin{aligned} X &\rightarrow YZ \\ X &\rightarrow Y \\ X &\rightarrow Z \end{aligned}$$

6) Pseudo Transitive Rule → If  $X$  determines  $Y$  and  $Y$  determines  $W$ , then  $XZ$  determines  $W$ .

$$\begin{aligned} X &\rightarrow Y \text{ and } Y \rightarrow W \\ YZ &\rightarrow W \\ XZ &\rightarrow W \end{aligned}$$

Q) Find the candidate key of relation  $R(A, B, C, D, E, F)$  with F.D.

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow C \\ C &\rightarrow D \\ D &\rightarrow B \\ E &\rightarrow F \end{aligned}$$

Sol:

$$A \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow B \quad E \rightarrow F$$

$$\{AE\} \rightarrow \{A, B, C, D, E, F\}$$

$$R(A, B, C, D) \quad A \rightarrow B \quad B \rightarrow C \quad C \rightarrow D$$

candidate key = AD

### Normalization :-

- \* It is the process of organizing the data in database.
- \* It is used to minimize the redundancy from a relation or a set of relations.
- \* It is used to eliminate undesirable characteristics like insertion, update, deletion anomalies.
- \* It divides larger table into smaller and links them using relationship.
- \* The normal form is used to reduce redundancy from the database table.

### Types of Normal Form (Normalization) →

- i) 1NF → \* A relation is in 1NF, if it contains atomic values.  
\* It eliminates repeating groups.
- ii) 2NF → \* A relation will be in 2NF, if it is in 1NF and all non-key attributes are fully F.D. on the primary key.  
\* It eliminates partial F.D.
- iii) 3NF → \* A relation will be in 3NF, if it is in 2NF and no transitive dependency exists.  
\* It eliminates transitive dependency.
- iv) BCNF → \* Boyce Codd's Normal Form.  
\* A strong definition of 3NF is known as BCNF.  
\* It is also known as 3.5NF.

v) 4NF → \* A relation will be in 4NF, if it is in BCNF and has no multi-valued dependency.  
\* It eliminates multi-valued dependency.

vi) 5NF → \* A relation is in 5NF, if it is in 4NF and does not contain any join dependency, joining should be lossless.  
\* It eliminates join dependency if any.

Example:

1NF

Student Table

S_ID	S_name	S_Phone_no	S_Branch
11	Kamal	7002412314 9826245689	CS
12	Karan	8004829412 9685364491	IT
13	Ravi	6362581492 7004812591	CS
14	Ram	9823495681 7088828121	IT
15	Komal	6824138412 9823768912	CS

Decomposition

11	S-name	12			15	
11	S-phon	12			15	
11	S-Phone	12			15	
11	S-branch	12			15	

2NF

Order No.	Title	Qty	Unit Price
1	N/W	1	250
1	Java	1	275
2	DBMS	2	225
2	Multimedia	1	300
2	Data Str.	1	190
3	Multimedia	1	295
3	DBMS	2	300
3	N/W	5	250

\* Order No, title → Qty  $\xrightarrow{?}$  Fully F.D

Order no.  $\not\rightarrow$  Qty  
title  $\not\rightarrow$  Qty

Order Master Table

Order	Title	Qty

Price Master Table

Title	Price

### 3NF

Emp-no	Emp-name	Salary	Dept-name	Dept-location
1001	Vishal	80,000	Account	102
1002	Amit	90,000	Sales	104
1003	Anuj	75,000	Accounts	102
1004	Vikas	85,000	Sales	104
1005	Sumit	72,000	Stores	106

X Emp-no → Dept-name → Dept-location  
X Emp-no → Dept-location

### Decomposition

Emp-no.	Emp-name	Salary	Dept-name

Dept-name	Dept-location
Accounts	102
Sales	104
Store	106

### BCNF

Emp-ID	Emp-country	Emp-dept	Dept-type	Emp-dept-type
265	India	Designing	D 304	283
264	India	Testing	D 394	300
364	UK	Store	D 283	232
364	UK	Developing	D 293	549

