

→ Distributed data.

23/07/19

Prof. Vivekanand.

(1)

HP 1.

Sub:- ADBS

| More Over Theoretical

DISTRIBUTED DATABASES (DDB) Subject

• we are focusing on Distributed Database System.

2 Test (each of 15 marks)

4 Assignments (each of 5 marks)

End Semester Exam → 50 Marks

Online Available

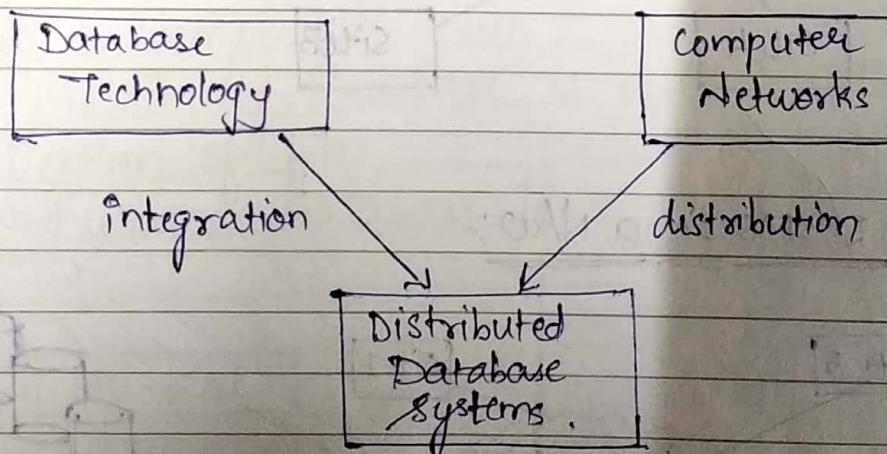
Principles of Distributed Database Systems. (Pearson's

By M. Tamer Ozsu } 3 authors
Patric Valduriez } for 1 book.
S. Sridhar

Edition

24/07/19

Integrate Databases and Communication. → DDBS



Distributed Computing: A number of autonomous processing elements (not necessarily homogenous) that are interconnected by a Computer Network and that co-operate in performing their assigned task.

Q) What is distributed?

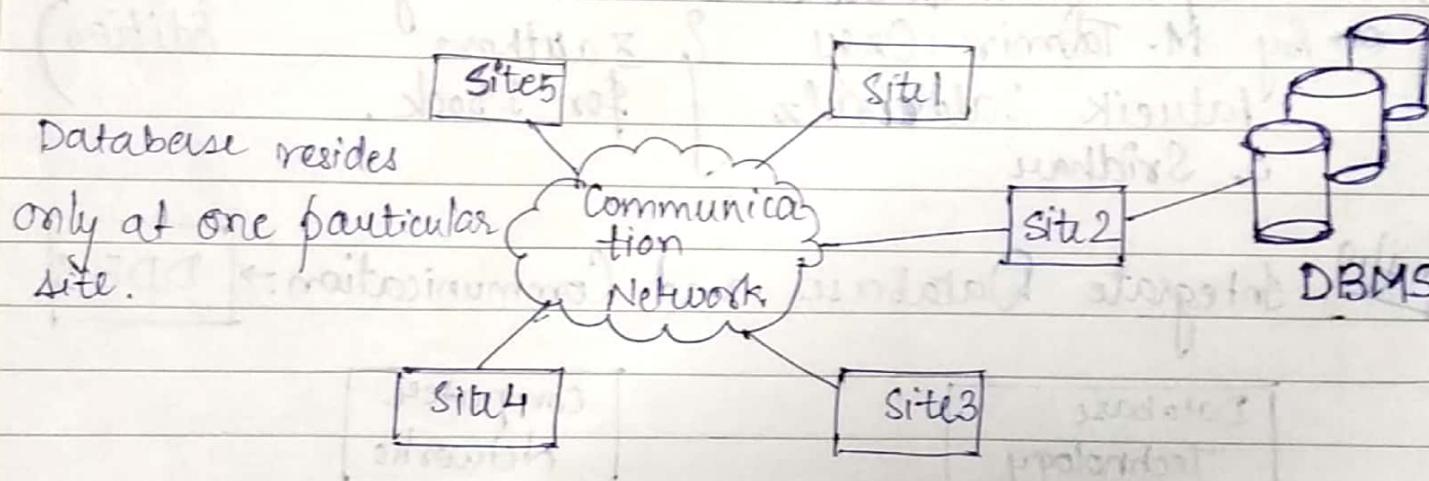
- Processing logic
- Functions
- Data
- Control of Execution

Q) What is not DDBS?

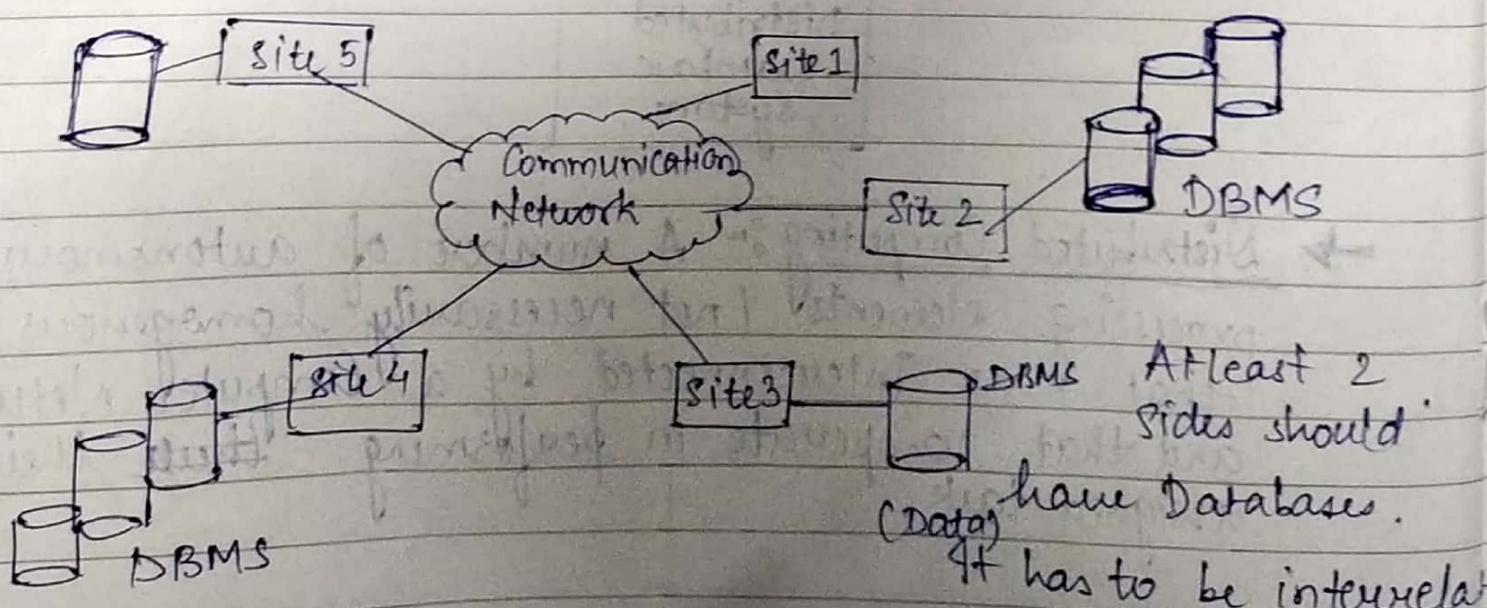
- ① A time sharing computer system.
- ② A loosely coupled system or tightly coupled system multiprocessor system.

