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# UNIT 4 FILE AND DATABASE DESIGN

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## 4.0 INTRODUCTION

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After designing the input and output, the designer begins to pay his attention on the work of file designing or how data should be **organised** around user requirement. How data are **organised** depends on the data and response requirements that determine hardware configurations. **System** analyst is responsible for designing the files and selecting their contents, selecting from options available for **organising** the **data**. File **organisation** may be sequential, index sequential, inverted list or random. Each method has its own uses and abuses.

An integrated approach to file design is the database. The **general theme** is to handle information as an integrated whole, with a minimum of redundancy and improved **performance**. Various **software** techniques are applied to **manipulate**, describe and manage data. Irrespective of type of **data** structure used, the main objectives of database are accuracy and integrity, successful **recovery** from failure, privacy and security of **data**.

## 4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be in a position to **learn**:

- file concept and its different type
- various methods of selecting data storage medium
- file **Organisation**
- file design
- database design
- coding system

## 4.2 SELECTING DATA STORAGE MEDIA

In theory, there is a wide selection of devices and media available for file storage, ranging from punched cards to high speed internal memory. In practice, system **analyst** is interested with bulk storage devices using magnetic media such as magnetic tape and exchangeable magnetic discs. Magnetic drums and fixed discs are **also** very helpful but these are generally used for special purpose files. Magnetic card devices, although provide **large** storage capacity, are slow and not so much reliable. Punched cards and paper tape have become obsolete now-a-days and are not considered for bulk storage of data. Magnetic tape units generally used reels holding plastic tape 0.5 inch wide and 2400 ft. in length. It has magnetizable coating on one side. For reading or writing purpose, the tape is transported from one spool to another. It is not possible at all to read from and immediately write on to one reel of tape. Therefore, when we update a file, it becomes necessary to read the existing file from one reel and to create an entirely new version by writing on the another reel. When dealing with a master file updated from time to **time**, the file being read is said to be the brought-forward file and the newly created one is the carried-forward file (because the **former** has been brought forward from a previous updating process and the latter will be carried-forward to a **future** one). Apart from this, these different versions of master file referred to as 'generations' are very helpful for recovery purposes in case the latest versions get corrupted. Three generations (grandfather, father, son) are commonly created and retained before re-using the oldest version.

The magnetable **surface** of the tape is densely packed with spots of magnetism measured in bits per inch (**bpi**) along the length of tape. They are arranged in rows **across** the tape—commonly either seven or nine spots per mw—each spot representing a bit. These arrangements are also known as seven **or** nine **track** tape. Each **row** or frame represents a character or byte. Data is recorded on the tape in **terms** of blocks and size of the block is specified.

### 4.2.1 File Concepts

Files are **the** heart of a computer application. Before **constructing** files, we must **understand** the basic terms used to describe **the** file hierarchy. The most commonly used **terms** are data item, record, file and database.

**Data Item:** A basic or individual element of **data** is called data item. Each **data** item is identified by a **name** and is assigned a value. For example, in a payroll system, Employee Name, Employee Identification Number are the data items assigned the values PANKAJ and 1775 respectively. Data item is sometimes referred to as a field.

**Record:** The collection of related data items is called a record. For example, in a payroll system, each employee record may have eight separate fields, which are related to print a pay cheque, such as Employee Name, Employee Code, **Sex**, Designation, Basic Pay, **HRA**, **DA**, and Deductions. **The analyst** also determines the length and type of each field while designing the record. For example, layout of an employee record in a payroll **system** can be as follows:

Name of Data item	Type	Length	Decimal
NAME	C	20	
CODE	N	5	
SEX	C	1	
DESIGNATION	C	15	
BASIC	N	8	2
HRA	N	6	2
DA	N	6	2
Deduction	N	6	2

It is **necessary** to distinguish one specific **record** from another. System analyst select one **data** item in the record that is **likely** to be unique in **all** the records of a file which is **used** to identify the record for further **processing**. This item is called the key field or record key.

**File:** File is a collection of related records. Each record in a file is included because it pertains to the same entity. In the payroll system, employee file will contain only employee **details** records **and** the inventory or stock records **will not** be kept in the employee file because these are not related to employee details.

**Database:** The highest level in the **hierarchy** is the database. It is a set of inter-related files for real time processing. It contains the necessary data for problem solving **and** can be used for several users **who** are accessing data **concurrently**.

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## 4.3 TYPES OF FILE

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There are various types of **files** in which the records are collected and maintained. They are categorised **as**:

- Master **file**
- Transaction **file**
- Table file
- Report file
- Back-up file
- Archival file
- Dump file
- Library file

### 4.3.1 Master

Master files are the most important type of file. Most file design activities concentrate here. In a business application, these **are** considered **to** be very **significant** because they contain the essential records for maintenance of the **organisation's** business. A master file can **be** further categorised. It may be called **as** a reference master file, in which the records are static or **unlikely** to change frequently. For example, a product file containing descriptions and codes; a customer file containing **name**, address and account number **are** example of **reference** files. Alternatively, it may be described as a dynamic master file. In this file, we keep records which are frequently changed (updated) as a result of transactions or other **events**. **These** two types of master **file** may be kept as separate **files** or may be combined, for example, a sales ledger file containing reference data, such as **name**, address, account **number**, together with current transaction **and** **balance** outstanding for each customer.