### Candidate key

Emp-ID → Emp-country  
Emp-dept → {Dept-type, Emp-dept-no}

### Country table

Emp-ID	Emp-country	Emp-dept	Dept-type	Emp-dept-no
265	India	Designing	D 304	283
264	"	Testing	D 394	300
364	UK	Store	D 283	232

after Mapping

Emp-ID	Emp-dept
265	Designing
264	Testing
364	Store
364	Developing

### 4NF

faculty	Subject	committee
Vikram	DBMS	Placement
"	Java	"
"	C	"
"	DBMS	Scholarship
"	Java	"
"	C	"

### Decomposition

### Subject Table

faculty	Subject
Vikram	DBMS
"	Java

### Committee Table

faculty	Committee
Vikram	Placement
"	Scholarship

## 5NF

- ↳ Also known as PJNF  
↳ Project join
- Decompose smaller tables.
- All tables broken in many table as possible in order.
- If it is equal to original table - then 5NF.  
Table 1 + table 2

Faculty	Subject	Committee
Vikram	DBMS	Placement
"	Java	"
"	C	"
"	DBMS	Scholarship
"	Java	"
"	C	"

## Commands:-

- \* system cls → To clear the screen
  - \* create database my\_database;
  - \* create table emp\_cdac;
  - \* insert into emp\_cdac (emp\_id, emp\_name, emp\_sal) values (101, "Mitali", 90000), (102, "Saurabh", 95000);
  - \* alter table emp\_cdac ADD COLUMN emp\_dept VARCHAR(50);
  - \* use database;
  - \* create table emp\_cdac (emp\_id INT Primary key, emp\_name VARCHAR(50), emp\_salary DECIMAL(10,2));
  - \* update emp\_cdac SET emp\_dept = "Admin" where emp\_id = 101;
  - \* truncate table emp\_cdac; → delete data from table
  - \* drop table emp\_cdac; → delete table completely
- To change data type
- \* alter table table\_name modify column column\_name datatype();
  - \* delete from table\_name where col\_name = value;  
" " " grades where st\_id = 1;

## Transaction Properties :-

- \* Collection of operations that as a form of single logic unit of work is called Transaction.
- \* It is the unit of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items.
- \* It is defined as a logical unit of database processing that includes one or more database access operations.

There are two types of operations :-

- i) Read (X) → It is used to read the values of account 'X' from the database and store it in a buffer in main memory.
- ii) Write (X) → It is used to write the values back to the database from the buffer.

Ex: To debit transaction from an account which consists of following operation  
 $X \rightarrow 1000, Y = 1000$

1) R(X)	T <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>
2) $X = X - 500$	read(X) - 1000	read(Y)
3) W(X)	$X = X - 500$ write(X) $X = 500$	$Y = Y + 500$ write(Y) $Y = 1500$

(2) If given transaction, the debit fails after execution operation to then X values will remain 400 in the database which is not accepted by bank. How to solve this query?

Ans: To solve this problem, use commit and rollback.

commit = to save the work permanently.  
 rollback = start from where transaction fails.

## ACID Properties :-

Atomicity	Consistency	Isolation	Durability
→ Abort → Commit	→ Before → After		→ Single operation runs at a time

Atomicity → It states that all operation of the transaction takes place at once.

- \* If not, the transaction is aborted.
- \* If the transaction is abort then all the changes may not possible (visible).
- \* If a transaction commits, then all the changes are possible (visible).

Consistency → The integrity constraints are maintained so that the database is consistent before and after the transaction.

\* The execution of a transaction will leave a database in either its prior stable state or a new stable state.

\* It's property of database states that every transaction sees a consistent database instance.

\* It is also used to transform the database from one consistent state to another consistent state.

Q. Let us assume that following transaction T consisting of  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .  $T_1$  consist of Rs 'A' consists Rs 600 and 'B' consists Rs 300. Transfer Rs. 100 from A/C A to B.

