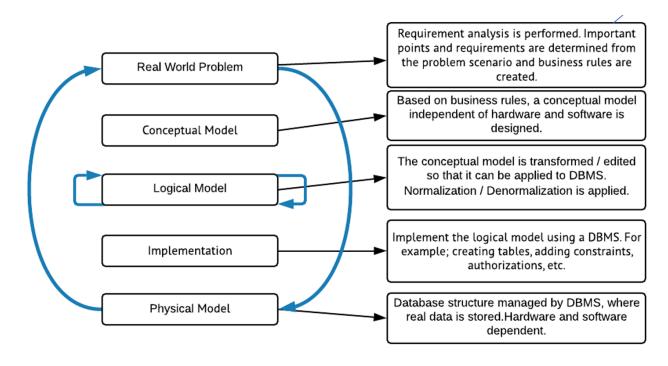
# Module 3: Relational Database Model

Database Development Lifecycle

When developing databases, we need to adhere to the **Database Development Lifecycle**. It consists of several stages to build a well-structured database:



- Requirements Analysis: Understanding business needs and defining business rules.
- Conceptual Design: Designing high-level Entity-Relationship (ER) models.
- Logical Design: Transforming ER models into relational schemas.
- Implementation: Building and configuring the database using SQL

## 1. Fundamentals of the Relational Model

The relational model organizes data into tables (relations) consisting of rows (tuples) and columns (attributes).

- Relation: A table with rows and columns.
- **Tuple**: A single row in a table representing a record.
- Attribute: A column in a table representing a specific data field.
- **Domain**: The set of valid values for an attribute.

• **Relational Schema**: Describes the structure of a table, including the names and data types of attributes, PK, and FK.

#### **Product Table Relational Schema:**

**Product** 

**ProductID**: INT, **PRIMARY KEY**, Unique identifier for each product. **ProductName**: VARCHAR(255), **NOT NULL**, The name of the product.

**Price**: DECIMAL(10, 2), **NOT NULL**, The cost of the product.

**StockQuantity**: INT, **NOT NULL**, The number of products available in stock.

## Why Relational Model?

Simple and intuitive structure.

Ensures data integrity and reduces redundancy.

Supports powerful querying using SQL.

# 2. Table (Relation) Structure

• **Table Name**: Unique identifier for the table.

• Columns: Define the attributes (e.g., StudentID, Name, Age).

Rows: Represent individual records.

#### • **Product** Table

ProductID (PK)	ProductName	Price	StockQuantity
1	SSD 512GB	60	120
2	16GB DDR4 RAM	75	150
3	Intel i7 CPU	300	80
4	1TB HDD	50	200
5	750W PSU	85	100

- ProductID (Primary Key): A unique identifier for each product.
- **ProductName**: The name of the product.
- **Price**: The cost of the product.
- **StockQuantity**: The number of products available in stock.

# 3. Integrity Rules (Constraints)

Integrity rules help maintain data accuracy and consistency.

## Primary Key (PK):

- Uniquely identifies each row in a table.
- o Cannot be **NULL**.
- Examples: ProductId in the Product table, StudentID in the Students table.

## Foreign Key (FK):

- Establishes a relationship between two tables.
- o Ensures <u>referential integrity</u>.

#### • Unique Constraint:

- o Ensures all values in a column are unique.
- o Example: Email in the Users table.

#### Not Null Constraint:

- Ensures a column cannot have NULL values.
- o Example: Name in the Course table.

# Referential Integrity and FK

Category Table			
CategoryID (PK)	CategoryName		
1	Storage Devices		
2	Memory		
3	Processors		
4	Power Supplies		

Products Table					
ProductID (PK)	ProductName	Price	StockQuantity	CategoryID (FK)	
1	SSD 512GB	60	120	1	
2	16GB DDR4 RAM	75	150	2	
3	Intel i7 CPU	300	80	3	
4	1TB HDD	50	200	1	
5	750W PSU	85	100	4	

- Referential Integrity ensures that the relationship between tables remains consistent.
- CategoryID in the Products table is a Foreign Key that refers to CategoryID in the Category table.
  - This means every value in the Products.CategoryID column must exist in the Category.CategoryID column. It can also be NULL.
  - For example, the product SSD 512GB has a CategoryID = 1, which corresponds to Storage Devices in the Category table.

