1. Searching in Databases

- Most common operation in a database.
- SQL SELECT is versatile but complex.
- Linear Search: Baseline efficiency.
 - Start at the beginning, check each element sequentially.
 - Worst case: O(n).

2. Lists of Records

- **Record**: A collection of attribute values (a row in a table).
- Collection: A set of records of the same entity type (a table).
- Search Key: A value used to locate records.

3. Data Structures for Storing Records

- Contiguous Allocation (Arrays)
 - Faster for random access.
 - o Slower for **insertions** except at the end.
- Linked Lists
 - Faster **insertions** anywhere.
 - Slower random access.

4. Binary Search

- Works only on sorted data.
- Time Complexity:
 - Best case: O(1) (direct match).
 - Worst case: O(log n).

Implementation in Python:

```
python
CopyEdit
def binary_search(arr, target):
    left, right = 0, len(arr) - 1
    while left <= right:
        mid = (left + right) // 2
        if arr[mid] == target:
            return mid
        elif arr[mid] < target:
            left = mid + 1
        else:
            right = mid - 1</pre>
```

•

5. Database Indexing

- Challenge: Can't store data sorted by multiple columns.
- Solutions:
 - 1. Sorted array of tuples (Binary Search fast, insertions slow).
 - 2. Linked list of tuples (Fast insertions, slow searches).
 - 3. **Indexes** (Balanced trees, B+ Trees, Hash Indexing).

6. Binary Search Trees (BST)

- Properties:
 - Left subtree < Root < Right subtree.
- Balanced BST:
 - o Avoids performance issues from skewed trees.
 - o Operations: Insert, Search, Delete.
- AVL Trees (Self-Balancing BSTs)
 - o Rebalancing with rotations (LL, RR, LR, RL cases).

7. Storage Hierarchy

- CPU Registers (fastest).
- RAM (fast, volatile).
- **Disk (SSD/HDD)** (slow, persistent).
- **Disk Block Size**: Must read full block (e.g., 2048 bytes) even for a single value.

8. B+Trees (Used in Databases)

- Balanced, Multi-way Trees.
- Handles large disk-based datasets efficiently.
- Search time remains O(log n).

Relational Databases & ACID Properties

9. Benefits of Relational Databases

- Standard Model & SQL Querying.
- ACID Compliance:
 - o **Atomicity**: All or nothing.
 - o Consistency: Maintains database integrity.

- o **Isolation**: Transactions don't interfere.
- Durability: Committed changes persist.

10. Transaction Processing

- Transaction: A sequence of CRUD operations treated as a single unit.
 - o **COMMIT**: All operations succeed.
 - ROLLBACK: Undo all changes if any operation fails.

11. Transaction Anomalies

- 1. **Dirty Read**: A transaction reads uncommitted data.
- 2. Non-Repeatable Read: Repeating a query gives different results.
- Phantom Reads: A transaction sees newly inserted/deleted rows from another transaction.

12. Example - Bank Transfer Transaction

```
DELIMITER //
CREATE PROCEDURE transfer(sender_id INT, receiver_id INT, amount
DECIMAL(10,2))
BEGIN
    START TRANSACTION;
    UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - amount WHERE account_id =
sender_id;
    UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + amount WHERE account_id =
receiver_id:
    IF (SELECT balance FROM accounts WHERE account_id = sender_id) < 0</pre>
THEN
        ROLLBACK;
    ELSE
        COMMIT;
    END IF;
END //
DELIMITER ;
```

Scaling and Distributed Systems

13. Issues with Relational Databases

- Schema evolution can be difficult.
- Joins are expensive.
- Scaling challenges:
 - Vertical Scaling (scale-up) → Expensive.
 - Horizontal Scaling (scale-out) → Requires distributed data.

14. Distributed Storage Models

- Replication: Data copied across multiple nodes.
- Sharding: Splitting data across multiple nodes.
- Partitioning: Dividing data to optimize performance.

15. CAP Theorem

- Consistency (Every read gets the latest write).
- Availability (Every request gets a response).
- Partition Tolerance (Works despite network failures).
- Trade-offs:
 - **CA** (Consistent & Available): Not Partition Tolerant.
 - o **CP** (Consistent & Partition Tolerant): Not Always Available.
 - AP (Available & Partition Tolerant): Eventual Consistency.

16. NoSQL Databases

- When to use?
 - o When schema flexibility is needed.
 - When scalability matters.
 - o For real-time, high-performance applications.

