BOB36DBS, BD6B36DBS: Database Systems

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Lecture 2

Relational Model

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Lecture Outline

- Logical database models
 - Basic overview
- Model-Driven Development
- Relational model
 - Description and features
 - Transformation of ER / UML conceptual schemas

Logical Database Models

Layers of Database Modeling

Abstraction



 Models a part of the structured real world relevant for applications built on top of our database

Logical layer

- Specifies how conceptual components (i.e. entity types, relationship types, and their characteristics) are represented in logical data structures that are interpretable by machines
- Physical layer
 - Specifies how logical database structures are implemented in a specific technical environment

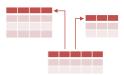


Implementation

Logical Layer

- What are these logical structures?
 - Formally...
 - Sets, relations, functions, graphs, trees, ...
 - I.e. traditional and well-defined mathematical structures
 - Or in a more friendly way...
 - Tables, rows, columns, ...
 - Objects, pointers, ...
 - Collections, ...
 - ..

- Models based on tables
 - Structure
 - Rows for entities
 - Columns for attributes
 - Operations
 - Selection, projection, join, ...
 - Examples
 - Relational model
 - ... and various derived table models introduced by:
 - SQL (as it is standardized)
 - · and particular implementations like Oracle, MySQL, ...



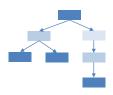
- Models based on objects
 - Structure
 - Objects with attributes
 - Pointers between objects
 - Motivation
 - Object-oriented programming (OOP)
 - Encapsulation, inheritance, ...
 - Operations
 - Navigation



- Models based on graphs
 - Structure
 - Vertices, edges, attributes
 - Operations
 - Traversals, pattern matching, graph algorithms
 - Examples
 - Network model (one of the very first database models)
 - Resource Description Framework (RDF)
 - Neo4j, InfiniteGraph, OrientDB, FlockDB, ...



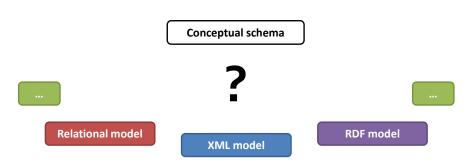
- Models based on trees
 - Structure
 - Vertices with attributes
 - Edges between vertices
 - Motivation
 - Hierarchies, categorization, semi-structured data
 - Examples
 - Hierarchical model (one of the very first database models)
 - XML documents
 - JSON documents



Overview of Logical Models

- There are plenty of (different / similar) models
 - The previous overview was intended just as an insight into some of the basic ideas and models
 - Hierarchical, network, relational, object, objectrelational, XML, key-value, document-oriented, graph, ...
- Why so many of them?
 - Different models are suitable in different situations
 - Not everything is (yet) standardized, proprietary approaches or extensions often exist

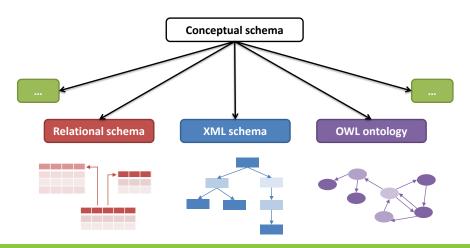
Step 1: Selection of the right logical model



- Note that...
 - Relational model is not always the best solution

- Step 1: Selection of the right logical model
 - According to...
 - Data characteristics
 - True nature of real-world entities and their relationships
 - Query possibilities
 - Available access patterns, expressive power, ...
 - Intended usage
 - Storage (JSON data in document-oriented databases, ...)
 - Exchange (XML documents sent by Web Service, ...)
 - · Publication (RDF triples forming the Web of Data, ...)
 - ..
 - Identified requirements

Step 2: Creation of a logical schema



- Step 2: Creation of a logical schema
 - Goal
 - Transformation of a conceptual schema to a logical one
 - Real-world applications often need multiple schemas
 - Focus on different parts of the real world
 - Serve different components of the system
 - Even expressed in different logical models
 - Challenge: can this be achieved automatically?
 - · Or at least semi-automatically?
 - Answer: Model-Driven Development

