## **NAME:** VISHWAK SENAN

#### **DATABASES**

• A database is an organized collection of structured information, or data, typically stored electronically in a computer system. A database is usually controlled by a database management system (DBMS).

#### • Flat File Model:

- A flat file is a collection of data stored in a two-dimensional database in which similar yet discrete strings of information are stored as records in a table. The columns of the table represent one dimension of the database, while each row is a separate record. • Hierarchical Model:
- Hierarchical Data (SQL Server) A graph of links between Web pages Use hierarchic as a data type to create tables with a hierarchical structure, or to describe the hierarchical structure of data that is stored in another location. Use the hierarchic functions in Transact-SQL to query and manage hierarchical data.

#### Network Model:

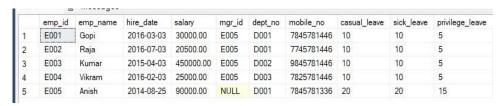
- The network model allows creating more complex and more strong queries as compared to the database with a hierarchical database model. A user can execute a variety of database queries when selecting the network model. Disadvantages of a network model. The network model is a very complex database model, so the user must be very familiar with the overall structure of the database. Relational Data Model:
- The relational model is the theoretical basis of relational databases, which
  is a technique or way of structuring data using relations, which are gridlike mathematical structures consisting of columns and rows.

#### What is RDBMS?

- RDBMS stands for **R**elational **D**atabase **M**anagement **S**ystem. RDBMS is the basis for SQL, and for all modern database systems like MS SQL Server, IBM DB2, Oracle, MySQL, and Microsoft Access.
- A Relational database management system (RDBMS) is a database management system (DBMS) that is based on the relational model as introduced by E. F. Codd.

#### What is a table?

- The data in an RDBMS is stored in database objects which are called as tables.
   This table is basically a collection of related data entries and it consists of numerous columns and rows.
- The below mentioned the table of EMPLOYEE.



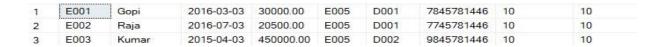
#### What is a field?

- Every table is broken up into smaller entities called fields. The fields in the EMPLOYEE table consist of emp\_id, emp\_name, hire\_date, salary,mgr\_id and etc...
- A field is a column in a table that is designed to maintain specific information about every record in the table.



### What is a Record or a Row?

• A record is also called as a row of data is each individual entry that exists in a table.



## **Data Integrity**

The following categories of data integrity exist with each RDBMS –

- **Entity Integrity –** There are no duplicate rows in a table.
- **Domain Integrity –** Enforces valid entries for a given column by restricting the type, the format, or the range of values.
- **Referential integrity** Rows cannot be deleted, which are used by other records.
- **User-Defined Integrity –** Enforces some specific business rules that do not fall into entity, domain or referential integrity.

#### **Database Normalization**

Database normalization is the process of efficiently organizing data in a database. There are two reasons of this normalization process —

- Eliminating redundant data, for example, storing the same data in more than one table.
- Ensuring data dependencies make sense.

Both these reasons are worthy goals as they reduce the amount of space a database consumes and ensures that data is logically stored. Normalization consists of a series of guidelines that help guide you in creating a good database structure.

Normalization guidelines are divided into normal forms; think of a form as the format or the way a database structure is laid out. The aim of normal forms is to organize the database structure, so that it complies with the rules of first normal form, then second normal form and finally the third normal form.

It is your choice to take it further and go to the fourth normal form, fifth normal form and so on, but in general, the third normal form is more than enough.

- First Normal Form (1NF)
- Second Normal Form (2NF)
- Third Normal Form (3NF)

#### Functional Dependency

The functional dependency is a relationship that exists between two attributes. It typically exists between the primary key and non-key attribute within a table.

$$\square$$
  $X \rightarrow Y$ 

The left side of FD is known as a determinant, the right side of the production is known as a dependent.

For example:

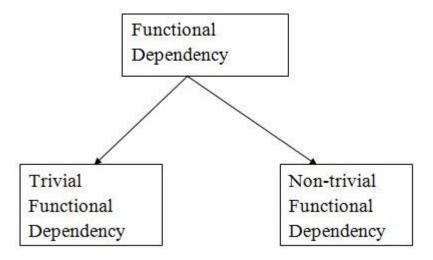
Assume we have an employee table with attributes: Emp\_Id, Emp\_Name, Emp\_Address.