* Loosely coupled system:- Memory shared by everyone.

(3) Centralized DBMS on a Network:



Distributed DBMS on a N/w:-



eg:- Upgraded version of Oracle (SQL).

Q) What is a distributed Database system? (DDBS)

Ans:- A DDBS is a collection of multiple logically inter-related databases distributed over a computer N/W.

→ Distributed - DBMS ^{management} (D-DBMS)

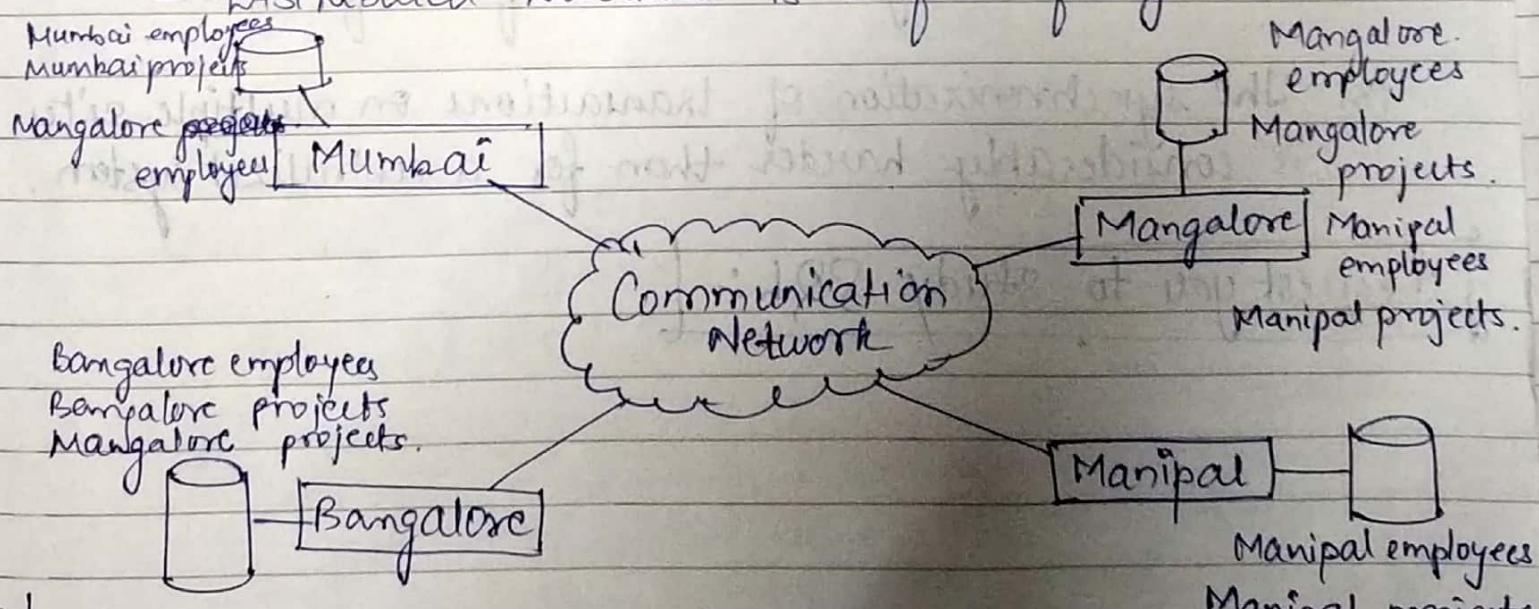
A distributed DBMS is a software that manages the DDB and provides an access mechanism that makes this distribution transparent to the users.

Distributed database Systems = DB + Communication.

26/07/1819

* Implicit Assumptions :-

- Data stored at a number of sites.
- Processors at different sites are interconnected by a computer n/w.
- Distributed database is a database, not a collection of files.
- Distributed Database is a full-fledged DBMS.



Typical eg of Distributed Database.

Distributed Database System { Pearson Edition 3 }

- * DDBMS promises (Advantages) :-
 - Transfer and Management of distributed, fragmented & replicated data.
 - Improved reliability and availability through distributed transactions.
 - Improved performance.
 - Easier and more economical system expansion. (scalability)

* Complications introduced by Distribution :-

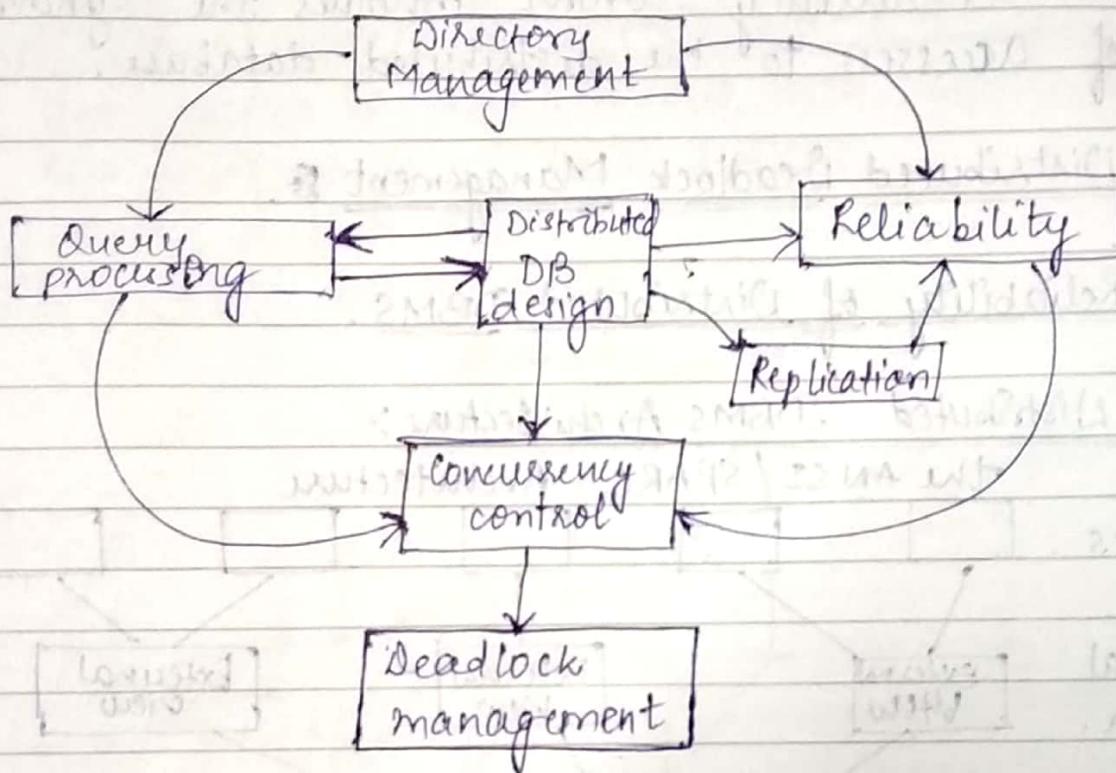
- (1) Data may be replicated in a distributed environment.
- (2) Effect of update is reflected on each & every copy of data item.
- (2) If some site fails, while an update is being executed, the system must make sure that the effects will be reflected on the failed site as soon as the system recovers from failures.
- (3) The synchronization of transactions on multiple sites is considerably harder than for a centralized system.