### 4.3.2 Transaction

A transaction is a **temporary** file used for **two** purposes. First of all, it is used to accumulate data about events as they occur. Secondly, it helps in updating master files to reflect the result of current transactions. **The term** transaction **refers to any** business event **that** affects the **organisation** and about which **data** is captured. Examples of common transactions in the **organisation** are making purchases, hiring of workers **and** recording of sales.

### 4.3.3 Table

A special **type** of master file is included in **many** systems to meet specific requirements where **data** must be referenced **repeatedly**. Table files are **permanent** files containing reference data used in processing **transactions**, **updating** master file or producing output. As the **name** implies, these files store reference data **in** tabular form. **Table** files conserve memory space and make the **program** maintenance easier by storing data in a file, that otherwise would be included in **programs** or master **file** records.

### 4.3.4 Report

Report files are collected contents of individual output **reports** or documents produced by the system. They are created by the system where many **reports** are produced by the system but printer may not be available for all the reports. This situation frequently arises when the computer **carry** out three functions - input, processing and **output** simultaneously, rather than executing each function in sequence. In this case, the computer writes the **report** contents to a **file** on a **magnetic tape** or disk, where it remains until it can be **printed**. That file is **called** the **report file** which contains the **unprinted** output data. The process of creating it is **known** as spooling which means that output that cannot be printed when it is produced is spooled into a report file. Then, depending on the availability of printer, the system will be instructed to read the report file and print the output on the printer.

### 4.3.5 Backup

It is a copy of master, **transaction** or table file that is made to ensure a copy is available if anything happens to the original.

### 4.3.6 Archival

**These** files **are** copies made for long **term storage** of data that may be required at a much later date. Usually, archival files are stored far away from the computer centre so that they cannot be easily **retrieved** for use.

### 4.3.7 Dump

This is a copy of computer-held data at a **particular** point of time. This may be a copy of master file to be retained to help recovery in the event of a possible corruption of **the** master file or it may be part of a program in which error is being traced.

### 4.3.8 Library

Library file generally contains application **programs**, utility **programs** and system software **packages**.

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## 4.4 FILE ORGANISATION

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A file is **organised** to ensure that records are available for processing. Before a file is created, the application to which **the file** will be used must be carefully examined. Clearly, a fundamental consideration in this examination will concern the data to be recorded on the file. But an **equally** important and less obvious consideration concerns how the data are to be **placed** on the file.

### 4.4.1 Sequential

It is the simplest method to store and retrieve **data from** a file. Sequential **organisation** simply means storing and sorting in physical on tape or disk. In a sequential **organisation** a records can be added only at the end of the file. That is in a sequential file, records are stored one after the other without concern for the actual value of **the** data in the records. It is **not possible** to insert a record in the middle of the file without re-writing the file. In a **sequential** file update, transaction records are in the same sequence as in the master file. **Records from** both files are matched, one record at a time, resulting in an updated master file.

It is a characteristic of sequential files that all records are stored by **position**; the first one is at **the first** position, the second one occupies the second position and third is at third and so on. There **are** no addresses or **location** assignments in sequential files.

To read a sequential file, the system always starts at the beginning of the file. If **the** record sought is somewhere in **the** file, the system reads **its** way **upto** it, one **record** at a time. For example, if a **particular** record happens to be the fifteenth one in a file, the system starts at the **first** one and reads ahead one **record** at a time until the **fifteenth** one is reached. It cannot jump **directly** to the fifteenth one in a sequential file without starting from the beginning.

Using the key field, in a sequential file the records have been arranged **into** ascending or descending order according to a key field. This key field may be numeric, alphabetic, or a combination of both, but it must be **occupy** the same place in each record, as it forms the basis for determining the order in which the records will appear on the file,

When we start searching for a particular record in a sequential file the system do not use the physical record key. The system assigns the value of the particular record key as a **search** key. For example, let a sequential file consists of the records of employee number from 1200 to 1250. Then how to locate or **retrieve** a record for an employee number **1234**? Here employee number 1234 is the search key. When searching for the employee **number** 1234, the program **controls** all the processing steps that follows. The first record is read and its employee number is compared with a search key. 1200 versus 1234. Since they do not match, the process is repeated. The employee number for the next record is 1201, and it also does not match the search key. Therefore, the process of reading and comparing records continues until the employee number match the search key. If the **file** does not contain the employee number 1234, the read and compare process will continue until the end of file is reached. Sequential files are generally **maintained** a magnetic tape, disk or a mass storage **system**. The **advantages** and disadvantages of the Sequential **File organisation** are compared and given below:

Advantages	Disadvantages
Simple to understand this <b>approach</b>	<b>Entire file</b> must be <b>processed</b> even when the activity rate is low.
Locating a record requires only the record key.	<b>Transactions</b> must be sorted and placed in sequence prior to processing
Efficient and economical if the activity rate is high	Timeliness of <b>data</b> in file <b>deteriorates</b> while batches are being accumulated
Relatively inexpensive I/O media and devices may be used.	
Files may be relatively easy to reconstruct since a good measure of built in backup is usually available.	Data redundancy is typically high since the <b>same</b> data may be stored in <b>several files</b> sequenced on different <b>keys</b> .