Here Emp\_Id attribute can uniquely identify the Emp\_Name attribute of employee table because if we know the Emp\_Id, we can tell that employee name associated with it.

Functional dependency can be written as:

We can say that Emp\_Name is functionally dependent on Emp\_Id.

## **Types of Functional dependency**



## 1. Trivial functional dependency

- A  $\rightarrow$  B has trivial functional dependency if B is a subset of A.
- The following dependencies are also trivial like:  $A \rightarrow A, B \rightarrow B$  Example:
- ② Consider a table with two columns Employee\_Id and Employee\_Name.
- [☐ {Employee\_id, Employee\_Name} → Employee\_Id is a trivial functional dependency as
- Employee\_Id is a subset of {Employee\_Id, Employee\_Name}.
- Also, Employee\_Id → Employee\_Id and Employee\_Name → Employee\_Name are trivial dependencies too.

## 2. Non-trivial functional dependency

- $A \rightarrow B$  has a non-trivial functional dependency if B is not a subset of A.
- When A intersection B is NULL, then  $A \rightarrow B$  is called as complete non-trivial.

## **Example:**

- $\blacksquare$  ID  $\rightarrow$  Name,
- $\square$  Name  $\rightarrow$  DOB

#### **Normalization**

- Normalization is the process of organizing the data in the database.
- Normalization is used to minimize the redundancy from a relation or set of relations. It is also used to eliminate the undesirable characteristics like Insertion, Update and Deletion Anomalies.
- Normalization divides the larger table into the smaller table and links them using relationship.
- The normal form is used to reduce redundancy from the database table.

| Normal Form | Description   |  |  |
|-------------|---|--|--|
| <u>1NF</u>  | A relation is in 1NF if it contains an atomic value.  |  |  |
| <u>2NF</u>  | A relation will be in 2NF if it is in 1NF and a non-key attributes are fully function dependent on the primary key.  A relation will be in 3NF if it is in 2NF and it transition dependency exists. |  |  |
| <u>3NF</u>  |   |  |  |
| 4NF         | A relation will be in 4NF if it is in Boyce Codd normal form and has no multi-valued dependency.  |  |  |
| <u>5NF</u>  | A relation is in 5NF if it is in 4NF and not contains any join dependency and joining should be lossless.   |  |  |

## First Normal Form (1NF)

- A relation will be 1NF if it contains an atomic value.
- It states that an attribute of a table cannot hold multiple values. It must hold only single-valued attribute.
- First normal form disallows the multi-valued attribute, composite attribute, and their combinations.

**Example:** Relation EMPLOYEE is not in 1NF because of multi-valued attribute EMP\_PHONE.

#### **EMPLOYEE** table:

| EMP_ID | EMP_NAME | EMP_PHONE   | EMP_STATE |
|--------|----------|-------------|-----------|
| 14     | John     | 7272826385, | UP        |
|        |          | 9064738238  |           |
| 20     | Harry    | 8574783832  | Bihar     |
| 12     | Sam      | 7390372389, | Punjab    |
|        |          | 8589830302  |           |

The decomposition of the EMPLOYEE table into 1NF has been shown below:

| EMP_ID | EMP_NAME | EMP_PHONE  | EMP_STATE |
|--------|----------|------------|-----------|
| 14     | John     | 7272826385 | UP        |
| 14     | John     | 9064738238 | UP        |
| 20     | Harry    | 8574783832 | Bihar     |
| 12     | Sam      | 7390372389 | Punjab    |
| 12     | Sam      | 8589830302 | Punjab    |

## **Second Normal Form (2NF)**

- In the 2NF, relational must be in 1NF.
- In the second normal form, all non-key attributes are fully functional dependent on the primary key

**Example:** Let's assume, a school can store the data of teachers and the subjects they teach. In a school, a teacher can teach more than one subject.