Experimental Methodology

- Measuring Database Performance:
 - o Memory/CPU efficiency.
 - Indexing techniques.
 - Search and retrieval speeds.
 - o Comparing AVL Trees, B+Trees, and Hash Indexes.

This summary covers key concepts from database searching, indexing, ACID transactions, distributed systems, and the CAP theorem. Let me know if you need specific details

NoSQL & Key-Value Databases (KV DBs)

Distributed Databases and ACID - Pessimistic Concurrency

- ACID Transactions focus on data safety and follow a pessimistic concurrency model.
 - Assumes transactions must protect themselves from others (locks).
 - Uses read and write locks to prevent conflicts.
 - Example: Write Lock is like borrowing a book from a library—if you have it, no one else can.

Optimistic Concurrency

- Transactions do not lock data during reads or writes.
- Assumes conflicts are unlikely but handles them if they occur.
- Uses timestamps and version numbers to detect changes before committing transactions.
- Works well for low-conflict systems (e.g., backups, analytical DBs).
- High-conflict systems may require pessimistic locking.

NoSQL Overview

- Originally used in 1998 to describe a relational DB without SQL.
- Modern interpretation: "Not Only SQL".
- Often associated with non-relational databases, designed to handle unstructured, web-based data.

CAP Theorem

You can have 2 out of 3:

- 1. **Consistency (C)** Every user has the same data at any time.
- 2. **Availability (A)** System remains operational during failure.
- 3. **Partition Tolerance (P)** Operates despite network failures.

Different combinations:

- CA (Consistency + Availability): Always provides latest data but cannot tolerate network partitions.
- CP (Consistency + Partition Tolerance): Data is always latest, but some requests may
 fail
- AP (Availability + Partition Tolerance): Always available, but may return outdated data.

BASE Model (Alternative to ACID for Distributed Systems)

- 1. **Basically Available** System is available, but responses may be unreliable.
- 2. **Soft State** State can change over time, even without input (due to eventual consistency).
- 3. **Eventual Consistency** System eventually reaches consistency once all writes complete.

NoSQL Database Categories

- 1. Key-Value Stores
- 2. Document Databases
- 3. Columnar Databases
- 4. Graph Databases
- 5. Vector Databases

Key-Value Databases (KV DBs)

Core Principles

- **Simplicity:** Only key-value pairs, no complex relations.
- **Speed:** O(1) lookup time (uses hash tables).
- Scalability: Easy horizontal scaling.

Use Cases

- 1. EDA & Experimentation Results Store
- 2. **Feature Store:** Fast feature retrieval for ML.
- 3. **Model Monitoring:** Real-time tracking of ML models.
- 4. Session Storage: Fast retrieval of user session data.
- 5. User Profiles & Preferences
- 6. Shopping Cart Data
- 7. Caching Layer (in front of disk-based DBs).

Redis - A Key-Value Store

- Redis (Remote Dictionary Server)
- Open-source, in-memory database.
- Supports:
 - Key-Value store.
 - o Graph, Spatial, Full-Text Search, Time-Series data.
- Fast performance (>100,000 SET operations/sec).
- Durability options:
 - Snapshot to disk.
 - Append-only file (AOF) for logging changes.

Redis Data Types

- 1. Strings
- 2. Lists (linked lists)
- 3. **Sets** (unique values)
- 4. Sorted Sets
- 5. **Hashes** (key-value mapping)
- 6. Geospatial Data
- 7. JSON (tree-structured for fast access)

Setting Up Redis

1. Docker Deployment

- o Run Redis via Docker.
- o Port **6379** (default).
- Security note: Avoid exposing Redis port in production.

2. Connecting with DataGrip

- Create a new data source.
- o Use port **6379**.
- o Test connection.

3. Redis Database Basics

- **16 default databases** (numbered 0–15).
- No custom database names.