#### 4.4.2 Random or Direct

For a proposed system, when the sequential files are assumed **as** a disadvantage, another file **organisation** called Direct organisation is used. As **with** a sequential file, each **record** in a direct file must contain a key field. However the records need not appear on the file in key field sequence: In addition any record stored on a direct file can be accessed if its location or address is known. All previous records need not **to** be **accessed**. The problem, however is to determine how to store the data records so that, given the key field of the desired record, its storage **location** on the file can be determined. In other words, if **the** program knows the record key, it can **determine** the location address of a record and retrieve it independently of **any** other **records** in the file.

It would be ideal if the key **field** could also be the location of the record on the file. This **method** is known as direct addressing method. This is **quite** simple method but the requirements of this method often prevents its use. Because of many other **factors**, this method could not **become** popular. Hence it is rarely used.

**Therefore**, before a direct **organised file** can be created, a **formula** or method must be devised **to** convert the key **field** value for a record to the address or location of the record on the file. This formula or method is generally called an algorithm. Otherwise called the Hashing addressing. Hashing **refers** to the process of deriving a storage address from a record key. There are many algorithms to **determine** the storage location **using** key field. **Some** of the algorithms are:

Division by Prime: In this procedure, the actual key is divided by any prime number. Here **the** modular division is used. That is quotient is discarded and the storage location is signified by the remainder. If the key field consists of large number of digits, for instance, 10 digits (e.g. 2345632278) then strip off the first or last 4 digits and then apply the division by prime method.

For example, the key field is 2345632278 **strip** off first 4 digits. Then the new key is 632278. Divide the new key by a prime number. Let it be 41. The quotient is 15421, remainder is 17. Hence 17 is **the** storage address.

Various other common algorithms are **also** given as under

- Folding
- Extraction
- Squaring

The advantages and disadvantages of direct file **organisation** are as follows:

**Advantages**

- Immediate access to records for inquiry and updating purposes is possible.
- Immediate updating of several **files** as a result of single transaction is possible.
- Time taken for sorting the transactions can **be** saved.

**Disadvantages**

- Records in the on-line file may be exposed the **risk** of a loss of **accuracy** and a procedure for special backup and reconstruction is required.
- As compared to sequentially organised, this may be less efficient in using the storage space.
- Adding and deleting of records is more **difficult** then with sequential files.
- Relatively expensive hardware and software **esources** are required.

**4.4.3 Indexed**

The third way of accessing records stored in the system is through an index. The basic form of an index includes a record key and the storage address for a record. To find a record, when the storage address is unknown it is necessary to scan the records. However, if an index is used, the search will be faster since it takes less time to search an index than an entire file of **data**.

Indexed file offers the simplicity of sequential file while at the same time offering a **capability** for **direct** access. The records must **be** initially stored on the file in sequential **order** according to a key field. In addition, **as** the records **are** being recorded on the **file**, one or more indexes **are** established by the system to associate the key field **value(s)** with the storage location of the record on the file. **These** indexes are then used by the system to allow a record to be directly accessed

To find a specific record when the **file** is stored under an indexed **organisation**, the index is searched **first** to find the key of the record wanted. When it is found, the **corresponding** storage address is noted and then the program can access the record directly. This method uses a sequential scan of the index, followed by direct **access to** the appropriate record. The index helps to speed up the search compared with a sequential file, but it is slower than the direct addressing.

The indexed files **are** generally maintained on magnetic disk or on a mass storage system. The primary differences between **direct** and indexed organised files **are** as follows:

Records may be accessed from a direct organised file only randomly, where as records may be accessed sequentially or randomly **from** an indexed organised files.

Direct organised files **utilise** an algorithm to determine the location of a **record**, whereas indexed organised files utilize an index to locate a record to be randomly **accessed**. The advantages and disadvantages of indexed sequential file **organisation** are as follows:

**Advantages**

Permits the efficient and economical use of sequential processing techniques when the activity rate is high.

Permits quick access to records in a relatively efficient way this activity is a small fraction of the total workload.

**Disadvantages**

Less efficient in the use of storage space than some other alternatives.

Access to records may be slower using indexes than when transform algorithms are used.  
Relatively expensive hardware and software resources are required.

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## 4.5 FILE DESIGN:

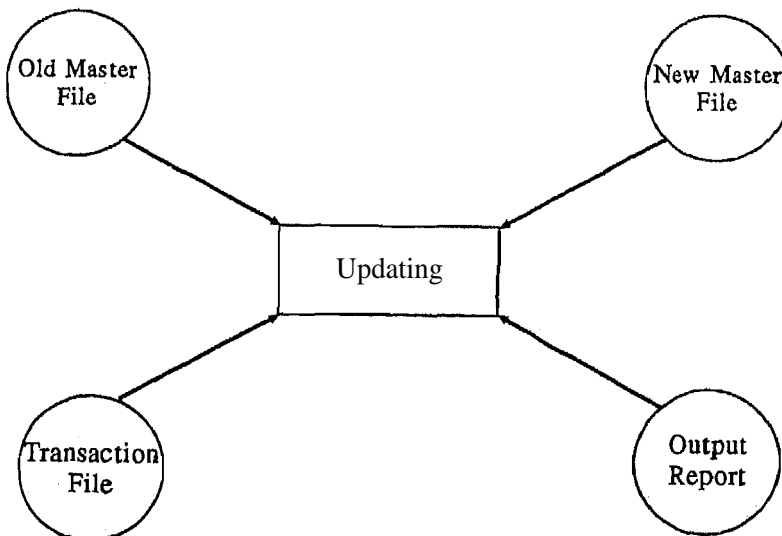
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The basic factors to be considered in the selection of file media and file organisation method are:

- the method of processing for updating files,
- size of the file
- file inquiry capabilities
- activity ratio of records in the file
- file volatility and
- the response time.