Model-Driven Development (MDD)

Model-Driven Development

MDD

- Software development approach
 - Executable schemas instead of executable code
 - I.e. schemas that can be automatically (or at least semiautomatically) converted to executable code
 - Unfortunately, just in theory... recent ideas, not yet fully applicable in practice today (lack of suitable tools)
- MDD principles can be used for database modeling as well

Terminology

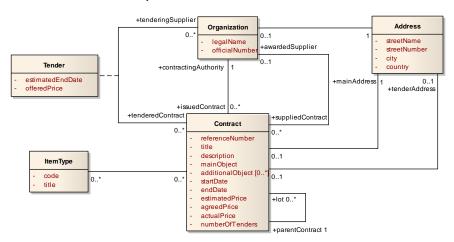
- Levels of abstraction
 - Platform-Independent Level
 - Hides particular platform-specific details
 - Platform-Specific Level
 - Maps the conceptual schema (or its part) to a given logical model
 - Adds platform-specific details
 - Code Level
 - Expresses the schema in a selected machine-interpretable logical language
 - SQL, XML Schema, OWL, ...



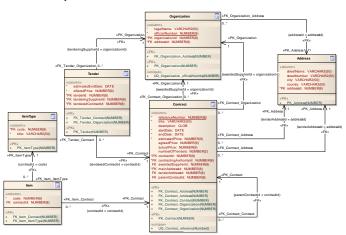


- Information System for Public Procurement
 - http://www.isvzus.cz/
 - There are several logical models used:
 - Relational data model
 - for data storage
 - XML data model
 - for exchanging data with information systems of public authorities which issue public contracts
 - RDF data model
 - for publishing data on the Web of Linked Data in a machinereadable form (at least this is a goal...)

Platform-independent schema



Platform-specific schema: relational model

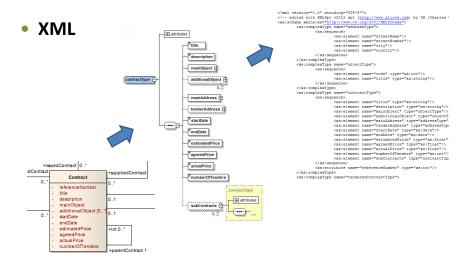


- Platform-specific schema: relational model
 - Notes to the previous UML diagram
 - It is a UML class diagram
 - But enhanced with features for modeling logical schemas in (object-)relational model
 - Stereotypes allow us to add specific semantics to basic constructs (class, attribute, association), e.g.,
 - <<table>> specifies that a class represents a table
 - <<PK>> specifies that an attribute models a primary key
 - <<FK>> specifies that an attribute/association models a foreign key
 - etc.

Code level: SQL (snippet)

```
CREATE TABLE Contract (
  referenceNumber NUMBER(8) NOT NULL,
  title VARCHAR2(50) NOT NULL,
  description CLOB,
  startDate DATE NOT NULL,
  endDate DATE NOT NULL,
  estimatedPrice NUMBER(9) NOT NULL,
);
ALTER TABLE Contract ADD CONSTRAINT PK Contract
  PRIMARY KEY (contractId);
ALTER TABLE Contract ADD CONSTRAINT FK Contract Address
  FOREIGN KEY (mainAddressId) REFERENCES Address (addressId);
CREATE TABLE Organization (...);
```

- Code level: SQL (snippet)
 - The previous code was generated fully automatically
 - from a platform-specific diagram
 - It has to contain all the necessary information
 - using a CASE tool (Computer-Aided Software Engineering)
 - Which can detect errors and
 - · helps with the specification



Relational model

 Allows to store entities, relationships, and their attributes in relations

- Founded by E. F. Codd in 1970
- Informally...
 - Table = collection of rows, each row represents one entity, values of attributes are stored in columns
 - Tables are more intuitive, but conceal important mathematical background

- Definitions and terminology
 - Schema of a relation
 - Description of a relational structure (everything except data)
 - $S(A_1:T_1, A_2:T_2, \ldots, A_n:T_n)$
 - S is a schema name
 - A_i are attribute names and T_i their types (attribute domains)
 - Specification of types is often omitted
 - Example:
 - Person (personalId, firstName, lastName)
 - Schema of a relational database
 - Set of relation schemas (+ integrity constraints, ...)