Request you to study S&L :-

27/07/19

* Distributed DBMS Design Issues:

Relationship among various Design issues.



(1) Distributed DB Design:

Two ways of placing data:
 (1) partitioned (or non-replicated)
 and
 (2) replicated.

fully partially

(2) Distributed directory Management:

A directory contains information (such as location) about data items in the database.

(3) Distributed Query Processing:

Query processing deals with designing algorithms that analyze queries and convert them into a series of data manipulation operation.

(4) Distributed Concurrency Control:

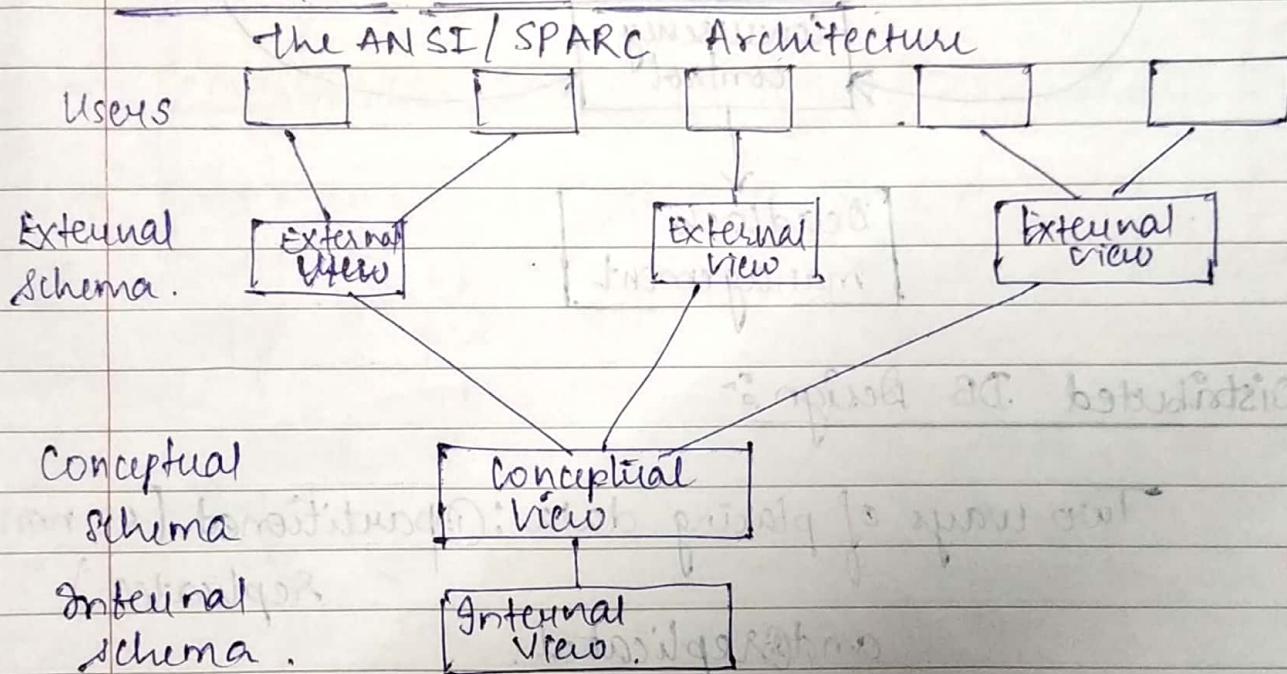
Concurrency control involves the synchronization of accesses to the distributed database.

(5) Distributed Deadlock Management.

(6) Reliability of Distributed DBMS.

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* Distributed DBMS Architecture:



① Internal View: It is lowest level of the architecture. In the internal view how data actually stored in the database.

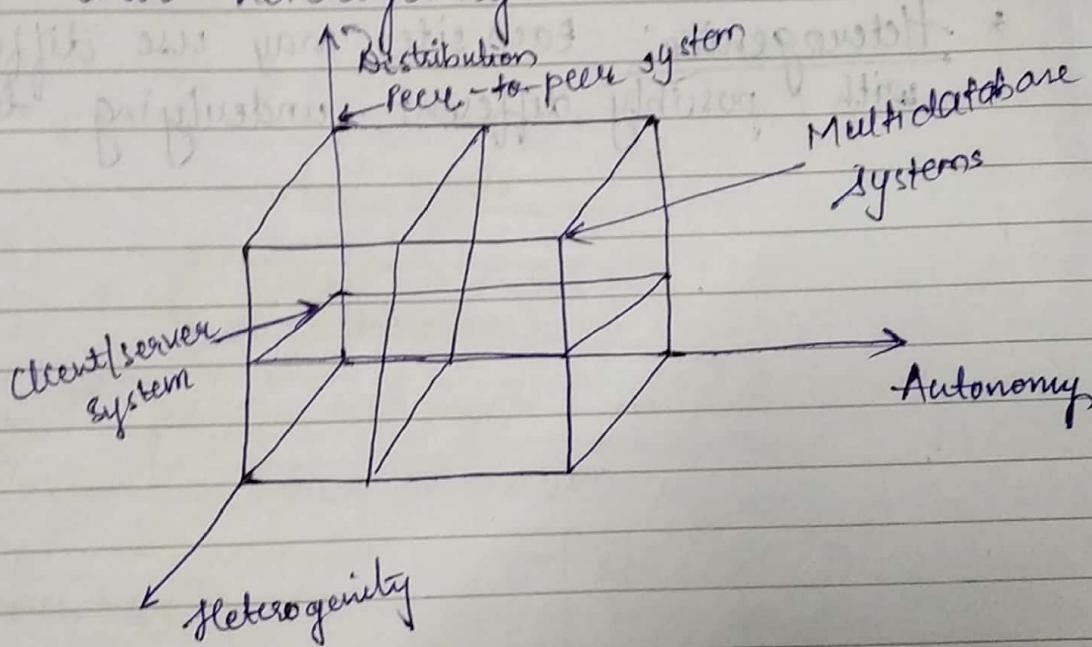
② Conceptual View (Logical View): What data are stored in the database, & what relationship exist among those data.