Each of these factors is briefly described in the following paragraphs.

In batch processing, the sequential method of processing, using magnetic tapes, is employed. This method of **updating** involves re-creation of the **master** file every time the file is updated. In order to reduce the set-up time, the updating of the file is done after accumulation of a fairly large batch of transactions. **Fig.1** illustrates the updating procedure.



**Fig.1: Updating File in Batch Processing**

The method of random processing is used to update the files **as** the transactions occur. This is a widely used method for **on-** line processing of files through remote terminals. **Fig.2** illustrates this method.

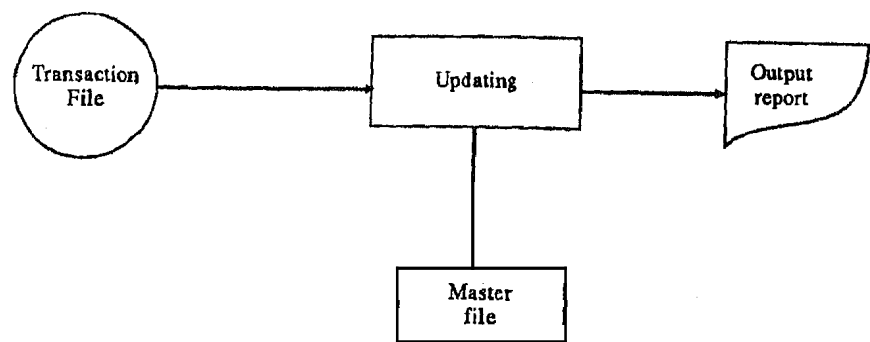


Fig.2: Updating Direct Access File

On-line processing allows for dispersing **input/output** terminals throughout the organisation, so that various users can have access to the files. This can also be used in a batch **processing** mode where **several** files can be updated simultaneously, as illustrated in Fig.3. While the new **open** order file is created from a **batched** file of current **orders**, the customer file and the product file are accessed **simultaneously** and updated.

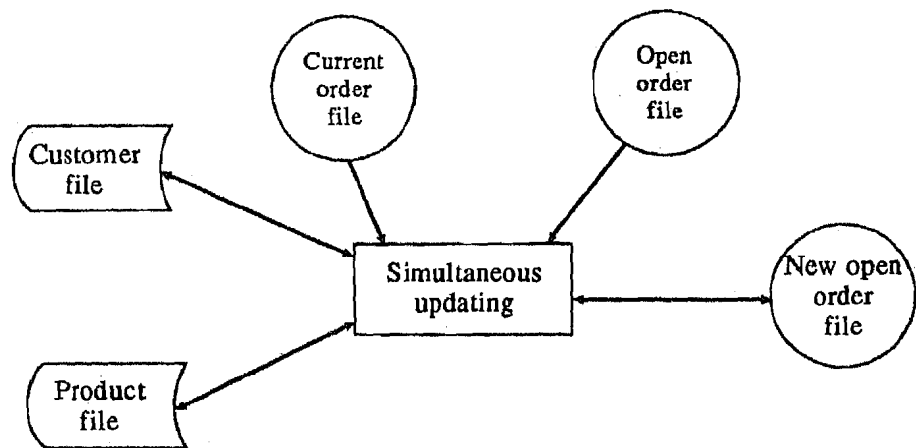


Fig.3: Simultaneous Updating of Multiple Files

Magnetic tape and magnetic disk can accommodate large files. Magnetic tape is more convenient and economical for holding large files, particularly when the records are processed **sequentially** in a **batch** mode. The magnetic disk can also hold large volumes of data, but it is relatively expensive. However, it is **really** suited for on-line processing. In designing the files, the **growth** potential should **be** taken into account.

The inquiry capabilities relate to the ease of **referring** to a specific record in file without **any** alteration. Direct Access Storage Devices (DASD) can quickly handle file inquiries. A teletype or CRT is used to enter the inquiry specifying the record and the information desired. After the record in the file **is** accessed, the desired **information** is communicated by the CPU to the CRT or the teletypewriter. **All** these steps are completed within a few seconds after entering the inquiry. This inquiry capabilities were severely restricted before the advent of DASD. The inquiry capability of the DASD can be advantageously used without interrupting the normal **processing** operations.

The time interval between entering an inquiry and getting the reply is called response time. Some **applications** require a fast response as in the case of airline or hotel reservations, stock quotations in stock exchange. **etc.** The most suitable **medium** for such purposes is the **DASD**.

The activity ratio of a file is an important feature in file design. It is a measure of the **proportion** of records processed in an updating run. A file with high activity ratio can **be** processed more **economically** using the sequential processing method. If more than thirty per cent of the records in a file are used for updating, the activity ratio is considered high. **Random** or direct accessing is more suitable for updating files whose activity ratio is low, i.e., less **than** thirty per cent.

**Another** characteristic of a file is its volatility, which indicates the additions, deletions and changes to the file. When a file is accessed frequently, as in banks, stock exchanges, airlines, **etc.** in a working period, the file is regarded as highly volatile.