Redis Commands

Basic Key-Value Commands

sh

CopyEdit

SET user:1 "John Doe"

GET user:1

EXISTS user:1

DEL user:1

KEYS user*

Increment/Decrement

sh

CopyEdit

INCR counter

DECR counter

INCRBY counter 10

DECRBY counter 5

Hashes

sh

CopyEdit

```
HSET bike:1 model "Demios" brand "Ergonom" price 1971
HGET bike: 1 model
HGETALL bike:1
```

Lists (Stacks & Queues)

sh

CopyEdit

LPUSH tasks "task1" RPUSH tasks "task2" LPOP tasks RPOP tasks

Sets (Unique Elements & Operations)

sh

CopyEdit

SADD ds4300 "Mark" SADD ds4300 "Sam" SCARD ds4300 SINTER ds4300 cs3200 # Intersection SDIFF ds4300 cs3200 # Difference

Redis with Python

Installation

sh

CopyEdit

pip install redis

Connecting to Redis

python CopyEdit import redis

```
redis_client = redis.Redis(host='localhost', port=6379, db=2,
decode_responses=True)
```

Working with Strings

```
python
CopyEdit
redis_client.set('clicks', 0)
redis_client.incr('clicks')
print(redis_client.get('clicks')) # Output: 1
```

Using Hashes

```
python
CopyEdit
redis_client.hset('user:1001', mapping={'name': 'Alice', 'age': '30'})
print(redis_client.hgetall('user:1001'))
```

Using Pipelines (Batch Commands)

```
python
CopyEdit
pipe = redis_client.pipeline()
pipe.set("seat:1", "occupied").set("seat:2", "free")
pipe.execute()
```

Redis in Data Science & Machine Learning

- Used for Feature Stores (fast ML feature retrieval).
- Session storage for real-time inference.
- Supports caching and model monitoring.

1. Redis-py Overview

- **Redis-py** is the standard Python client for Redis.
- It is maintained by the Redis Company.

• GitHub repository: <u>redis/redis-py</u>.

```
Installation:
nginx
CopyEdit
pip install redis
```

•

2. Connecting to Redis Server

- For a **Docker deployment**, the host could be localhost or 127.0.0.1.
- Port is likely 6379 (default).
- Database index (db) ranges from 0 to 15.
- **decode_responses=True** converts byte responses to strings.

Example connection code:

```
python
CopyEdit
import redis
redis_client = redis.Redis(host='localhost', port=6379, db=2,
decode_responses=True)
```

3. Redis Commands Overview

- A full list of Redis commands is available at:
 - Redis command documentation
 - Redis-py documentation
- Commands are categorized based on data structures: **Strings**, **Lists**, **Hashes**, **Pipelines**, etc.

4. String Commands

Basic Usage:

```
python
CopyEdit
r.set('clickCount:/abc', 0)
val = r.get('clickCount:/abc')
r.incr('clickCount:/abc')
print(f'click count = {r.get("clickCount:/abc")}')
```

•

Multiple Set/Get:

```
python
CopyEdit
redis_client.mset({'key1': 'val1', 'key2': 'val2', 'key3': 'val3'})
print(redis_client.mget('key1', 'key2', 'key3')) # ['val1', 'val2', 'val3']
```

- •
- Common string commands: set(), mset(), get(), mget(), incr(), decr(), strlen(), append(), etc.

5. List Commands

Creating a List:

```
python
```

CopyEdit

```
redis_client.rpush('names', 'mark', 'sam', 'nick')
print(redis_client.lrange('names', 0, -1)) # ['mark', 'sam', 'nick']
```

- •
- Common list commands: lpush(), rpush(), lpop(), rpop(), lrange(), llen(), etc.

6. Hash Commands

Creating a Hash:

```
python
```

CopyEdit

```
redis_client.hset('user-session:123',
    mapping={'first': 'Sam', 'last': 'Uelle', 'company': 'Redis',
'age': 30})
print(redis_client.hgetall('user-session:123'))
```

- •
- Common hash commands: hset(), hget(), hgetall(), hkeys(), hdel(), hexists(), etc.

7. Redis Pipelines

Pipelines reduce network overhead by batching commands.

Example Usage:

```
python
CopyEdit
r = redis.Redis(decode_responses=True)
pipe = r.pipeline()

for i in range(5):
    pipe.set(f"seat:{i}", f"#{i}")

set_5_result = pipe.execute()
print(set_5_result) # [True, True, True, True]

pipe = r.pipeline()
get_3_result =
pipe.get("seat:0").get("seat:3").get("seat:4").execute()
print(get_3_result) # ['#0', '#3', '#4']
```

8. Redis in Data Science & Machine Learning

- Redis is used in ML applications, such as feature stores.
- Reference sources:
 - Feature Stores Explained
 - o Redis in MLOps

Introduction to the Graph Data Model

What is a Graph Database?

- A data model based on the graph data structure
- Composed of nodes and edges
 - Edges connect nodes

- Each node and edge is uniquely identified
- Both nodes and edges can contain properties (e.g., name, occupation)
- Supports queries based on graph-oriented operations, such as:
 - Traversals
 - Shortest path
 - Many others

Where do Graphs Show Up?