#### **TEACHER table**

| TEACHER_ID | SUBJECT   | TEACHER_AGE |
|------------|-----------|-------------|
| 25         | Chemistry | 30          |
| 25         | Biology   | 30          |
| 47         | English   | 35          |
| 83         | Math      | 38          |
| 83         | Computer  | 38          |

In the given table, non-prime attribute TEACHER\_AGE is dependent on TEACHER\_ID which is a proper subset of a candidate key. That's why it violates the rule for 2NF.

To convert the given table into 2NF, we decompose it into two tables:

#### **TEACHER\_DETAIL** table:

| TEACHER_ID | TEACHER_AGE |
|------------|-------------|
| 25         | 30          |
| 47         | 35          |
| 83         | 38          |

#### **TEACHER\_SUBJECT table:**

| TEACHER_ID | SUBJECT   |
|------------|-----------|
| 25         | Chemistry |
| 25         | Biology   |
| 47         | English   |
| 83         | Math      |
| 83         | Computer  |

## Third Normal Form (3NF)

- A relation will be in 3NF if it is in 2NF and not contain any transitive partial dependency.
- 3NF is used to reduce the data duplication. It is also used to achieve the data integrity.
- If there is no transitive dependency for non-prime attributes, then the relation must be in third normal form.

A relation is in third normal form if it holds at least one of the following conditions for every non-trivial function dependency  $X \rightarrow Y$ .

- 1. X is a super key.
- 2. Y is a prime attribute, i.e., each element of Y is part of some candidate key.

#### **Example:**

#### **EMPLOYEE\_DETAIL table:**

| EMP_ID | EMP_NAME  | EMP_ZIP | EMP_STATE | EMP_CITY |
|--------|-----------|---------|-----------|----------|
| 222    | Harry     | 201010  | UP        | Noida    |
| 333    | Stephan   | 02228   | US        | Boston   |
| 444    | Lan       | 60007   | US        | Chicago  |
| 555    | Katharine | 06389   | UK        | Norwich  |
| 666    | John      | 462007  | MP        | Bhopal   |

## Super key in the table above:

{EMP\_ID}, {EMP\_ID, EMP\_NAME}, {EMP\_ID, EMP\_NAME, EMP\_ZIP} ....so on

- 3. Candidate key: {EMP\_ID}
- **4. Non-prime attributes:** In the given table, all attributes except EMP\_ID are non-prime.
- 5. Here, EMP\_STATE & EMP\_CITY dependent on EMP\_ZIP and EMP\_ZIP dependent on EMP\_ID. The non-prime attributes (EMP\_STATE, EMP\_CITY) transitively dependent on super key (EMP\_ID). It violates the rule of third normal form.
- 6. That's why we need to move the EMP\_CITY and EMP\_STATE to the new <EMPLOYEE\_ZIP> table, with EMP\_ZIP as a Primary key.

#### 7. EMPLOYEE table:

| EMP_ID | EMP_NAME  | EMP_ZIP |
|--------|-----------|---------|
| 222    | Harry     | 201010  |
| 333    | Stephan   | 02228   |
| 444    | Lan       | 60007   |
| 555    | Katharine | 06389   |
| 666    | John      | 462007  |

#### 8. EMPLOYEE\_ZIP table:

| EMP_ZIP | EMP_STATE | EMP_CITY |
|---------|-----------|----------|
| 201010  | UP        | Noida    |
| 02228   | US        | Boston   |
| 60007   | US        | Chicago  |
| 06389   | UK        | Norwich  |
| 462007  | MP        | Bhopal   |

## **Boyce Codd normal form (BCNF)**

- BCNF is the advance version of 3NF. It is stricter than 3NF.
- A table is in BCNF if every functional dependency  $X \rightarrow Y$ , X is the super key of the table.
- For BCNF, the table should be in 3NF, and for every FD, LHS is super key.