Before designing the file, the analyst should consider **specific** aspects relating to a file. These aspects should be recorded on a work sheet as shown below:

### File Work Sheet

File Name :	Analyst			
1. File update:	Batch	<input type="text"/>	Direct	<input type="text"/>
2. File Organisation:	Sequential	<input type="text"/>		
	Indexed Sequential	<input type="text"/>		
	Direct	<input type="text"/>		
3. Processing frequency:	On demand	<input type="text"/>		
	Daily	<input type="text"/>		
	Weekly	<input type="text"/>		
	Monthly	<input type="text"/>		
	Any other	<input type="text"/>		
4. Activity ratio:	Low	<input type="text"/>	Moderate	<input type="text"/>
			High	<input type="text"/>
5. Direct access:	Yes	<input type="text"/>	No	<input type="text"/>
			Occasional	<input type="text"/>
6. Volatility:	Low	<input type="text"/>	Moderate	<input type="text"/>
			High	<input type="text"/>
7. Record Characteristics:				
<b>Type:</b>	Fixed	<input type="text"/>	Variable	<input type="text"/>
Blocking Factor				
Number of Characters				
8. File Dynamics:				
(i) Number of records				
(ii) Yearly additions				
(iii) Yearly deletions				
(iv) Percent growth				
9. File media:	Tape	<input type="text"/>	Disk	<input type="text"/>
10. Sources of data:				
11. <b>Type</b> of information required and reported:				

The above file work sheet should be accompanied by detailed record layouts, which describe in detail the layout of **the** records in the file.

### Check Your Progress 1

1. Explain the file concept briefly.

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2. List out various types of file.

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3. List out the three methods of organizing a file.

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4. List out the basic factors responsible for selecting the appropriate media and file organisation methods.

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## 4.6 DATABASE DESIGN

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As we have discussed that the organization selected for a particular **file** mainly depends on the nature of the **application** for which it will be used. Historically, files have been designed based on specific application. Payroll **files** are **created** containing **all** the data pertinent to a company's payroll system. Similarly, individual files **are** created for **use** with the company's personnel, accounts receivable, inventory, and other systems. If the data contained on these files are not carefully delineated, it is very likely that the **same** data will appear on several of these **files**. In other words, these files would contain redundant data. For example, **both** a company's personnel file and payroll file could contain the **name** and address of each employee. This would mean that a simple change of address would have to be processed twice and possibly three or **four** times, depending on the number of other files **on which** these data appear. Clearly, it would be more practical to have each employee's name and address on one file from which it can be accessed **by all** programs requiring **these data**. This would reduce the amount of redundant data and **minimise** the possibility that data contained on a file might be inaccurate because they were never updated. This is but one of the reasons that database technology was developed.

A DATABASE can be thought of as a set of logically related files **organised** to facilitate access by one or more applications programs and to **minimise** data redundancy. In other words, a database can be defined as a **stored** collection of data, **organised** on **the** basis of relationships in the **data** rather than **the** convenience of storage structures. It is not a replacement for files.

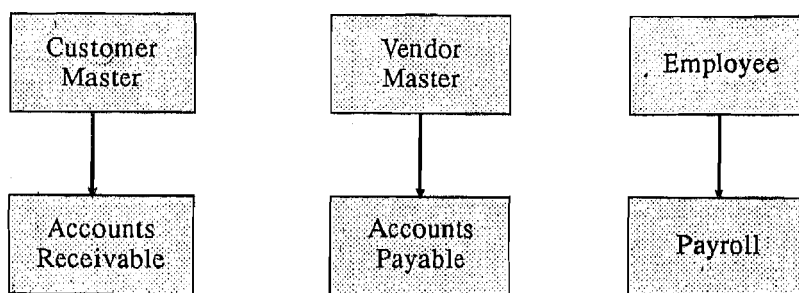
Some general objectives in establishing a database are as follows:

- Eliminate redundant data **as** much as possible.
- Integrate existing **data files**.

- Share **data** among all users.
- Incorporate changes easily and quickly.
- Simplify the use of data files.
- Lower the cost of storing and retrieving data.
- Improve accuracy and consistency.
- Provide data security from unauthorised use.
- Exercise central control over standards.

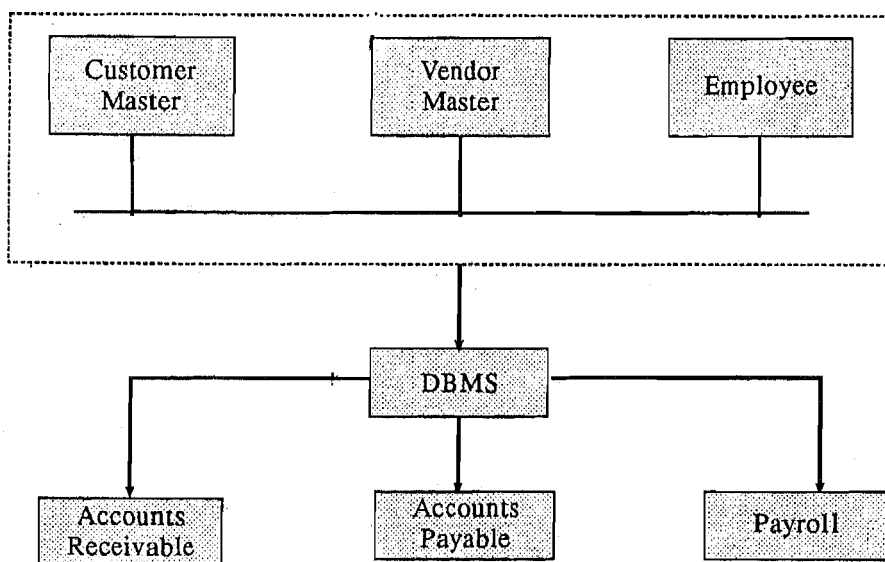
In addition to **the** database itself, a set of programs is **necessary** to facilitate adding new data as well **as** modifying and retrieving existing data within a database. This set of programs is referred to as a Data Base Management System (DBMS). A **data** base system merge **data** into one pool shared by all systems so that any change automatically affects all relevant systems. The following figures defines the difference between the traditional file systems and database management system.