③ External View: It is highest level of the architecture.

- how users view the database.

* Architectural Models of Distributed DBMSs

- The system is characterized with respect to
- (1) the autonomy of local systems.
 - (2) their distribution.
 - and (3) their heterogeneity.



* Autonomy:- Autonomy refers to the distribution of control not of data.

It indicates the degree to which individual DBMSs can operate independently.

(1) Design Autonomy:- free to use data models that they prefer.

(2) Communication Autonomy:- each individual DBMS is free to make its own decision or to what type of information it wants to provide to the other DBMSs.

(3) Execution Autonomy:- Each DBMS can execute the transaction in any way that it wants to.

Completed 1st chp.

- * Distribution :- Deals with data. We are considering the physical distribution of data over multiple sites.
Two types of distribution.
 - (1) Client / Server distribution.
 - (2) Peer - to - peer distribution (or full distribution).
- * Heterogeneity:- Each sites may use different H/W with possibly different underlying data models.

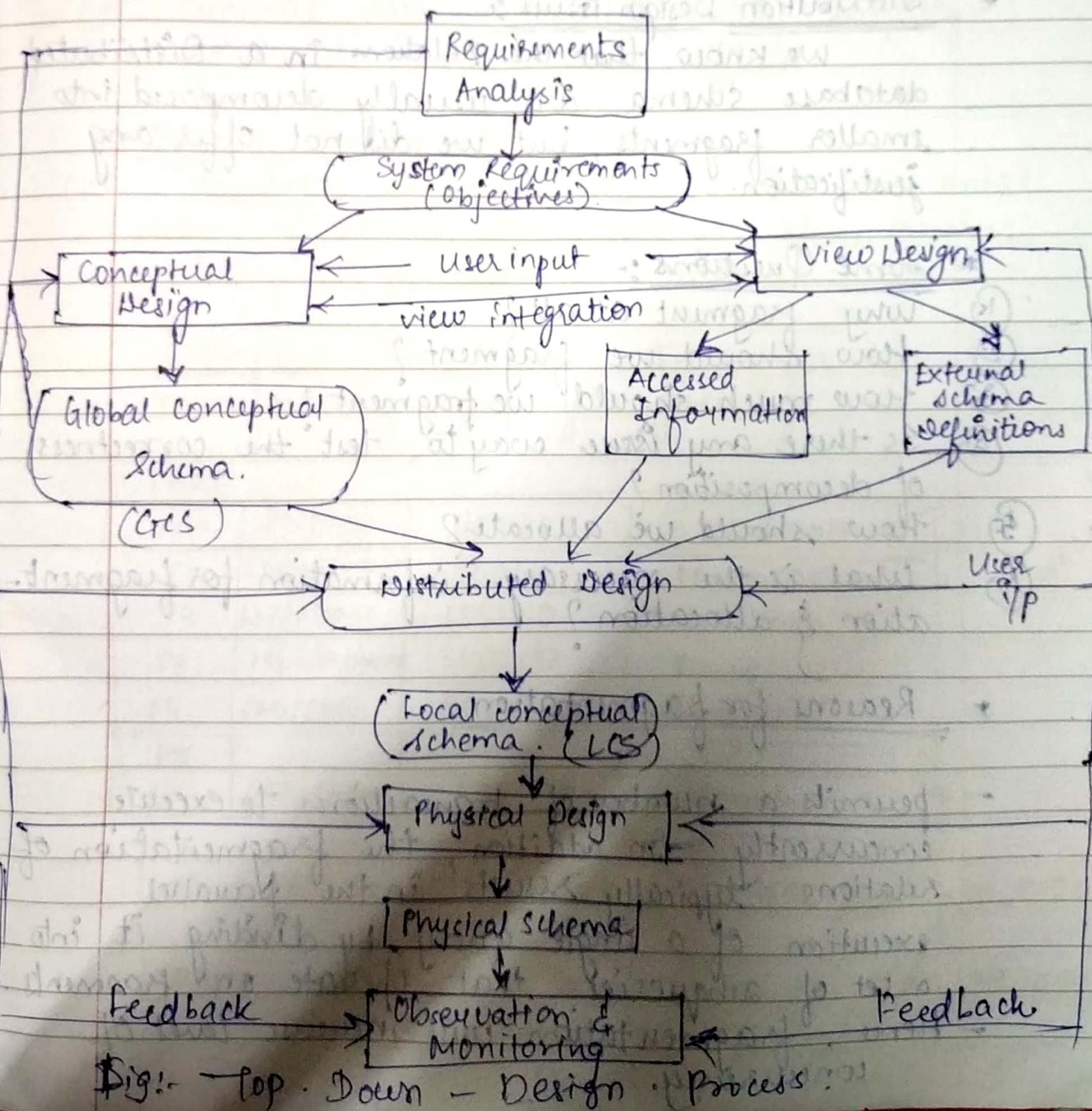
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CHP 3: Distributed Database Design.

- Top - down Design process.

Designing the system from scratch.

Requirements



Requirements is input to 2 parallel activities
View Design & Conceptual design.

View Design : LCS distributes the entities over the sites of the distributed system.

* Distribution Design Issues :-

We know that the relations in a Distributed database schema are usually decomposed into smaller fragments, but we did not offer any justification.

* Some Questions :-

- (1) Why fragment at all?
- (2) How should we fragment?
- (3) How much should we fragment?
- (4) Is there any issue way to test the correctness of decomposition?
- (5) How should we allocate?
- (6) What is the necessary information for fragmentation & allocation?

* Reasons for fragmentation

- permits a number of transactions to execute concurrently. In addition, the fragmentation of relations typically results in the parallel execution of a single query, by dividing it into a set of subqueries that operate on fragments.
- Hence, fragmentation will increase level of concurrency.

* Fragmentation Difficulties:

- (1) Some applications whose views cannot be defined on a single fragment will request extra processing.
- (2) Semantic data control (especially integrity enforcement) more difficult.

* Types of Fragmentation:

- (1) Horizontal Fragmentation: It is a horizontal subset of a relation which contains those tuples which satisfy relation conditions.