- Social Networks
 - Examples: Instagram, modeling social interactions in psychology and sociology
- The Web
 - A large graph of "pages" (nodes) connected by hyperlinks (edges)
- Chemical and Biological Data
 - Systems biology, genetics, chemistry (interaction relationships)

Basics of Graphs and Graph Theory

What is a Graph?

A Labeled Property Graph consists of:

- Nodes (Vertices)
- Relationships (Edges)
- Labels to classify nodes into groups
- Properties (key-value pairs) on nodes and relationships
- Nodes can exist without relationships, but edges must connect nodes

Example Graph Model

Node Labels:

- Person
- Car

Relationship Types:

- Drives
- Owns

- Lives_with
- Married_to

Properties:

Key-value pairs attached to nodes and edges

Paths in Graphs

- A path is an ordered sequence of nodes connected by edges, without repetition
- Example of a valid path:

• Invalid path (repetition of nodes):

Flavors of Graphs

- 1. Connected vs. Disconnected
 - o Connected: There is a path between any two nodes
 - Disconnected: Some nodes cannot be reached from others
- 2. Weighted vs. Unweighted
 - Weighted: Edges have a weight property (useful for pathfinding)
 - Unweighted: No weight values on edges
- 3. Directed vs. Undirected
 - o **Directed:** Relationships define a start and end node
 - Undirected: No direction in edges
- 4. Cyclic vs. Acyclic
 - Cyclic: Contains at least one cycle
 - Acyclic: No cycles exist
- 5. Sparse vs. Dense
 - **Sparse:** Few edges compared to the number of nodes
 - o **Dense:** Many edges compared to the number of nodes
- 6. Trees

Types of Graph Algorithms

Pathfinding Algorithms

- Finding the **shortest path** between two nodes
- "Shortest" can mean:
 - Fewest edges
 - Lowest total weight
- Examples:
 - Minimum Spanning Tree
 - Cycle Detection
 - Max/Min Flow

BFS vs. DFS

- Breadth-First Search (BFS): Explores level by level
- Depth-First Search (DFS): Explores as deep as possible before backtracking

Shortest Path Algorithms

- **Dijkstra's Algorithm** (for graphs with positive weights)
- A Algorithm* (heuristic-based shortest path)

Centrality & Community Detection

- Centrality: Determines which nodes are "more important"
 - Example: Identifying social media influencers
- Community Detection:
 - Finds clusters or partitions within a graph

Famous Graph Algorithms

- Dijkstra's Algorithm: Finds the shortest path in a positively weighted graph
- A Algorithm:* Uses heuristics for more efficient shortest path finding
- PageRank: Measures node importance based on incoming connections

Graph Databases - Neo4j

- A graph database system that supports transactional and analytical processing
- A type of NoSQL database
- **Schema-optional** (can impose one but not required)
- Supports various indexing methods
- ACID-compliant
- Can be distributed across multiple nodes
- Other graph databases:
 - Microsoft CosmosDB
 - Amazon Neptune

Neo4j

Introduction to Neo4j

- A Graph Database System that supports both transactional and analytical processing of graph-based data.
- A relatively new class of NoSQL databases.
- Considered **schema-optional** (a schema can be imposed).
- Supports various types of indexing.
- ACID compliant.
- Supports distributed computing.
- Similar databases: Microsoft CosmosDB, Amazon Neptune.

Neo4j Query Language and Plugins

Cypher

- Neo4j's graph query language, created in **2011**.
- Aims to be an **SQL-equivalent** language for graph databases.

Provides a visual way of matching patterns and relationships:

scss

CopyEdit

(nodes)-[:CONNECT_TO]->(otherNodes)

•

APOC Plugin (Awesome Procedures on Cypher)

• An add-on library that provides **hundreds of procedures and functions**.

Graph Data Science Plugin

Provides efficient implementations of common graph algorithms.

Neo4j in Docker Compose

- **Docker Compose** allows multi-container management.
- The setup is **declarative**, using a docker-compose.yaml file.
- Defines:
 - Services
 - Volumes
 - o **Networks**, etc.
- Provides a consistent method for producing **identical environments**.
- Uses command-line interaction.