Fig.4 shows the Traditional file systems in which each system is responsible for its own data.



**Fig.4: Traditional File System**

Fig. 5 shows the Data Base Management Systems in which data is centralised.



**Fig.5: Data Base Management System**

Specific advantages of data base are:

1. **File Consolidation:** Pooling **data** reduces redundancy and inconsistency and promotes cooperation among different users. Since data bases link records together logically, a data change in one system will cascade through all the other system using the data.
2. **Program and file independence:** This **feature** separates the definition of the files **from** their programs, allowing a programmer to concentrate on the logic of the program instead of precisely how to store and retrieve data.

3. **Access Versatility:** Users can remove data in many ways. They enjoy the best of both worlds - **sequential** access for reporting data in a **prescribed** order and random access for rapid retrieval of a specific record.
4. **Data Security:** Usually a **DBMS** includes a **password system** that **controls** access to **sensitive data**. By **limiting their** access to read-only, write-only, or specified records, or even fields in records, **passwords can prevent certain** users from **retrieving unauthorised data**.
5. **Program Development.** **Programmers** must use **standard** names for data items rather than invent **their own** from program to program. This allows **the** programmer to **focus** on desired function,
6. **Program Maintenance:** **Changes** and repairs to a **system** are relatively **easy**.
7. **Special Information:** Special-purpose report generators can **produce reports** with minimum effort.

### 4.6.1 Logical and Physical view of Data

In database design, several views of **data must** be considered along with the **persons** who use them. In addition to data structuring, where relationships are reflected **between** and within entities, we need to identify the application program's **logical** views of data within an overall Logical data **structure**. The logical view is what the data look like, **regardless** of how they are stored. The physical view is the way data exist in physical storage. It deals with how data **are** stored, accessed, or related to other data in storage. There are four views of **data** out of which **three** are logical and one is physical. The logical views are **the** user's view, the programmer's view and the overall logical **view**, called a schema.

### 4.6.2 SCHEMA

Once a database system has been designed, it will be possible to identify each type of data item, **data** aggregate, record and set by a name or code. It will be possible to **state** which data item types go together to make data aggregate types and record types, and to identify which **record** types are members and owners of set types. A coded set of tables describing this information and **stored** in the computer **system** on direct access devices is called a SCHEMA. It is a description of the **data** structure which is **separate from** the data itself. The schema describes the areas, their identifiers and page sizes, and **indicates** how these are related to the records and sets. In other **systems**, a **different** set of **tables** is used **for this**.

The schema therefore, is the view of the data, the overall logical data structure which is **held** by **the DBMS**. Each time a program requires data, the **DBMS** will **look up** in the schema for the details of the structure of the data requested. For example if **the program** requires an occurrence of a set, the **DBMS** will look up in the schema which record types are required, how to find the relevant records given a certain key by the program, and perhaps **also** which **areas** the pages containing the relevant data are **stored** in.

### 4.6.3 Sub-schema

In a **database** system, it is not always possible to allow programmers to write the data division of their choice for **reasons** of security or control. It is more useful to provide the programmer with a **standard** description of the logical data to be used in a particular application. All references to data **within** the program will be for **this** description, which is called a SUBSCHEMA and is similar to the Schema in structure. The **DBMS** has the job of **matching data requests** on a subschema and data requests **based** on the schema:

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## 4.7 TYPES OF DATABASE

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In conventional file systems, groups of **bytes** constitute a field, one or **more** fields make a **record**, and two or more **records** make a file. In a **database** environment, a **group** of **bytes** constitutes a **data** item or segment, a collection of **segments** a **data entry**, and a series of data entries a **data set**. The complete collection of data **sets** is the database itself. With traditional processing of files, **records** are not automatically related, so a **programmer** must be **concerned with** record relationships. Often the files are stored and processed by record key, just as we sorted the **transaction file**. Data bases relate data sets in one of **three models**: hierarchical, network, or relational.

### 4.7.1 Hierarchical Model

In a hierarchical **structure**, sometimes referred to as a tree structure, the stored data get more and more detailed as one branches further and further out on the tree. Each segment, or node, may be subdivided into two or more subordinate nodes, which can be further subdivided into two or more additional nodes. However, each node can have only one "parent" from which it emanates. The Fig.6 shows the hierarchical structure.