$T_1$	$T_2$
Read(A)	Read(B)
$A = A - 100$	$B = B + 100$

$$A = A - 100 \quad B = B + 100$$

$$\text{write}(A) \quad \text{write}(B)$$

$$A = 500 \quad B = 400$$

\* It states that the transaction made the permanent changes. They cannot be lost by the erroneous operation of the faulty transaction or by the system failure. When a transaction is completed then the database reaches a state known as consistent state. That consistent state cannot be lost even in the event of system failure.

\* The recovery subsystem of a DBMS has responsibility of durability property.

Isolation → It shows that the data which is used at the time of execution of a transaction cannot be used by the second transaction until the first one is completed.

\* Concurrency control sub-system of DBMS enforces the isolation property.

This property is true.

Durability → It indicates the performance of the database in consistent state.

## SQL Data Types

### Numerical DT

↳ INT or INTEGER  
Range: -2147483648 to 2147483647

### BIGINT

Range: -922337203685475808 to 922337203685475807

### Float

Double or Real

### String DT

↳ CHAR  
↳ VARCHAR {255}

↳ TEXT

↳ TINYTEXT  
↳ MEDIUMTEXT

↳ LONGTEXT

### Date & Time DT

↳ Date {YYYY-MM-DD}  
↳ Time {HH:MM:SS}

↳ Datetime {YYYY-MM-DD HH:MM:SS}

TINYINT → storing integer values

BIGINT → storing large integer values

Float → storing approximate numeric value with decimal point

CHAR → storing fixed length string

VARCHAR → storing variable length string

TEXT → store large amount of text.

## SQL Constraints

Primary key → Unique identification of records

foreign key → establish relations b/w tables

Unique → It enforces uniqueness on column values.

Check → To enforce specific condition on column values.

Not Null → To ensure that columns cannot be null values.

Default → To specify default values of columns.

Index → To create indexes for faster data retrieval.

## Other Data Types

### Boolean or Bool

↳ TINYINT(1) {0 - false}  
                  {1 - true}

### ENUM: (storing predefined list of values)

### SET (similar to ENUM)

### BLOB (storing binary large object-like images, files)

Avg() → compute the avg value in a col.  
select AVG(age) from table\_name;

data page  
Date  
Topic

student

### Functions

Max() → retrieves the max value in a col.  
select MAX(col\_name) from table\_name;

Aggregated function :- Min() → retrieves a min value in a col.  
select MIN(col\_name) from table\_name;

Count() → The no. of rows or null values in a column.  
select COUNT(\*) from table\_name;

SUM() → calculate the sum of values in a column.  
select SUM(col\_name) from table\_name;

String functions :-

Concat() → concatenates two or more strings.  
select CONCAT(col\_1, col\_2) AS result from table\_name;

Upper() → convert a string into uppercase/lowercase.  
select UPPER(lower(col\_name)) from table\_name;

Mathematic Functions (Basic Arithmetic) :-

Addition + select 2+7 AS sum;

Subtraction - select 2-7 AS diff;

Division / select 2/7 AS div;

Modulus % select 2%7 AS mod/remainder;

Multiplication \* select 2\*7 AS product;

Comparison function :-

Equal = → It checks the value of operands are equal.  
It will return true/false.

Not equal <> or != → select col\_1, col\_2 from table\_name  
where col\_1 != values;

Greater than >

Less than <

Not greater !>

Not less !<

Greater and equal >=

Less and equal <=

student

student

student

### Operators

Logical Operator :-

AND → It is used to combine multiple operations (conditions) and it returns true only if all the conditions are true.

student

student

OR → It is used to combine multiple condition and it returns true if atleast one of condition is true.

student

student

NOT → It is used to negate a condition returning true if condition is false and false if condition is true.

select col\_1, col\_2 from table\_name where NOT condition;

Ex select emp\_name, dept from Employees where NOT dept = 'Admin';

Combining logical operator.