- Definitions and terminology for data
 - Relation
 - Subset of the Cartesian product of attribute domains T_i
 - I.e. relation is a set
 - Items are called tuples
 - Relational database
 - Set of relations

- Basic requirements (or consequences?)
 - Atomicity of attributes
 - Only simple types can be used for domains of attributes
 - Uniqueness of tuples
 - Relation is a set, and so two identical tuples cannot exist
 - Undefined order
 - Relation is a set, and so tuples are not mutually ordered
 - Completeness of values
 - There are no holes in tuples, i.e. all values are specified
 - However, special NULL values (well-known from relational databases) can be added to attribute domains

Integrity Constraints

Identification

- Every tuple is identified by one or more attributes
- Superkey = set of such attributes
 - Trivial and special example: all the relation attributes
- Key = superkey with a minimal number of attributes
 - I.e. no attribute can be removed so that the identification ability would still be preserved
 - Multiple keys may exist in one relation
 - They even do not need to have the same number of attributes
 - Notation: keys are underlined
 - Relation(Key, CompositeKeyPart1, CompositeKeyPart2, ...)
 - Note the difference between simple and composite keys

Integrity Constraints

Referential integrity

- Foreign key = set of attributes of the referencing relation which corresponds to a (super)key of the referenced relation
 - It is usually not a (super)key in the referencing relation
 - Notation
 - ReferencingTable.foreignKey ⊆ ReferencedTable.Key
 - foreignKey ⊆ ReferencedTable.Key

Sample Relational Database

Schema

```
Course(Code, Name, ...)
Schedule(Id, Event, Day, Time, ...), Event ⊆ Course.Code
```

Data

Id	Event	Day	Time		
1	A7B36DBS	THU	11:00		
2	A7B36DBS	THU	12:45	Cod	_
3	A7B36DBS	THU	14:30		
4	A7B36XML	FRI	09:15	A7B36	
				A7B36	ΧM
				A7B36	PSI

Code	Name	
A7B36DBS	Database systems	
A7B36XML	XML technologies	
A7B36PSI	Computer networks	
<u> </u>		

Relations vs. Tables

- Tables
 - Table header ~ relation schema
 - Row ~ tuple
 - Column ~ attribute
- However...
 - Tables are not sets, and so...
 - there can be duplicate rows in tables
 - rows in tables can be ordered
 - I.e. SQL and existing RDBMS do not (always) follow the formal relational model strictly

Object vs. (Object-)Relational Model

Relational model

- Data stored in flat tables
- Suitable for data-intensive batch operations

Object model

- Data stored as graphs of objects
- Suitable for individual navigational access to entities

Object-Relational model

- Relational model enriched by object elements
 - Attributes may be of complex data types
 - Methods can be defined on data types as well



Conceptual Schema Transformation

Basic idea

- What we have
 - ER: entity types, attributes, identifiers, relationship types,
 ISA hierarchies
 - UML: classes, attributes, associations
- What we need
 - Schemas of relations with attributes, keys, and foreign keys
- How to do it
 - Classes with attributes → relation schemas
 - Associations → separate relation schemas or together with classes (depending on cardinalities...)

Classes

- Class →
 - Separate table
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)

Person - personalNumber - address - age

- Artificial keys
 - Artificially added integer identifiers
 - with no correspondence in the real world
 - but with several efficiency and also design advantages
 - usually automatically generated and assigned
 - Person(personId, personNumber, address, age)

Attributes

Multivalued attribute →



- Separate table
 - Person(personalNumber)
 Phone(personalNumber, phone)
 Phone.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber

Attributes

Composite attribute →



- Separate table
 - Person(personalNumber)
 Address(personalNumber, street, city, country)
 Address.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
- Sub-attributes can also be inlined
 - But only in case of (1,1) cardinality
 - Person(personNumber, street, city, country)