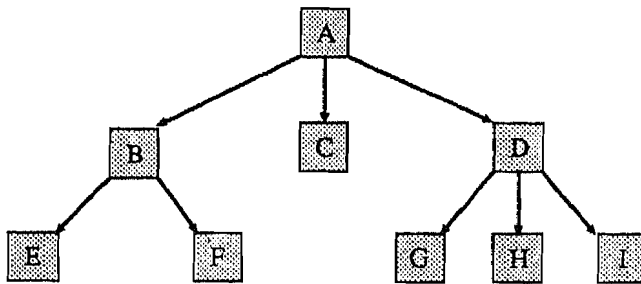


Fig.6: Hierarchical Structure

### 4.7.2 Network Model

The network related data sets are similar to hierarchical ones, **except** that a node may have more than one parent. Thus a hierarchical **DBMS** is a subset of network DBMS. The trade off between the simplicity of design of a hierarchical **structure** and the storage efficiency of a network structure is a very important consideration in database **implementation**. The Fig.7 shows the Network structure.

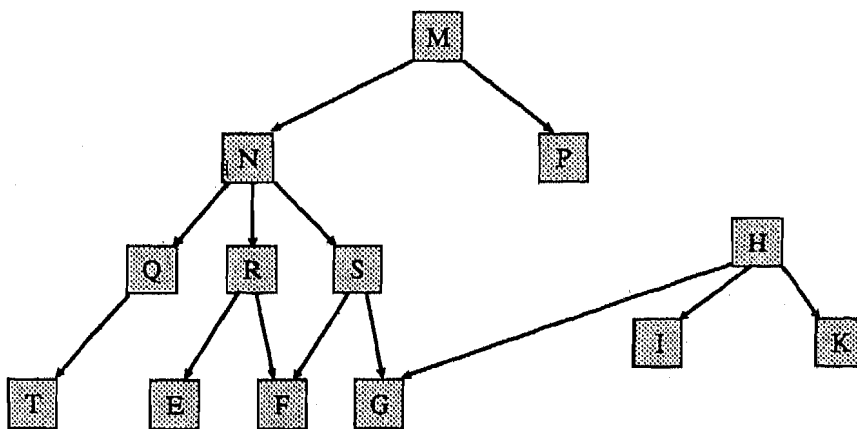


Fig.7: Network Structure

### 4.7.3 Relational Model

The relational structure, however, **organises** the **data** in terms of two dimensional tables. That is, Relational data **sets** order data in a table of rows and columns and differ markedly from their hierarchical or network counterparts. There **are** no parent or node data **sets** as shown in Fig.8. In a relational database management systems, we have the same concept of files, records, and fields. Files are represented by **two-dimensional** tables, each of which is called a "relation". Records, which can be visualized as rows in the table, are called "Luples". Fields can be **visualised** as columns, and are called by attribute names, or domains.

For example, note that in the supplier table in Fig.8 we have three **luples**, or **rows**, and three **attribute** names or columns. If we need to **know** the name of the supplier of **blue** chairs, the relational DBMS searches the type and color columns of the Furniture, Table and finds supplier number 30, and then it **scans** the supplier table for number 30, which turns out to be **PANKAJ'S**. Since each "**record**" is a row in the table and each "field" a column, an inventory system of 1600 **Luples**, each with 5 **attributes**, would create a table of 1600 rows and 5 columns.

FURNITURE

Product Number	Type	Color	Quantity in stock	Supplier Number
2589	Table	White	4	26
2892	Chair	Blue	6	30
3471	Chair	Eight Green	20	133
3678	Desk	Brown	9	150
3689	Stool	Brown	25	159

SUPPLIER

Supplier Number	Supplier Name	Amount of Purchases This year
30	PANKAJ	26,035.00
26	DINESH	13,960.00
159	RAJESH	75,286.00

Fig.8: Relational Structure

A relational **DBMS** can **perform** the following basic operations:

- create or delete tables
- update, insert, or delete rows
- add or delete columns
- copy data from one table into another
- retrieve or query a table, row or column
- print, recognize, or read a **table** or row
- join or combine tables based on a value in a table.

Since the relational structure organises the data in **terms** of two dimensional tables, they offer great flexibility and a high degree of data **security**. The relational structure uses relatively little memory or secondary storage. Unfortunately, the process of creating the tables is a rather elaborate procedure. Another disadvantage of this structure is that it generally requires more **time** to access information than either of the other **two structures**. This is because much **more** information must be searched in order to answer **queries posed** to the systems. In addition, some implementation use a fixed **amount** of storage for each field, resulting in insufficient storage **utilisation**. In spite of these disadvantages, the relational structure has gained rapid acceptance and is currently the most popular of the three structures. Many experts predict that it will eventually replace the others completely,

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## 4.8 CODING SYSTEM

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The information systems are designed with **space, time**, and cost **savings** in mind. The coding systems are used to reduce the input, control errors and speed up the entire process. So coding systems are methods in which conditions, words, ideas or relationships are expressed by a code. A code is an ordered collection of symbols designed to provide unique identification of an entity or attribute. It may be a brief number, title or symbol. The main purpose of codes is to facilitate the identification and retrieval of items of information from the system.