**Example:** Let's assume there is a company where employees work in more than one department.

#### **EMPLOYEE** table:

| EMP_ID | EMP_COUNT RY | EMP_DEPT   | DEPT_TYPE | EMP_DEPT_N<br>O |
|--------|--------------|------------|-----------|-----------------|
| 264    | India        | Designing  | D394      | 283             |
| 264    | India        | Testing    | D394      | 300             |
| 364    | UK           | Stores     | D283      | 232             |
| 364    | UK           | Developing | D283      | 549             |

## In the above table Functional dependencies are as follows:

9.  $EMP_ID \rightarrow EMP_COUNTRY$ 

10. EMP DEPT  $\rightarrow$  {DEPT TYPE, EMP DEPT NO}

Candidate key: {EMP-ID, EMP-DEPT}

The table is not in BCNF because neither EMP\_DEPT nor EMP\_ID alone are keys.

To convert the given table into BCNF, we decompose it into three tables:

EMP\_COUNTRY table:

| EMP_ID | EMP_COUNTRY |  |
|--------|-------------|--|
| 264    | India       |  |
| 264    | India       |  |

### EMP\_DEPT table:

| EMP_DEPT   | DEPT_TYPE | EMP_DEPT_NO |
|------------|-----------|-------------|
| Designing  | D394      | 283         |
| Testing    | D394      | 300         |
| Stores     | D283      | 232         |
| Developing | D283      | 549         |

## EMP\_DEPT\_MAPPING table:

| EMP_ID | EMP_DEPT |
|--------|----------|
| D394   | 283      |
| D394   | 300      |
| D283   | 232      |
| D283   | 549      |

Functional dependencies:

11.  $EMP_ID \rightarrow EMP_COUNTRY$ 

12.  $EMP\_DEPT \rightarrow \{DEPT\_TYPE, EMP\_DEPT\_NO\}$ 

Candidate keys:

For the first table: EMP\_ID
For the second table: EMP\_DEPT

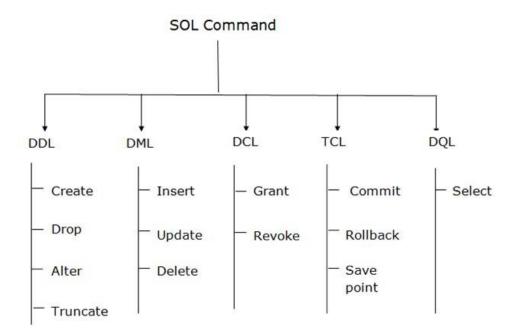
For the third table: {EMP\_ID, EMP\_DEPT}

#### **SQL Commands**

- SQL commands are instructions. It is used to communicate with the database. It is also used to perform specific tasks, functions, and queries of data.
- SQL can perform various tasks like create a table, add data to tables, drop the table, modify the table, set permission for users.

## **Types of SQL Commands**

There are five types of SQL commands: DDL, DML, DCL, TCL, and DQL.



## 1. Data Definition Language (DDL)

- DDL changes the structure of the table like creating a table, deleting a table, altering a table, etc.
- All the command of DDL are auto-committed that means it permanently save all the changes in the database.

Here are some commands that come under DDL:

- CREATE
- ALTER
- DROP
- TRUNCATE

```
CREATE TABLE STUDENT(Name char(20), Email char(30), DOB DATE); in the database.
```

**b.** DROP: It is used to delete both the structure and record stored in the table. Syntax

DROP TABLE table\_name;

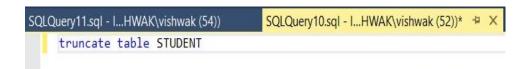
c. **ALTER:** It is used to alter the structure of the database. This change could be either to modify the characteristics of an existing attribute or probably to add a new attribute.

```
SQLQuery9.sql - Io...HWAK\vishwak (60))

SQLQuery8.sql - Io...HWAK\vishwal alter table STUDENT add Address varchar(50)
```

**d. TRUNCATE:** It is used to delete all the rows from the table and free the space containing the table.



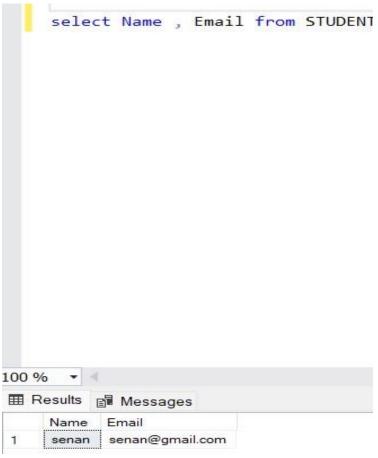


## **Data Query Language**

DQL is used to fetch the data from the database.