Example docker-compose.yaml

```
yaml
CopyEdit
services:
  neo4j:
    container_name: neo4j
    image: neo4j:latest
    ports:
      - 7474:7474
      - 7687:7687
    environment:
      - NEO4J_AUTH=neo4j/${NEO4J_PASSWORD}
      - NEO4J_apoc_export_file_enabled=true
      - NEO4J_apoc_import_file_enabled=true
      - NEO4J_apoc_import_file_use__neo4j__config=true
      - NEO4J_PLUGINS=["apoc", "graph-data-science"]
    volumes:
      - ./neo4j_db/data:/data
      - ./neo4j_db/logs:/logs
      - ./neo4j_db/import:/var/lib/neo4j/import
      - ./neo4j_db/plugins:/plugins
```

Important: Never store **secrets** in the Docker Compose file; use .env files.

Environment Variables with .env Files

- .env files store a collection of environment variables.
- Useful for managing different environments (.env.local, .env.dev, .env.prod).

Example:

```
ini
```

CopyEdit

NEO4J_PASSWORD=abc123!!!

Docker Compose Commands

Test if you have Docker CLI properly installed:

```
CSS
```

CopyEdit

docker --version

Major commands:

```
sql
```

CopyEdit

```
docker compose up
docker compose up -d
docker compose down
docker compose start
docker compose stop
docker compose build
docker compose build --no-cache
```

Accessing Neo4j

Open the **Neo4j Browser** at: makefile

CopyEdit

localhost:7474

•

• Log in to manage the database.

Inserting Data by Creating Nodes

```
cypher
CopyEdit
CREATE (:User {name: "Alice", birthPlace: "Paris"})
CREATE (:User {name: "Bob", birthPlace: "London"})
CREATE (:User {name: "Carol", birthPlace: "London"})
CREATE (:User {name: "Dave", birthPlace: "London"})
CREATE (:User {name: "Eve", birthPlace: "Rome"})
```

Adding an Edge (Relationship)

```
cypher
CopyEdit
MATCH (alice:User {name:"Alice"})
MATCH (bob:User {name: "Bob"})
CREATE (alice)-[:KNOWS {since: "2022-12-01"}]->(bob)
```

Note: Relationships in Neo4j are directed.

Querying Data

Find all users born in London:

```
cypher
CopyEdit
MATCH (usr:User {birthPlace: "London"})
RETURN usr.name, usr.birthPlace
```

Importing Data from CSV

1. Download Dataset

```
Clone the repo:
arduino
CopyEdit
https://github.com/PacktPublishing/Graph-Data-Science-with-Neo4j
Navigate to Chapter02/data, unzip netflix.zip, and move netflix_titles.csv to:
CopyEdit
neo4j_db/neo4j_db/import
  2. Basic Data Import
cypher
CopyEdit
LOAD CSV WITH HEADERS
FROM 'file:///netflix_titles.csv' AS line
CREATE(:Movie {
    id: line.show_id,
    title: line.title,
    releaseYear: line.release_year
  }
```

General CSV Loading Syntax

```
cypher
CopyEdit
LOAD CSV
[WITH HEADERS]
FROM 'file:///file_in_import_folder.csv'
AS line
```

```
[FIELDTERMINATOR ',']
// Perform operations on 'line'
```

Handling Duplicate Nodes

Naïve Approach (Duplicates Present)

```
cypher
CopyEdit
LOAD CSV WITH HEADERS
FROM 'file:///netflix_titles.csv' AS line
WITH split(line.director, ",") AS directors_list
UNWIND directors_list AS director_name
CREATE (:Person {name: trim(director_name)})
```

Problem: Creates duplicate nodes when a director directs multiple movies.

Improved Approach (Avoiding Duplicates)

```
cypher
CopyEdit
MATCH (p:Person) DELETE p

LOAD CSV WITH HEADERS
FROM 'file:///netflix_titles.csv' AS line
WITH split(line.director, ",") AS directors_list
UNWIND directors_list AS director_name
MERGE (:Person {name: director_name})
```

Adding Relationships (Edges)

```
cypher
CopyEdit
LOAD CSV WITH HEADERS
FROM 'file:///netflix_titles.csv' AS line
MATCH (m:Movie {id: line.show_id})
WITH m, split(line.director, ",") AS directors_list
```

```
UNWIND directors_list AS director_name
MATCH (p:Person {name: director_name})
CREATE (p)-[:DIRECTED]->(m)
```

Verifying Data

To check if a specific movie exists in the database:

```
cypher
CopyEdit
MATCH (m:Movie {title: "Ray"})<-[:DIRECTED]-(p:Person)
RETURN m, p</pre>
```