select emp\_name, dept, salary from Employee where (dept = 'CS' AND salary > 50000) OR dept = 'Admin';

LIKE → It is used to match patterns in string column which need wild card characters like (%) for 0 or more characters, \_ (underscore) for a single character.

select col\_1, col\_2 from table\_name where col\_1 LIKE "pattern";

Ex select cust\_name from customers where cust\_name LIKE "VIBHANSHU%";

ALL, SOME (ANY) → It is used with sub-queries to compare a value to all or some value returned by the sub-queries.

select col\_1, col\_2 from table\_name where col\_1 OPERATOR ALL (sub-query);

Ex select prod\_name from Products where prod\_price > ALL (select prod\_price from Products where prod\_category = "Electronics");

EXISTS → It is used to test for the existence of rows return by a sub-query.

select col\_1, col\_2 from table\_name where EXISTS (sub-query);

Ex select Retrieve orders that have at least one associated product

Query select order\_id from orders where EXISTS (select 1 from order\_items where order\_items.order\_id = order.order\_id);

IN → It is used to check if a value matches any value in a list of sub-query result.

select col\_1, col\_2 from table\_name where col\_1 IN (value\_1, value\_2, value\_3);

Ex. select cust\_name from customer where city IN ('Agra', 'Bhopal', 'Delhi');

BETWEEN → It is used to specify the range of values.

select col\_1, col\_2 from table\_name where col\_1 BETWEEN value\_1 and value\_2;

Ex. select prod\_name from Products where prod\_price BETWEEN 50000 and 100000;

### Compound Operators:-

+ = (Addition Assignment) → It is used to add a value to an existing value and assign the result back to the column.

update table\_name SET col\_1 += value where condition;

Ex. Increase 5000 in Sales for everyone.

UPDATE employees SET salary += 5000 where department = 'Sales';

- = (Subtraction Assignment) → It is used to subtract a value from an existing value and assign the result back to the column.

UPDATE table\_name SET col\_1 -= value where condition;

Ex. Decrease the quantity of product by 1 for a specific product id

UPDATE products SET quantity -= 1 where product\_id = 527;

\* = (Multiplication Assignment) → It is used to multiply a value in an existing value and the result back to the column.

UPDATE table\_name SET col\_1 \*= value where condition;

Ex. Increase the sale amount by apply the 10% commission rate.

UPDATE sales SET total\_amount \*= 1.10 where commission\_rate = 0.1;

$/$  = (Division Assignment) → It is used to divide a value in an existing value and result back to the column.

UPDATE table\_name SET col<sup>1</sup>  $/=$  value  
where condition;

Ex) Adjust the avg. score of students by dividing it by 2 to scale it down.

UPDATE Student score SET avg\_score  $/= 2$   
where grade level = 12<sup>th</sup>;

$\% =$  (Modulus Assignment) → It performs modulus operation on an existing column value with a specified value and result back to the column.

UPDATE table name SET col<sup>1</sup>  $\% =$  value  
where condition;

Ex) Update the discount % for products to a new value based on modulus operation.

UPDATE product SET discount\_percent  $\% = 20\%$   
where category = 'Electronics';

$\& =$ ,  $\wedge =$ ,  $\mid =$

Bitwise Operator :-

$\&$  (AND) → value 1 & value 2

It performs bitwise AND operation b/w corresponding bits of two integers.

Value 1 & value 2  
Select 5 & 3;

$\mid$  (OR) → It performs bitwise OR operation b/w corresponding bits of two integers.

Value 1 | Value 2  
Select 5 | 3;

$\wedge$  (Ex-OR) → It performs bitwise EX-OR operation b/w corresponding bits of two integers.

Value 1 | Value 2  
Select 5 ^ 3;

$\& =$  (Bitwise AND Assignment) → It performs a bitwise AND operation b/w the left hand operand and the right hand operand and then assign the result back to the left hand operand.

variable & = value;  
col\_name & = value;

Set @x=5      set @ x = 5;  
Set @x=3      set @ x &= 3;

To show:-

Select @x; //Result is 1.

