Database Design Guide

1. Introduction to Database Design

Database design is the process of defining the structure of a database and ensuring it can store and retrieve data efficiently. A well-designed database improves performance, reduces redundancy, and ensures data integrity.

2. Key Concepts in Database Design

2.1 Database Models

- Relational Database: Stores data in tables (relations). Uses SQL for querying.
 - Example: MySQL, PostgreSQL
- **NoSQL Database**: Uses a non-relational approach for data storage, often more flexible for unstructured data.
 - Example: MongoDB, Cassandra
- Object-Oriented Database: Stores data in objects, like programming languages.
 - Example: ObjectDB

3. Steps in Database Design

Step 1: Requirements Gathering

- **Objective**: Understand the business requirements, data, and functionality needed.
- Action: Interview stakeholders, define use cases, and collect necessary business logic.

Step 2: Conceptual Design

- Objective: Create a high-level view of the data, focusing on entities and their relationships.
- Action: Use Entity-Relationship (ER) diagrams to map entities (tables) and their relationships.
 - **Entities**: Objects or concepts you need to store data about (e.g., customers, products).
 - Attributes: Properties or characteristics of entities (e.g., name, address).
 - **Relationships**: Connections between entities (e.g., customers make orders).

Step 3: Logical Design

- **Objective**: Convert the conceptual design into a logical structure that can be implemented in a relational database.
- Action:
 - Define tables based on entities.
 - Determine primary keys for each table (unique identifier for each record).
 - Define foreign keys to establish relationships between tables.
 - Normalize data to eliminate redundancy and improve data integrity.

Step 4: Physical Design

• Objective: Design how the data will be stored in the database, optimizing for performance.

• Action:

- Define indexes to speed up queries.
- Consider partitioning large tables to improve performance.
- Optimize the database for storage requirements.
- Choose appropriate data types for each attribute.

Step 5: Database Implementation

- **Objective**: Implement the logical and physical design into a database management system (DBMS).
- Action:
 - Create tables using SQL.
 - Set constraints (e.g., NOT NULL, UNIQUE).
 - Insert data and perform testing.

Step 6: Database Testing

- Objective: Ensure the database design is robust and performs well.
- Action:
 - Run performance tests.
 - Verify data integrity.
 - Ensure scalability and query optimization.

Step 7: Database Maintenance

- **Objective**: Keep the database efficient and up-to-date.
- Action:
 - Perform regular backups.
 - Monitor performance.
 - Apply necessary updates and patches.

4. Data Modeling Techniques

4.1 Entity-Relationship Diagram (ERD)

- **Entities**: Represented as rectangles, entities describe what is stored in the database (e.g., Student, Course).
- Attributes: Represented as ovals, attributes describe properties of entities (e.g., name, id).
- **Relationships**: Represented as diamonds, relationships show how entities are related (e.g., Student enrolls in Course).

4.2 Normalization

Normalization is the process of organizing data to reduce redundancy and improve data integrity. It involves decomposing tables into smaller, more manageable pieces while ensuring the relationships between data are preserved.

- First Normal Form (1NF): Ensure each table column contains atomic (indivisible) values.
 - No repeating groups or arrays.

- Second Normal Form (2NF): Ensure the table is in 1NF and all non-key attributes are fully dependent on the primary key.
- Third Normal Form (3NF): Ensure the table is in 2NF and no non-key attribute depends on another non-key attribute.

4.3 Denormalization

Denormalization is the opposite of normalization, where you intentionally introduce redundancy to optimize query performance, especially in read-heavy applications. Use denormalization carefully to avoid excessive redundancy.

5. Designing Relationships Between Tables

5.1 One-to-One (1:1) Relationship

- Example: A Person can have one Passport.
- In relational design, this can be achieved by adding the primary key from one table as a foreign key in the other.

5.2 One-to-Many (1:N) Relationship

- Example: A Customer can place multiple Orders.
- This is the most common relationship. The foreign key is added to the "many" side (e.g., Orders table).

5.3 Many-to-Many (M:N) Relationship

- Example: A Student can enroll in many Courses, and each Course can have many Students.
- This is handled by creating a **junction table** that contains foreign keys referencing both entities.

6. Constraints and Integrity Rules

6.1 Primary Key (PK)

- A unique identifier for each record in a table.
- Example: id column in Student table.

6.2 Foreign Key (FK)

- A key in one table that refers to the primary key in another table, establishing a relationship between the two.
- Example: student id in Enrollment referencing id in Student.

6.3 Unique Constraints

- Ensures that all values in a column are unique.
- Example: email in a User table.

6.4 Check Constraints

• Ensures that the data meets certain conditions.

• Example: age must be greater than 18.

6.5 NOT NULL Constraints

- Ensures that a column cannot have a NULL value.
- Example: name in the Product table.

7. Indexing for Performance Optimization

- **Purpose**: Indexes speed up data retrieval by allowing the database to quickly locate the data without scanning the entire table.
- Types of Indexes:
 - **Single-Column Index**: Index on a single column.
 - Composite Index: Index on multiple columns.
 - Full-text Index: Used for searching text data efficiently.
- **Considerations**: Indexes improve query speed but slow down inserts, updates, and deletes, so use them wisely.

8. Common Database Design Patterns

8.1 Star Schema

• Used in data warehousing, where a central fact table is connected to multiple dimension tables.

8.2 Snowflake Schema

• A variation of the star schema, where dimension tables are normalized into multiple related tables.

8.3 Entity-Attribute-Value (EAV) Model

• Useful for scenarios with highly variable data. It stores each attribute as a row instead of a column, which can be helpful for situations where the attributes of an entity can change frequently.

9. Database Security

- Authentication: Verify the identity of users accessing the database.
- Authorization: Determine what actions users can perform on data.
- Encryption: Protect sensitive data by encrypting it in transit and at rest.
- **Backup and Recovery**: Regularly back up the database and ensure that recovery procedures are in place.

10. Best Practices for Database Design

• Understand the requirements before starting the design.

- **Keep data types appropriate** for the data stored (e.g., use integers for ages, strings for names).
- Use appropriate indexing to optimize queries.
- **Ensure data integrity** by using constraints like primary keys, foreign keys, and not-null constraints.
- **Normalize** the database to eliminate redundancy but denormalize where performance requires it.
- Plan for scalability, considering future growth and how data will evolve.
- Document your design to ensure maintainability.