Multiplicity (1,1):(1,1) →



- Three tables (basic approach)
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 Ownership(personalNumber, serialNumber)
 Ownership.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Ownership.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber

Multiplicity (1,1):(1,1) →



- Single table
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age, serialNumber, color)

Multiplicity (1,1):(0,1) →



- Two tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age, serialNumber)
 Person.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 - Why not just 1 table?
 - Because a mobile phone can exist independently of a person

Multiplicity (0,1):(0,1) →



- Three tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 Ownership(personalNumber, serialNumber)
 Ownership.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Ownership.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber
 - Note that a personal number and serial number are both independent keys in the Ownership table

Multiplicity (1,n)/(0,n):(1,1) →



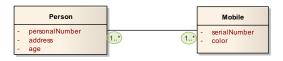
- Two tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color, personalNumber)
 Mobile.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 - Why a personal number is not a key in the Mobile table?
 - Because a person can own more mobile phones

Multiplicity (1,n)/(0,n):(0,1) →



- Three tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 Ownership(personalNumber, serialNumber)
 Ownership.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Ownership.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber
 - Why a personal number is not a key in the Ownership table?
 - Because a person can own more mobile phones

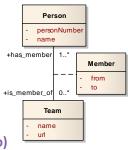
Multiplicity (1,n)/(0,n):(1,n)/(0,n) →



- Three tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 Ownership(personalNumber, serialNumber)
 Ownership.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Ownership.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber
 - Note that there is a composite key in the Ownership table

Attributes of Associations

- Attribute of an association →
 - Stored together with a given association table
 - Person(personNumber, name)
 Team(name, url)
 Member(personNumber, name, from, to)
 Member.personNumber ⊆ Person.personNumber
 Member.name ⊆ Team.name
 - Multivalued and composite attributes are transformed analogously to attributes of ordinary classes

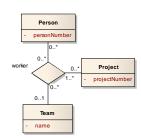


General Associations

- N-ary association →
 - Universal solution:
 N tables for classes +
 1 association table
 - Person(<u>personNumber</u>)
 Project(<u>projectNumber</u>)
 Team(name)

Worker(personNumber, projectNumber, name)
Worker.personNumber ⊆ Person.personNumber
Worker.projectNumber ⊆ Project.projectNumber
Worker.name ⊆ Team.name

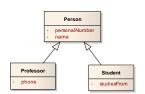
Less tables? Yes, in case of nice (1,1) cardinalities...



Hierarchies

ISA hierarchy →

- Universal solution: separate table for each type with specific attributes only
 - Person(personalNumber, name)
 Professor(personalNumber, phone)
 Student(personalNumber, studiesFrom)
 Professor.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Student.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 - Applicable in any case (w.r.t. covering / overlap constraints)
 - Pros: flexibility (when attributes are altered)
 - Cons: joins (when full data is reconstructed)



Hierarchies

ISA hierarchy →

- Only one table for a hierarchy source
 - Person(personalNumber, name, phone, studiesFrom, type)
 - Universal once again, but not always suitable
 - Types of instances are distinguished by an artificial attribute
 - » Enumeration or event a set depending on the overlap constraint
 - Pros: no joins
 - Cons: NULL values required (and so it is not a nice solution)

Hierarchies

- ISA hierarchy →
 - Separate table for each leaf type
 - Professor(<u>personalNumber</u>, <u>name</u>, phone)
 Student(<u>personalNumber</u>, <u>name</u>, studiesFrom)
 - This solution is **not always applicable**
 - In particular when the covering constraint is false
 - Pros: no joins
 - Cons:
 - Redundancies (when the overlap constraint is false)
 - Integrity considerations (uniqueness of a personal number)

Weak Entity Types

Weak entity type →

- Separate table
 - Institution(<u>name</u>)
 Team(<u>code</u>, <u>name</u>)
 - Team.name ⊆ Institution.name
 - Recall that the cardinality must always be (1,1)
 - Key of the weak entity type involves also a key (any when more available) from the entity type it depends on