It uses only one command:

- SELECT
- **a. SELECT:** This is the same as the projection operation of relational algebra. It is used to select the attribute based on the condition described by WHERE clause.



## **KEYS**

## **Primary Key**

• A Primary Key is the minimal set of attributes of a table that has the task to uniquely identify the rows, or we can say the tuples of the given particular table.

## **Use of Primary Key**

- As defined above, a primary key is used to uniquely identify the rows of a table. Thus, a row that needs to be uniquely identified, the key constraint is set as the Primary key to that particular field.
- A primary key can never have a **NULL** value because the use of the primary key is to identify a value uniquely, but if no value will be there, how could it sustain. Thus, the field set with the primary key constraint cannot be NULL. Also, it all depends on the user that the user can add or delete the key if applied

```
∃insert into STUDENT DETAIL(Roll no,Name,Mark values (2,'senan',99)
select * from STUDENT DETAIL
```



## **Removing Primary Key**

It is also possible to delete the set primary key from an attribute using **ALTER** and **DROP** commands.

## ALTER TABLE STUDENT\_DETAIL DROP PRIMARY KEY;

## Adding Primary Key after creating the table

In order to set the primary key after creating a table, use the **ALTER** command and add the primary key constraint to do so.

The syntax is shown below:

ALTER TABLE STUDENT\_DETAIL

ADD CONSTRAINT PK\_STUDENT\_DETAIL PRIMARY KEY (Roll\_no, Name);

We have taken the Name attribute just for understanding the syntax.

So, in this way, we can use and set the primary key on a table. However, the syntax for defining the primary key may vary for different types of databases.

## **Super Key**

- We can define a super key as a set of those keys that identify a row or a tuple uniquely. The word super denotes the superiority of a key. Thus, a super key is the superset of a key known as a **Candidate key** (discussed in the next section). It means a candidate key is obtained from a super key only.
- **Emp SSN:** The SSN number is stored in this field.
- **Emp\_Id:** An attribute that stores the value of the employee identification number.
- **Emp\_name:** An attribute that stores the name of the employee holding the specified employee id.
- **Emp email**: An attribute that stores the email id of the specified employees.
- The **EMPLOYEE\_DETAIL** table is given below that will help you understand better:

| Emp_SSN | Emp_ld | Emp_name | Emp_email        |
|---------|--------|----------|------------------|
| 11051   | 01     | John     | john@email.com   |
| 19801   | 02     | Merry    | merry@email.com  |
| 19801   | 03     | Riddle   | riddle@email.com |
| 41201   | 04     | Cary     | cary@email.com   |

- These all are the set of super keys which, together or combining with other prime attributes, can identify a table uniquely.
- Just like, if we set Super key on Emp\_SSN, it will be able to identify all other tuples of the table very easily. Similarly, if we set the Super key on (Emp\_Id, Emp\_name), we can easily get the value or details of the other remaining attributes of the employee. So, in this way, we can create and search out the super keys from a table.

## Candidate Key

• A candidate key is a subset of a super key set where the key which contains no redundant attribute is none other than a **Candidate Key**. In order to select the candidate keys from the set of super key, we need to look at the super key set.

## How a Candidate key is different from a Primary Key

• Although the purpose of both candidate and the primary key is the same, that is to uniquely identify the tuples, and then also they are different from each other. It is because, in a table, we can have one or more than one candidate key, but we can create only one primary key for a table. Thus, from the number of obtained candidate keys, we can identify the appropriate primary key. However, if there is only one candidate key in a table, then it can be considered for both key constraints.

## **Example of Candidate Key**

• Let's look at the same example took while discussing Super Key to understand the working of a candidate key.

• We have an **EMPLOYEE\_DETAIL** table where we have the following attributes:

**Emp\_SSN:** The SSN number is stored in this field.

**Emp\_Id:** An attribute that stores the value of the employee identification number.

**Emp\_name:** An attribute that stores the name of the employee holding the specified employee id.

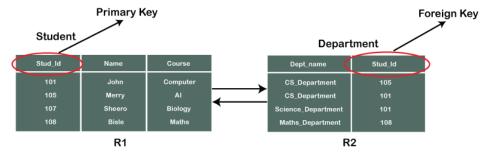
**Emp\_email:** An attribute that stores the email id of the specified employees.