What Happens Without Referential Integrity?

- 1. **Inserting Invalid Data**: If you try to add a product with CategoryID = 5, it will fail because CategoryID = 5 doesn't exist in the **Category** table.
- 2. **Deleting a Category**: If you delete the **Storage Devices** category, the database will prevent it because products like **SSD 512GB** and **1TB HDD** depend on that category.

#### **Best Practices:**

When designing databases, always use foreign keys to enforce referential integrity.

This prevents orphaned records and ensures the data remains reliable and consistent.

# 4. Best Practices for Primary Keys

- Keep primary keys **compact** and **simple** to increase database performance(search and constraint enforcement). Prefer **integer** types.
  - For example; Instead of using a string-based primary key like ProductCode = "SSD512GB", use a compact integer key: ProductID = 1. This makes operations more efficient and scalable.
- Avoid using meaningful data (e.g., names) as primary keys.
- Ensure primary keys are **immutable** (do not change over time).
- Avoid using business data (e.g., SSNs) as primary keys to ensure data privacy.
- Use **surrogate keys** (e.g., auto-incremented integers like **id**) instead of natural keys (e.g., SSN, StudentNumber,etc.).

# 5. Indexes and Their Importance

Index in a table is a data structure that **improves the speed of data retrieval operations** on a database table. Indexes can speed up SELECT queries and improve performance for complex queries involving joins or WHERE clauses, but this is not always the case.

Indexes can result in **slower INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE operations** due to the need for index maintenance...

#### **Student Table**

RowNumber	StudentID (PK)	FirstName	LastName	Age	Major
1	1	John	Doe	20	Computer Sci
2	2	Jane	Smith	21	Business
3	3	John	Doe	22	Engineering
4	4	Alice	Brown	19	Mathematics
5	5	John	Doe	23	Physics
6	6	Jane	Smith	24	Economics

## **Index Table for FirstName (with Unique First Names and Row Numbers)**

FirstName	Location
John	1, 3, 5
Jane	2, 6
Alice	4

An **index scan** is a process where the **DBMS** uses an **index** to quickly locate data in a table without having to scan the entire table. It is especially useful for speeding up query performance, especially when searching for specific values or ranges in indexed columns.

A **non-index scan**, often referred to as a **sequential scan**, is a process where the **DBMS** scans **all rows in a table** to satisfy a query, rather than using an index to directly locate specific rows. In a sequential scan, the **DBMS** scans the entire table row by row and checks each row to determine if it satisfies the query condition.

## Types of Indexes:

## 1. Primary Index

- Constructed automatically for the Primary Key.
- Ensures **unique and non-null** values for the primary key column.
- Example: **ProductID** in a **Products** table.

### 2. Unique Index

- Ensures that all values in the indexed column are unique.
- Unlike the primary index, it allows one NULL value (depending on the database).
- It can be applied to any column to enforce uniqueness without making it a primary key.
- Use Case: Email addresses in a Users table, where each email must be unique.

## 3. Secondary Index (Non-unique Index)

- An additional index defined on non-primary key columns to improve query performance.
- It allows duplicate values.
- **Use Case:** Defining an index on the ProductName column in the Products table to speed up searches by product name.

#### 4. Full-text Index (full text search)

- Specialized index for searching text data efficiently (supported in databases like PostgreSQL, MySQL, etc.).
- Use Case: Searching keywords in a blog posts table.

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#### Benefits:

- Faster SELECT queries.
- Improved performance for complex queries involving joins or WHERE clauses.

## 6. System Catalog and Metadata

- **System Catalog**: A collection of tables that store metadata (data about data). It provides information about database objects like tables, views, indexes, users, etc.
- Managed by the Database Management System.
- Metadata (tables, table fields, field types, value ranges, keys, indexes, relationships, constraints, etc.) for all databases are stored here.
- Users are allowed to perform limited read-only queries on the system catalog and metadata tables, depending on their access privileges.