Example: The relation schema for the manufacturing company is given by

PROJ

PROJ	PNO.	PNAME	BUDGET	LOCATION
	P1	Instrumentation	150000	Montreal
	P2	Database	155000	New York
	P3	Maintenance	310000	Paris
	P4	CAD/CAM	500000	Bangkok
	P5	CAD/CAM	250000	New York

PROJ₁ : Projects with budgets less than \$ 20,000.

PROJ₂ : projects with budgets greater than or equal to \$ 200,000.

PROJ₁:

PNO.	PNAME	Budget	Location
P1	Project 1	100000	India
P2	Project 2	200000	USA

PROJ₂:

PNO	PNAME	Budget	Location
P3	Project 3	150000	China
P4	Project 4	250000	UK
P5	Project 5	300000	Germany

②

Vertical Fragmentation :- It is a vertical subset of a relation which is created by a subset of columns.

Example: Table same as of the previous one.

PROJ₁: Information about project budgets.

PROJ₂: Information about project names & locations.

PROJ₁:

PNO	Budget
P1	100000
P2	200000
P3	150000
P4	250000
P5	300000

PNO.	PNAME	LOCATION
P1	Project 1	India
P2	Project 2	USA
P3	Project 3	China
P4	Project 4	UK
P5	Project 5	Germany

Scanned by CamScanner

* Correctness of Fragmentation

(1) Completeness:

- Decomposition of relation R into fragments R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n is complete iff each data item in R can be found in some R_i .

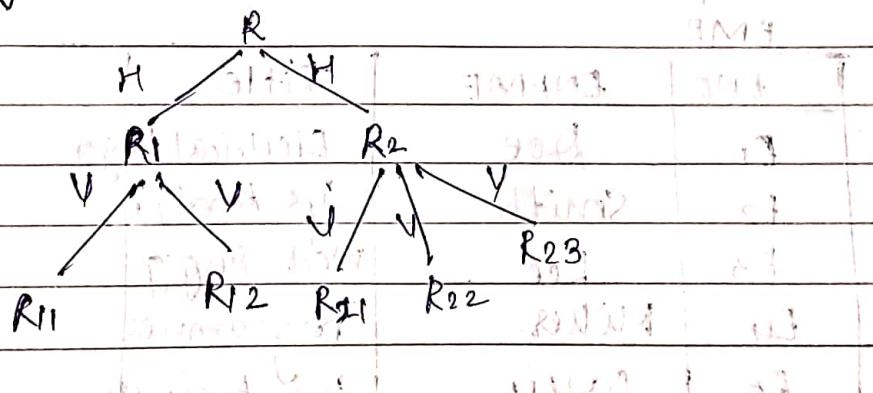
(2) Deconstruction:

$$R = \bigcup_{i=1}^n R_i$$

- ### (3) Disjointness:
- All the fragments are disjoint. If data is in R_1 then it should not be in R_2, R_3, \dots, R_n .

(3) Hybrid Fragmentation

In this case a vertical fragmentation may be followed by a horizontal one or vice-versa.



- ### * Allocation: (a) Non-replicated: Each fragment resides at only one site.

- ### (2) Replicated: (a) fully replicated: Each fragment at each site.

- ### (b) partially replicated: Each fragment at some of the sites.

Study Chp 2

- * Relational Algebra operating on Operations:
- (1) Selection: produces a horizontal subset of the operand relation

General form $\sigma_F(R) = \{t : t \in R \text{ & } F(t) \text{ is true}\}$

where R is a relation, t is a tuple variable

- F is a formula consisting of
 - operands that are constants or attributes.
 - attribute arithmetic operations: $<$, $>$, $=$, \neq , \leq , \geq ,
 - logical operators: \wedge , \vee , \neg (Not)

Example:

ENO	ENAME	Title
E1	Doe	Electrical Engg.
E2	Smith	Sys. Analyst
E3	Lee	Mech Engg
E4	Miller	Programmer
E5	Casey	Sys. Analyst
E6	Chiu	Electrical Engg.

$\sigma_{\text{Title} = 'Elect. Engg'}(EMP)$

ENO	ENAME	Title
E1		
E6		

- ② Projection: produces a vertical slice of a relation
General form.

$$\text{Proj}_{A_1 \dots A_n} R = \{ t[A_1, \dots, A_n] : t \in R \}$$

where R is a relation, t is a tuple variable
 $\{ A_1, \dots, A_n \}$ is a subset of the attributes of R
 over which the projection will be performed.

Example:

PROJ			TT PNO, Budget (PROJ)
PNO	PNAME	Budget	PNO
P1	Instrumentation	150000	P1
P2	DB Devl.	135000	P2
P3	CAD/CAM	250000	P3
P4	Maintenance	310000	P4

~~9/08/19~~
 3. Union:

Set Difference → Natural Join

Cartesian Product → Semi Join.

General

9/08/19

Union:

General Form:

$$R \cup S = \{ t : t \in R \text{ or } t \in S \}$$

where R, S are relations, t is a tuple variable.

- Results contain tuples that are in R or in S , but both (duplicates removed).

Set Difference

General Form:

$$R - S = \{ t : t \in R \text{ & } t \notin S \}$$

- Result contains all tuples that are in R , but not in S .

$$R - S \neq S - R.$$

Cartesian Product

- Given relations
 - R of degree k_1 cardinality n_1 ,
 - S of degree k_2 cardinality n_2
- Cartesian product (or cross product).

$$R \times S = \{ t[A_1 \ A_k, A_{k+1} \ \dots \ A_{k+k_2}] : t[A_1 \dots A_k] \in R \text{ & } t[A_1 \dots A_k] \in S \}$$

The result of $R \times S$ is a relation of degree $(k_1 + k_2)$ and consists of all $(n_1 \times n_2)$ tuples, where each tuple is a concatenation of one tuple of R with one tuple of S .

Example:

EMP.

ENO	ENAME	TITLE
E1	Doe	Elect. Engg.
E2	Smith	Syst. Analyst.
E3	Lee	Mech. Engg.
E4	Miller	Prog.
E5	Carley	sys. Analyst
E6	Chen	Elect. Engg.
E7	David	Mech. Engg.
E8	Jones	Syst. Analyst.

PAY

Title	Salary
Elect. Eng	55000
Syst. Analy.	70000
Mech. Engg	45000
Prog.	60000

EMP × PAY

EMPNO.	ENAME	EMP. title	PAY. title	Salary
E1	Doe	Elect. Eng	Elect. Eng.	55000
E1	Doe	→↑	Syst. Analyst	70000
E1	Doe	→↑	Mech. Eng	45000
E1	Doe	→↑	Prog.	60000
E2	Smith	Syst. Analyst	Elect.	55000
E2	Smith	→↑	Syst.	70000
E2	Smith	→↑	Mech	45000
E2	Smith	→↑	Prog	60000.

and so on.