The EMPLOYEE\_DETAIL table is given below that will help you understand better

## Foreign Key

- A foreign key is different from a super key, candidate key or primary key because a foreign key is the one that is used to link two tables together or create connectivity between the two.
- A foreign key is the one that is used to link two tables together via the
  primary key. It means the columns of one table points to the primary key
  attribute of the other table. It further means that if any attribute is set as a
  primary key attribute will work in another table as a foreign key attribute.
  But one should know that a foreign key has nothing to do with the primary
  key.

In the below-shown figure, you can view the following structure of the relationship between the two tables.



## **SQL** Arithmetic Operators

| Operator | Description | Examp    |
|----------|-------------|----------|
|          |             | le       |
| +        | Add         | SELECT   |
|          |             | 30 + 20; |
| _        | Subtract    | SELECT   |
|          |             | 30 - 20; |
| *        | Multiply    | SELECT   |
|          |             | 30 * 20; |
| /        | Divide      | SELECT   |
|          |             | 30 / 10; |
| %        | Modulo      | SELECT   |
|          |             | 17 % 5;  |

## **SQL Bitwise Operators**

| Operator | Description          |
|----------|----------------------|
| &        | Bitwise AND          |
|          | Bitwise OR           |
| ^        | Bitwise exclusive OR |

## **SQL Comparison Operators**

| Operator | Description | Exampl   |
|----------|-------------|----------|
|          |             | е        |
| =        | Equal to    | SELECT * |
|          |             | FROM     |
|          |             | Products |
|          |             | WHERE    |
|          |             | Price =  |
|          |             | 18;      |

|    | Creater than             | CCL CCT * |
|----|--------------------------|-----------|
| >  | Greater than             | SELECT *  |
|    |                          | FROM      |
|    |                          | Products  |
|    |                          | WHERE     |
|    |                          | Price >   |
|    |                          | 30;       |
| <  | Less than                | SELECT *  |
|    |                          | FROM      |
|    |                          | Products  |
|    |                          | WHERE     |
|    |                          | Price <   |
|    |                          | 30;       |
| >= | Greater than or equal to | SELECT *  |
|    |                          | FROM      |
|    |                          | Products  |
|    |                          | WHERE     |
|    |                          | Price >=  |
|    |                          | 30;       |
| <= | Less than or equal to    | SELECT *  |
|    |                          | FROM      |
|    |                          | Products  |
|    |                          | WHERE     |
|    |                          | Price <=  |
|    |                          | 30;       |
| <> | Not equal to             | SELECT    |
|    |                          | * FROM    |
|    |                          | Product   |
|    |                          | s WHERE   |
|    |                          | Price     |
|    |                          | <> 18;    |

# SQL Compound Operators

| Operator | Description     |
|----------|-----------------|
| +=       | Add equals      |
| -=       | Subtract equals |
| *=       | Multiply equals |
| /=       | Divide equals   |

| %=  | Modulo equals            |
|-----|--------------------------|
| &=  | Bitwise AND equals       |
| ^-= | Bitwise exclusive equals |
| *=  | Bitwise OR equals        |

## **SQL Logical Operators**

| Operator | Description  |
|----------|--|
| ALL      | TRUE if all of the subquery values meet the condition        |
| AND      | TRUE if all the conditions separated by AND is TRUE          |
| ANY      | TRUE if any of the subquery values meet the condition        |
| BETWEEN  | TRUE if the operand is within the range of comparisons       |
| EXISTS   | TRUE if the subquery returns one or more records             |
| IN       | TRUE if the operand is equal to one of a list of expressions |
| LIKE     | TRUE if the operand matches a pattern                        |
| NOT      | Displays a record if the condition(s) is NOT TRUE            |
| OR       | TRUE if any of the conditions separated by OR is TRUE        |
| SOME     | TRUE if any of the subquery values meet the condition        |