$\wedge$  = (EX-OR Bitwise Assignment) →

variable  $\wedge$  = value;  
col\_name  $\wedge$  = value;

Set @ x = 5;  
Set @ x  $\wedge$  = 3;

Select @x;

$\mid$  = (OR Bitwise Assignment) →

variable  $\mid$  = value;  
col\_name  $\mid$  = value;

Set @ x = 5;  
Set @ x  $\mid$  = 3;

Select @x;

Set Operation :- These below operators are used for combining and comparing the result of sets of two or more select queries.

Union, UnionAll, Intersect, Minus.

Union Operator → combine the result set of two or more select statements, removing duplicates from the combined result set.

Select col\_1, col\_2 from table name1 UNION  
Select col\_1, col\_2 from table name2;

Ex. Select emp\_id, emp\_name from Employees UNION  
Select cont\_id, cont\_name from contractors;

UnionAll Operator → It is similar to union but it retains all rows from the result sets of the component select queries including duplicates.

Select col\_1, col\_2 from table1 UNIONALL  
Select col\_1, col\_2 from table2;

Ex. Select emp\_id, emp\_name from Employees UNIONALL  
Select cont\_id, cont\_name from contractors;

Intersect and Minus does not exist in MySQL. We use Innerjoin and exists instead of them resp.

left join

## JOINS

InnerJoin → It returns rows from both tables (like table1 and table2) that have matching values in the specified column.

Join two tables through student id in grades or id in students

~~route  
of~~  
~~route  
of~~

Students table			Grades table				
id	name	age	gender	id	st_id	course_id	grade
1	Alice	20	f	1	1	101	A
2	Bob	22	m	2	1	102	B
3	Charlie	21	m	3	2	103	A-
4	Diane	23	f	4	3	101	B+

Left Join → It returns all rows from the left table (students) and matching rows from the right table (grades). If there is no match, NULL values will be returned from right table.

Select Students.name, Grades.grade from Students LEFT JOIN Grades ON Students.id = Grades.st\_id;

Students Table

id	name
1	Alice
2	Bob
3	Charlie
4	Diane

Grades Table

id	st_id	grade
3	2	A
4	3	B+
5	4	A
4		

id	name	course	grade
1	Alice	NULL	NULL
2	Bob		
3	Charlie		
4	Diane		

Select Students.name, Grades.grade from Students INNER JOIN Grades ON Students.id = Grades.st\_id;

~~INNER JOIN~~

This query will fetch the names of students, grades for courses and courses in which they enrolled.

~~X~~ INNER Joins only includes rows that have matching values in both tables.

Right Join → It returns all rows from the right table (grades) and matching rows from the left table (Students). If there is no match, null values will be returned from left table.

```
Select Students.name, Courses.course_name,  
Grades.grade from Students RIGHT JOIN  
Grades ON Students.id = Grades.st_id  
RIGHT JOIN Courses ON Grades.course_id =  
course_id;
```

Cross Join → It returns cartesian product of two tables resulting in all possible combination of the row from both tables.

```
Select Students.name, Courses.course_name  
from Students CROSS JOIN Courses;
```

Self Join → It is used to join a table with itself, typically to find related records within the same table.

Add some data in student table then,

```
select s1.name AS Student1, s2.name AS Student2  
from Students S1 JOINS Students S2 ON  
s1.age = s2.age AND s1.id <> s2.id;
```

Q Create a user-defined function named calculate\_discount that accepts the price of a product as input and returns the discounted price after applying a 10% discount.

Delimiter // Set the delimiter '//' for temporary to allow definition multi-line fun bodies.

```
create function calculateDiscount(price) Decimal(10,2)  
return Decimal(10,2);  
begin  
declare discount_price Decimal(10,2);  
set discount_price = price * 0.9;  
return discounted_price;  
end //
```

Delimited;

```
select product_name, price, calculateDiscount(price)  
AS discounted_price from Products;
```

select calculateDiscount(100);

select calculateDiscount(products.price) from Products;

select products.\* calculateDiscount(products.prod\_unit\_price)

AS prod\_final\_price from products;

## View and Indexing

View :- It is a virtual table that is dynamically generated from the result of a select query.