ES
E8
E8
E8

Intersection

* Intersection :-

General form

$$R \cap S = \{ t : t \in R \text{ & } t \in S \} \\ = R - (R - S)$$

D-joining (Join operator).

The most general forms of join in the D-join, commonly called the join.

The D-join of 2 relations R & S is denoted as

$R \bowtie_F S$

where F is a formula defined as that of selection specifying join predicate of the form $R \cdot A \theta S \cdot B$, where $A \theta B$ are attributes of R & S. respectively.

Join is a derivative of cartesian product.

$$R \bowtie_F S = \overline{F}(R \times S).$$

* Types of join :-

① Equi-join: The formula F only contains equality predicate

$$R \bowtie_{R \cdot A = S \cdot B} S$$

Mgr. no = Emp. No.

- (2) Natural Join: Equi-join of relations R & S over an attribute (or attributes) common to both R and S & projecting out one copy of those attributes.
- $R \bowtie S = \Pi_{R \bowtie S}^A (R \times S)$.

$\text{EMP} \times \text{emp_title} = \text{pay_title, PAY}$

ENO	ENAME	Title	Salary
E1	Joe	Elect. Engg.	55000
E2	Smith	Syst. Anal.	40000
E3	Lee	Mech Engg	45000
E4	Miller	Prog	60000
E5	Candy	Elect. Eng	55000
E6	Chu	Syst. Anal.	40000
E7	Dawed	Mech Engg	45000
E8	Jones	Prog	60000

Semi-Join

(Retaining some tuples of R while discarding others)

$$R \bowtie_F S = \Pi_A^A (R \bowtie_F S) = \Pi_A^A (R) \bowtie_{A \bowtie B}^A (S) =$$

$R \bowtie_F \Pi_{A \bowtie B}^A (S)$ with

(Tuples from R which match)

- $R \bowtie_F S$ cause R & S are relations.

- A is a set of attributes.

The semi-join of relation R, defined over the set of attributes A, by relation S, defined over set of attributes B, in the subset of the tuples of R that participate in the join of R with S.

(b1,1, b12) exist

(match with b12 exist in table with) table with

EMP X PAY
EMP.title = PAY.title

ENO	ENAME	Title
E1		
E2		
E3		
E4		
E5		
E6		
E7		
E8		

* Problems:- Consider schema of the University database.

classroom(building, room-number, capacity)
departments(dept-name, building, budget)

course(course-id, title, dept-name, credits)

instructor(ID, name, dept-name, salary)

Section(course-id, sec-id, semester, year, building, room-number, time-slot-id)

teacher(ID, course-id, sec-id, semester, year)

student(ID, name, dept-name, tot-credits)

takes(ID, course-id, sec-id, semester, year, grade)

advisor(sid, i-id)

time-slot(time-slot-id, day, start-time, end-time)

$\text{presql}(\underline{\text{course_id}}, \underline{\text{pre_req_id}})$

- (1) Find those triples of the instructor relation where
the instructor is in the "physics" department.
- $\sigma_{\text{dept-name} = \text{"physics"}}(\text{instructor})$
- (2) Find all instructors with salary greater than \$90,000.
- $\sigma_{\text{salary} > 90,000}(\text{instructor})$
- (3) Find the instructors in "physics" department with
a salary greater than \$90,000.
- $\sigma_{\text{dept-name} = \text{"physics"} \wedge \text{salary} > 90,000}(\text{instructor})$
- (4) List all instructor' ID, name & salary
- $\Pi_{\text{ID}, \text{name}, \text{salary}}(\text{instructor})$
- (5) Find the names of all in the physics department.
- $\Pi_{\text{name}}(\sigma_{\text{dept-name} = \text{"physics"}}(\text{instructor}))$
- (6) Find the set of all courses taught, in the Fall
2009 semester, the spring 2010, or both.

The set of all courses taught in the Fall 2009
semester.

$\Pi_{\text{course-id}}(\sigma_{\text{semester} = \text{"Fall"} \wedge \text{year} = 2009}(\text{section}))$

The set

The set of all courses taught in the spring 2010 semester.

$\Pi_{course_id} (\sigma_{semester = "spring"} \wedge year = 2010) (section)$

(7) Find the set of all courses taught in the Fall 2009 semester but not in spring 2010.

$\Pi_{course_id} (\sigma_{semester = "fall"} \wedge year = 2009) (section)$

$\Pi_{course_id} (\sigma_{semester = "spring"} \wedge year = 2010) (section)$

(8) Find names of all instructors in the physics department together with the course-id of all courses they taught.

$\Pi_{name, course_id} (instructor \bowtie teacher) \quad (instructor \bowtie teacher)$

(9) Find the name of all instructors together with course-id of all courses they taught

$\Pi_{name, course_id} (instructor \bowtie teacher)$

(performed on common relation)

You write Cartesian products then it will contain duplicates.

$\Pi_{name, course_id} (instructor \bowtie teacher)$

$(R_1 \bowtie R_2) \bowtie R_3 \Rightarrow R_1 \bowtie (R_2 \bowtie R_3)$ join opn is Associative

[Revise SQL Completely]

- (10.) Find the names of all instructors in comp sci. dept together with the course titles of all the courses that the instructor teach.

PP name, title (dept.name = "comp-sci" (instructor \bowtie teacher) \bowtie course)

* Overview of SQL

The SQL has several parts.

(1.) Data - definition Language (DDL) : The SQL DDL provides commands for defining relation schemes, deleting relations, & modifying relation schemes.

Example:- The following SQL DDL statement defines the department table.

```
Create table department  
(dept.name char(20),  
building char(15),  
budget numeric(12,2));
```

(2.) Data - manipulation Language (DML) : The SQL DML provides the ability to query information from the DB and to insert tuples into, delete tuples from, & modify tuples in the DB.

Example:- To find name of all instructors in comp.sci. dept.

```
Select name  
from instructor  
where dept.name = "comp-sci".
```

Basic Query Structure.

A typical SQL query has the form

Select A₁, A₂, ..., A_n

From R₁, R₂, ..., R_m

Where P

- A_i represents an attribute
- R_i represents a relation
- P is a predicate
- The result of an SQL query is a relation.
- SQL allows duplicates in relation as well as in query results.
- To ~~allow~~ eliminate duplicates, insert the keyword distinct after select
- Find the department names of all instructors & remove duplicates.

Select distinct dept_name
from instructor

The keyword all specifies that duplicates should not be removed.

Select all dept_name
from instructor

- An asterisk (*) in the select clause denotes "all attributes".

select *
from instructor

(1) Find all instructors in comp sci. dept with salary > 80000.