# Hands-on Exercise 1: E-Commerce System – Business Rules to ER Model with Crow's Foot Notation to Relational Model

# Objective

In this exercise, you will practice database modeling by converting business rules into an Entity-Relationship (ER) model using Crow's Foot notation, and then constructing a relational model.

## Task 1: Analyze Business Rules

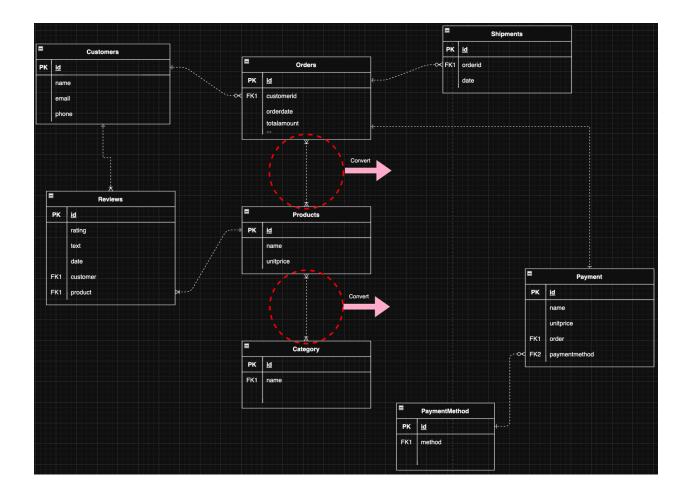
Below are several business rules describing the structure of an e-commerce database. Carefully analyze them and identify the necessary entities, attributes, and relationships:

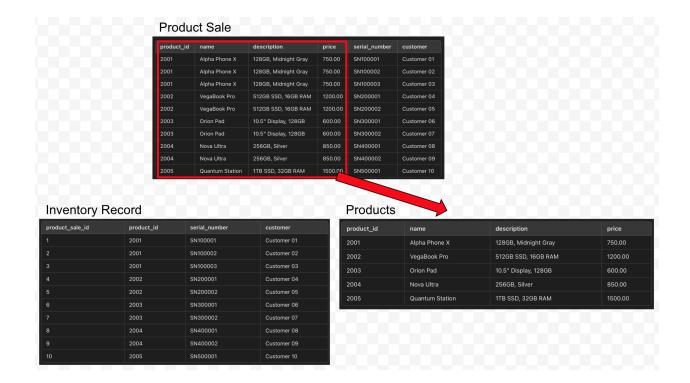
- 1. A customer can place many orders, but each order is placed by one customer.
- 2. Each customer has a unique customer ID, name, email, phone number, and shipping address.
- 3. An **order** has a **unique order ID**, an **order date**, a **total amount**, and a **status** (e.g., pending, shipped, delivered).
- 4. An **order** can contain **multiple products**, and a **product** can be part of multiple orders. The quantity of each product in an order must be recorded.
- 5. Each product has a unique product ID, name, description, price, and stock quantity.
- 6. A **product** belongs to **one or more categories**, and each **category** can have multiple products.
- 7. The system tracks **payments** made by customers. A **payment** is associated with **one order**, and an order can have **only one payment**.
- 8. Each payment has a unique payment ID, payment date, amount paid, and payment method (e.g., credit card, PayPal).
- Customers can leave reviews for products. A review belongs to one customer and one product.
- 10. Each review has a review ID, a rating (1 to 5), review text, and a date.

## Task 2: Convert Business Rules into an ER Model

Using Crow's Foot notation, design an ER model that represents the above business rules. Your model should include:

- Entities and their attributes
- Relationships between entities
- Relationship types (cardinalities) (one-to-one, one-to-many, many-to-many)





Task 3: Transform the ER Model into a Relational Model and obtain the relational schema.

# Additional Challenges (Optional)

These tasks are for students to implement at home:

• Investigate and propose potential index definitions for the fields of the table.