- \* They do not perform insert, update, delete.
- \* It is used for generating reports, joining queries.

Syntax:-

```
create view view-name AS select col1, col2  
from Table name where condition;
```

Ex:-

```
Create View Employee view AS select emp_id,  
emp_name, dept_id from Employees where  
dept_id = 1;
```

Select \* from Employee view;

Advantages :-

- i) Simplify queries
- ii) Data abstraction
- iii) Security control

Uses of View :-

- i) Performance
- ii) Updatability → read only
- iii) Maintenance

Index :- It is a data structure associated with a table that allows for efficient retrieval of rows based on the values of certain columns.

- \* It performs select, update, delete and join operations.

Types of Index →

i) Primary key Index → Uniquely identifies each row in the data table.

for ex:-

```
create table Users (user_id INT Primary key,  
user_name VARCHAR(50), email VARCHAR(50));
```

ii) Unique Index → Unlike a primary key a unique index contains null values.  
(Multiple rows can have null in a unique column).

\* It ensures that the values in the index column are unique across the table.

for ex:-

```
create table Products (id INT Primary key,  
name VARCHAR(50) Unique, price DECIMAL (10,2))
```

iii) Index → It can be created on one or more columns to improve query performance.

\* It performs insert, update, delete operations.

for ex:-

```
create table Orders (id INT Primarykey, cust_id  
INT, date DATE, total_amount DECIMAL (10,2), INDEX  
idx(cust_id));
```

iv) Composite index → It consists of multiple columns. It is useful for queries that filter or sort by multiple columns simultaneously.

Advantages →

- i) Improve query performance
- ii) faster sorting and joining operations.
- iii) Constraints enforcement

Uses of Index →

i) Index maintenance → insert, update, delete operations performed.

ii) Index selection →

iii) Index cardinality → unique values.

Date  
Page

23 April  
Date  
Page

Clustering Index :- In database, recorders the way records in the tables are physically stored.  
→ In each table have one index of the rows because the physical second order of the rows is known by the cluster.

key Points:-

- \* Leaf Node → Actual table data page
- \* Primary key in the SQL server, automatically create a cluster index unless specified.

for ex:- create a cluster index on the emp-id column of a table will physically reorder the rows of the tables on the emp-id values  
syntax:- create clustered index idn\_emp\_id ON employees(emp-id);

Non-Clustering Index :-

- \* It is a separate structure from the actual table data that stores a sorted list of reference to the table's rows.
- \* It does not effect the physical order of the rows in the table.

key Points:-

- \* Multiple non-clustered index can be created on the table.

for ex:-

Create a non-clustered index on the last name col<sup>n</sup> of the table will create a separate data structure that holds reference to rows based on the last name.

idx\_name      col\_name  
↓  
table\_name

Syntax:- `create index idx_name on Users last_name;`

Covering Index :-

\* In this type of index that includes in all columns needed to satisfy a query thereby allowing the query to be executed using only the index without accessing the table.

key point:-

- \* It reduces I/O operation because the necessary data is retrieved directly from the index.
- \* It is useful for queries that involves multiple columns or required extensive data retrieval.

Syntax:- `create index idx_name on table_name (col_name)  
includes (first_name, last_name);`

Stored Procedure :-

\* It is a named set of SQL statement that can be executed repeatedly.

Syntax:-

```
Delimiter //  
Create procedure procedure_name (table_name, col_name)  
Begin  
    SQL statement  
End //  
Delimiter ;
```

\* It uses because of complex logic.

\* Reducing redundancy

\* Improving performance by executing pre-defined SQL operation.

forex:-

```
Delimiter //  
Create procedure getCustomer (IN cust_id, id INT)  
Begin  
    Select * from Customer where Id = cust_id;  
End //  
Delimiter ;
```

Execution → call getCustomer (1);

\* Insert, update, delete operations used in it.