Select name
from instructor
where dept_name = "comp.sci" and salary > 80000

(2) For all instructors in the university who have taught some course, find their names and course_id of all courses they taught.

Select name, course_id
from instructor, teacher
where instructor_id = teacher.Id;

Select name, course_id
from instructor natural join teacher;

(3) List the ~~name~~ name of instructors along with the titles of courses that they teach.

Select name, title
from instructor natural join teacher, course
where teacher.course_ID = course.course_id.

Cartesian product

f s.. f s. char. → $\frac{1}{10}$
-f s. 12

- (4) Increase salaries of instructors whose salary is over \$1,00,000 by 3%.

Update instructor

set fsalary = salary * 1.03

where salary > 100000;

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Data and Access Control.

Distributed DBMS supports semantic data control, ie. data and access control using high-level semantics.

Semantic data control typically includes

- view management
- security control
- semantic integrity control

Informally, these functions must ensure that authorized users perform correct operations on the DB.

View Management:

A view is a virtual relation, defined as the result of a query on base relation, but not materialized like a base relation, which is stored in the DB.

Example: $\pi_{name, address} (student)$

Consider EMP Relation

EMP

ENO	ENAME	Title
E1	J. Doe.	Elect. Eng.
E2	M. Smith	Syst. Anal.
E3	A. Lee.	Mech. Eng.
E4	J. Miller	Prog.
E5	B. Casey	Sys. Anal.
E6	L. Chu.	Elect Eng.
E7	R. David	Mech. Eng.
E8	T. Jonas	Sys. Analyst.

The view of system Analysts (SYSAN) derived from relation EMP by following SQL query.

Create view SYSAN(ENO, ENAME)

As Select ENO, ENAME

from EMP

where Title = "Syst. Anal."

SYS.AN

ENO	ENAME
E2	M. Smith
E5	B. Casey
E8	T. Jonas

Example:- Find the name of all the system analysts with their project number & responsibility.

Consider relation schema of manufacturing company

EMP (ENO, ENAME, Title)

PAY (Title, Sal)

Proj (PNo, Pname, budget, Loc)

Asg (ENO, PNo, Resp, Due) .

Response -

most basic (M2N2) student notes by user HR
group 182 problem of 9th chapter
(manufacturing basic terms)
1. Smart and fast 2A
2. Good teacher 3. good mark
"Lect Step" = off the viewer

ENAME Ans

Hire.M	23
Reas.A	23
Ans.P.T	23

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- (1) Find the names of all the system analysts with their project number & responsibility.

ASG → Assignment table.

eno	pno	Resp	Our
e1	p1	Manager	12
e2	p1	Analyst	24
e2	p2	Analyst	6
e3	p3	Consultant	10
e3	p4	Engineer	48
e4	p2	Programmer	18
e5	p2	Manager	24
e6	p4	Manager	48
e7	p3	Engineer	36
e8	p3	Manager	40

Query expressed on views :-

```
SELECT ENAME, PNO, RESP  
FROM SYSAN, ASG  
WHERE SYSAN.ENO = ASG.ENO.
```

Query expressed on base relation:-

```
SELECT ENAME, PNO, RESP  
FROM EMP, ASG  
WHERE EMP.ENO = ASG.ENO.  
AND TITLE = "SY1-Analyst"
```

O/P:-

ename	pno	emp
M. Smith	p1	Analyst
M. Smith	p2	Manager
B. Casey	p2	
T. Jones	p3	

→ The view ESAME restricts the access by any user to those employees having same titles.

⇒ CREATE VIEW ESAME

```
CREATE AS SELECT *  
FROM EMP E1, EMP E2  
WHERE E1.TITLE = E2.TITLE  
AND E1.ENO = USER
```

for eg:- the following query issued by the user

J. Doe

Select * from esame.

The result is:-

eno	ename	Title
e1	T. Doe	EEE
e2	Z. Chiu	II

Update through views

we can classify views as being updatable or not updatable.

A view is updatable only if the updates to the view can be propagated to the base relations without ambiguity.

Example: The view SYSAN above is updatable. The insertion of a new system analyst <201, Smith> will be mapped into the insertion of a new employee <201, Smith, syst. anal>. If attributes other than title were hidden by the view, would be assigned as null values.

Example:- The view EG (ENAME, RESP) created from ASG relation.

Create view EG (ENAME, RESP)

As Select Distinct ENAME, RESP
From EMP, ASG

where EMP. ENO = ASG. ~~ENO~~. ENO.

the about view is not updatable.

Reasons:-

The deletion of the tuple <Smith, Analyst> cannot be propagated.

i.e. It is ambiguous.

↳ Which deletion has to be performed?

or System does not know which to perform first.
You can delete Smith from ENAME or Analyst from Assignment but (Both are correct).

Views in Distributed DBMSs.

The definition of view is similar in a Distributed DBMS and in centralized systems.

However, a view in a distributed system may be derived from fragmented relations stored at different sites.

- when view is defined, its name & its retrieved or retrieval of query are stored in the catalog/directory.
- Evaluating views derived from distributed relations may be costly.
- Use materialized view.

A materialized view stores the tuples of a view in a database relation like other database tuples, possibly with indices.

Materialized views in data warehouses typically involve aggregate functions (such as SUM & COUNT) & grouping (GROUP BY) operators, because they provide compact database summaries.

27/8/19.

Consider PROJ relation

PROJ

PNO	PNAME	Budget	Location
P1	Instrumentation	150000	Montreal
P2	DB develop	135000	New York
P3	CAD/CAM	250000	New York
P4	Maintenance	310000	Paris

The following view over relation PROJ gives, for each location, the no. of projects and the total budget.

Create view : PL (Loc, NBPROJ, TBUDGET)

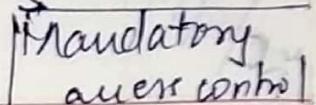
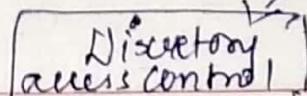
As Select Loc, COUNT(*), SUM (BUDGET)
from PROJ
group by Loc.

View PL has 3 tuples.

PL

Loc	NBPROJ	TBUDGET
Montreal	1	150000
New York	2	385000
Paris	1	310000

Access control



* Data security

Data security is an important function of ~~the~~ a database system that will prevent protects data against unauthorized access.

Data security includes 2 aspects : data protection & access control.

Data protection is required to prevent unauthorized users from understanding the physical content of data.

Access control must guarantee that only authorized users perform operations they are allowed to perform on the database.

→ There are 2 approaches to database access control.

(1) Discretionary access control (DAC):

In DAC, the owner of the object specifies which subjects (e.g. users, group of users) can access the object.

(2) Mandatory access control (MAC) (or Multilevel access control).