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## 4.9 TYPES OF CODE

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There **are** many possible coding structures. The **main types** of codes are described below:

### 4.9.1 Classification Code

Classification is the best described as the establishment of categories of entities, types and attributes in a way that brings like or similar items together according to pre-determined **relationships**. A classification is by nature an ordered systematic structure. So the

classification code places **separate** entities **like** events, people, or objects, into distinct **groups** called classes. A code is used to identify one class from **another**. Using this code the user classifies the event into one of **several** possible categories and **records** the code. Classification codes vastly simplify the input process **because** only a single-digit code is required. The need for writing lengthy **descriptions** or making **judgements** is eliminated.

### 4.9.2 Function Code'

Function codes state the activities or work to be **performed without spelling** out all of the **details in narrative** statements. Analysts use this type of code frequently **in** transaction data to tell the system how to process the data. For **example, the** design for **file** processing the codes given like the following to perform certain activities.

A	—	To add record
D	—	To delete record
U	—	To update record
E	—	To edit record

otherwise,

1	—	Addition of records
2	—	Modification of records
3	—	Deletion of records

### 4.9.3 Card Code

Card codes allow the **program** to distinguish between the type of card and to determine whether the contents of a specific card are **correct**. These card codes are used in the punched cards **only** which is used for batch process.

### 4.9.4 Sequence Code

Sequence codes are **numbers** or letters assigned in **series**. They tell the order in which events have occurred. This code is simple to use and apply. For example, employee numbers might be assigned **consecutively** to employees as they hired. It makes no provision for classifying groups of like **items** according to specific characteristics. An advantage of the sequence code is that it can cover an unlimited number of items by using the fewest possible code digits. As new items occur they are simply assigned to the next higher unused number in.

### 4.9.5 Significant-digit Subset Code

A well conceived coding scheme, using **subcodes** within larger codes or numbers, can provide a wealth of information to users. Suppose item **number** will be assigned to the different materials and products a firm stocks or sells. One way is to assign numbers in sequence, starting with the first and going through to the last one. Or a prefix can be added to the identification numbers to further describe the type of item. For example:

PL — refers the product is Plastic and

ST — refers the product is steel.

The codes can be divided into subsets or subcodes, or **characters** that are part of the identification number that have special **meaning**. The **subcodes** tell the user additional information about the **item**. For example, in a bank examination, the registration number is assigned to each candidate which gives many **informations**,

Let the assigned number is 11021978

11	—	centre where the examination is to be held
02	—	The post <b>number</b> for which the candidate <b>has applied</b> .
1978	—	The number assigned to the candidate.

A **frequent** method of coding is **by** abbreviation of the name of an entity or attribute. The main ways of doing this are by mnemonic codes and acronyms.

4.9.6 Mnemonic Code

Mnemonic code construction is characterised by the use of either letters or numbers, or letters and numbers combinations, which describe the items coded, the combinations having been derived from descriptions of the items themselves. Mnemonic codes produce fewer errors than other types of code where the number of items is relatively small and stable. For example, M and F are more reliable for Male and Female than 1 and 2, and Y and N for Yes and No respectively. Another example for combination of letters and numbers is, to describe 16 inch color television set, a use code is **TV-CL-16**. Also the unit of measure codes are frequently mnemonic codes. For example, cm -centimeter, m - meter, km - kilometer

4.9.7 Acronym

The acronym is a particular type of mnemonic representation formed from the first letter or letters of several words. An acronym often becomes a word in itself. For example,

- MCA — Master of Computer Applications
- RADAR — Radio Detecting and Ranging

Check Your Progress 2

1. List out the specific advantages of database.

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2. List out various types of database structure.

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3. What do you understand by Coding System?

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4. List out various types of code.

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## 4.10 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have **discussed** file concept and several categories of data files. **Three** most important methods of file organisation have also been explained in a systematic way. Basic factors to be considered in the selection of file media and file **organisation** have been pointed out in this unit. Database design, its various **types** are also **included**. Coding design also play significant role in business data processing system. Different types of code have been defined.

## 4.11 MODEL ANSWERS

### Check Your Progress 1

- File is a collection of related **records**. Each record in a file **pertains** to the same entity.
- Various types of files are:
 

(i) Master	(ii) Transaction	(iii) Table
(iv) Report	(v) Back-up	(vi) Archival
(vii) Library	(viii) Dump	
- Three methods are:
 

(i) Sequential	(ii) Random	(iii) Indexed
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- The basic factors to be considered in the selection of file media and file organisation method are:
 

(i) Method of processing for updating files
(ii) Size of the file
(iii) File inquiry capabilities
(vi) Activity ratio of records in the file
(v) File volatility
(vi) Response time

### Check Your Progress 2

- Specific advantages of **database** are:
 

(i) File consolidation.
(ii) Program and file independence
(iii) Access versatility
(iv) Data security
(v) Program development
(vi) Easier way of program maintenance
- |                  |              |                  |
|------------------|--------------|------------------|
| (i) Hierarchical | (ii) Network | (iii) Relational |
|------------------|--------------|------------------|
- The coding **systems are** used to reduce the input, control errors and **speed** up the entire process. Coding systems are considered as methods in which conditions, words, ideas or relationships are **expressed by** a code. A code is an **ordered collection** of symbols designed to provide unique identification of an entity or attribute. It may be a brief number, title or symbol.
- Various types of code are:
 

(i) Classification code	(ii) Function code
(iii) Card code	(iv) Sequence code
(v) Significant digit subset code	(vi) Mnemonic code
(vii) Acronym	