\* A collection of pre-compiled SQL statements stored inside the database.

\* It is created to perform one or more DML operations on database.

Table ①

Employees

emp_id	name

Table ②

Departments

dept_id	name

Delimiter //

Create Procedure getEmployeeByDepartment (IN dept\_id, INT)

```
BEGIN
    Select e.* , d.dept_id
    from Employees e      e.emp_id =
    JOIN Departments d ON e.dept_id = d.dept_id
    Where d.dept_id = dept_id;
END //
```

Delimiter ;

### Trigger :-

- \* It is a special type of stored procedure that is invoke automatically in response to an event.
- \* Each trigger associated with a table which is activated on any DML statement such as insert, update, delete.

Syntax:- Create trigger trigger\_name Before/After insert/update  
delete On table

for each row

Begin

SQL statement

End;

for rep:-

Update Stock

delimiter // Create trigger update\_stock

After insert on Orders

for each row

Begin update Products

set stock = stock - new.quantity where id = new.prod\_id;

End; Delimiter;

Cursor :-

- \* It holds multiple rows received by a SQL statement.

Delimiter //

Syntax:- Declare cursor\_name Cursor for select\_statement;

Open cursor\_name;

fetch cursor\_name into variable;

process row here

close cursor\_name;

Delimiter ;

free DELIMITER //  
 CREATE procedure display customers name()  
 BEGIN  
 DECLARE done INT Default false;  
 DECLARE customer\_name VARCHAR(50);  
 DECLARE cur cursor for  
 select name from customers;  
 DECLARE continue handler for not found  
 set done = true;  
 OPEN cur;  
 read loop: loop  
 fetch cur into customer\_name;  
 if done then  
 leave read loop;  
 End if;  
<sup>it can be skiped</sup>  
 → print it { process of each customer name}  
 select customer\_name;  
 End loop;  
 CLOSE cur;  
 END//  
 DELIMITER ;

## Mongo DB

It is document design for easy development and scaling.

Mongo → It is a command line shell that connect to a specific instance of MongoDB.

MongoD → It is basically the host process for the database.  
 (Daemon)

```

  { fields
    ↓   ↓ values
    name: " ",  

    age:  

    status: "A";  

    group: [ "Acts", "Project Engineer" ]
  }
  }
```

### SQL

```

  ↓  

Database  

  ↓  

Tables  

  ↓  

Rows  

  ↓  

columns
  
```

### MongoDB

```

  ↓  

Database  

  ↓  

Collection  

  ↓  

Document (BSON)  

  ↓  

field
  
```

BSON → Binary Java Script Object Notation

Show database      *unit db name*

use db.name ←  
- switch to db.name

{  
  name: " ",      // To create collection  
  age:  
  group: " "  
}

// after this db.name database will be created.

// After that this new database will be shown in existed databases with fields

Syntax :-

db.dropDatabase()

→ Collection :-

Show collection

db.createCollection("Comment")  
db.comments.drop()

→ Row command :-

db.comments.find()  
db.comments.find().pretty()  
↳ predefined

→ Update :-

db.comments.update({ name: "A",  
                       name: "Ani",  
                       lang: "Javascript",  
                       member: 5 },  
                       { upsert: true })

→ Increment Operator :-

db.comments.update({ name: "Vikram"},  
                       { \$inc: { member: 2 } })

→ Rename Operator :-

db.comments.update({ name: "Vikram"},  
                       { \$rename: { member: "members" } })

→ Delete Row :-

db.comments.remove({ name: "Vikram" })

→ Less than/greater than/less than or Equal/greater than or equal

db.comments.find({ member: { \$lt: 90 } })

db.comments.find({ member: { \$lte: 90 } })

db.comments.find({ member: { \$gt: 90 } })

db.comments.find({ member: { \$gte: 90 } })