In MAC, the system (i.e. not the users) specifies which subjects can access specific data object.

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Discretionary Access Control (DAC):

<Three main actors in DAC:-

- subjects (users, group of users) who execute ops.
- operations (select, insert, update or delete)
- objects (either relations or attributes) on which ops are performed.

In an SQL-based relational DBMS, an opⁿ in a high level statement such as select, insert, update or delete & rights are defined (granted or revoked using the following ~~statements~~ statements).

grant < operation type(s) > on < object > to < subject(s) >
 Revoke < operation type(s) > on < object > to < subject(s) >.

The keyword "public" can be used to mean all users.

Example: Consider authorization matrix.

	EMP	ENAME	ASG
Subjects	Update	Update	Update
	Select	Select	Select where Rcp ≠ "Manages".
	None	Select	None.

for example one authorized opⁿ for the pair
< Jones, Relation EMP > could be
Select where title = "Syst. Analyst"

which authorizes Jones to access only the employee tuples for system analysts.

DAC has limitations :-

for example, consider user A who has authorized access to relations R & S & user B who has authorized access to relation S only. If B somehow manages to modify an application program used by A so it writes R data into S, then B can read an authorized data without violating authorization rules.

Multilevel access control answers this problem.

Multilevel Access Control.

It further improves the security by defining security levels for both subjects and data objects.

Multilevel access control is based on the well known Bell & La Padula Model.

- Security levels arranged in linear ordering.
 - Top Secret (TS) (highest)
 - Secret (S)
 - Confidential (C)
 - Unclassified (UC) (lowest)

$$TS > S > C > UC$$

EMPLOYEE									
Employee ID	Fname	Minit	Lname	Ssn	Bdate	Address	sex	Salary	Supervisor ID
E001	John	M	Doe	123-45-6789	1985-05-15	123 Main St	M	50000	E002

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DEPARTMENT	Number	Mgr-ssn	Mgr-start-date
Dname	Dnumber	Mgr-ssn	Mgr-start-date

PROJECT

Name	Number	Location	Owner
Tom	12345	Office	John

- (1) Retrieve the birth date & address of employee(s) whose name is 'John B. Smith'.
 - (2) Retrieve the name and address of

Employee (Employee)
Name = "John" & Minit = "B." & Sname = "Smith"
Address

Select ~~Bdate~~, Address
from EMPLOYEE

where Fname = "John" and Minit = "B" and
Lname = "Smith".

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Continuation:

Security: Access in read & write nodes by subjects is restricted by 2 simple rules.

Read Rule(1.) A subject S is allowed to read an object of security level "l" only if $\text{level}(S) \leq l$. (no read up).

Write Rule:

(α) A subject S is allowed to write an object of security level "l" only if $\text{level}(S) \geq l$. (no write down).

Example:

Security Level	Subject	Object
TS	Tom	personal files
S	Samuel	Email file
C	Richard	Activity logs
UC	Harry	Telephone lists

$$l(R) \leq l(S)$$

$$l(\text{Richard}) \leq l(\text{Samuel})$$

A multilevel relation PROJ^* based on relation PROJ can be represented by adding a corresponding security level to each attribute.

PROJ* security level

PNO	SL1	PNAME	SL2	Budget	SL3	LOC	SL4
P1	C	Instrumentation	C	150000	C	Montreal	C
P2	C	DB Level	C	135000	S	New York	S
P3	S	CAD/CAM	S	250000	S	New York	S



3 Restricted Model: A data item has to be read before it can be updated. (written).

Ex:- $T_2: \{ R(x), R(y), w(y), R(z), w(x), w(z), R(w), w(w), c \}$.

4. Restricted two-step model: Both two steps restricted

Ex: $T_4: \{ R(x), R(y), R(z), R(w), w(z), w(y), w(w), c \}$

5. Action Model: Each \langle read, write \rangle pair be executed atomically.

Ex:- $T_5: \{ [R(x), w(x)], [R(y), w(y)], [R(z), w(z)], [R(w), w(w)], e \}$.

Distributed Concurrency Control

The problem of synchronizing concurrent transactions such that the consistency of the database is maintained, while at the same time, maximum degree in concurrency achieved.

Anomalies:

1. Lost Updates: the effects of some transactions

..... of distributed data.

are reflected on the database.

2. Inconsistent read: A transaction if it reads the same data item more than one, should always read the same value,

Execution Schedule (or History)

An order in which the operations of a set of transactions are executed.

<u>Ex:</u> T ₁	Read(x) Write(x) commit	T ₂ :	write(x) write(y) Read(z) commit	T ₃ :	Read(x) Read(y) Read(z) Commit
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$$H_1 = \{ w_2(x), R_1(x), R_3(z), w_1(x), C_1, w_2(y), R_3(y), \\ R_2(z), C_2, R_3(z), e_3 \}.$$

26/10/19 Locking based concurrency control - Algorithms

The main idea of locking based concurrency control to ensure that a data item that is stored by conflicting operations is accessed by one operation at a time.

Locking is an operation which secures:

- a) permission to read.
- b) permission to write a data item for a transaction.

Two lock models:

a) shared lock (X) (read)

More than one transaction can apply share lock on X for reading its value but no write lock can be applied on X by any other transaction.

b) Exclusive lock (X) (write)

Only one write lock on X can exist at any time & no share lock can be applied by any other transaction on X .

Conflict matrix

	read-lock (X)	write-lock (X)
read-lock (X)	compatible	not compatible
write-lock (X)	not compatible	not compatible

Two-phase Locking Techniques.

This technique ensures conflict-serializable schedule.

The 2PL protocol execute transaction in 2 phases:

phase 1: Growing phase

A transaction applies locks (read or write) on desired data items one at a time.

phase 2: Shrinking phase.

A transaction unlocks its locked data one at a time.

Example:

T₁

T₂

read-lock(y);	read-lock(x);
read-item(y);	read-item(x);
unlock(y);	unlock(x);
write-lock(x);	write-lock(y);
read-item(x);	read-item(y);
$y = x + y;$	$y = x + y;$
write-item(x)	unlock(y);
unlock(x)	

transaction
T₁ and
T₂
with
not
follow
2PL.

Initial value $x=20, y=30$

Result of serial execution T₁ followed by T₂
 $x=50, y=80$.

Deadlocks

2PL does not ensure freedom from deadlock.

Example

T₁

write-lock(B)

read(B)

B = B - 50

write(B)

T₂

read-lock(A)

read(A)

read-lock(B)

write-lock(B)

Neither T₁ & T₂ can make progress

Executing write-lock(B) causes T₂ to wait for T₁ to release its lock on B.

while executing read-lock(A) causes T₁ to wait for T₂ to release its lock on A.

such a situation is called deadlock.