Database Design and Relationships

1. Database Design Principles

Best Practices for Efficient and Scalable Database Schemas

1. Understand the Requirements

Real-Life Example:

- Entities:
 - Books (attributes: Title, Author, ISBN, Price, Genre)
 - Customers (attributes: Name, Email, Address, Phone)
 - Orders (attributes: OrderID, OrderDate, CustomerID)
 - OrderDetails (attributes: OrderID, BookID, Quantity)
- Relationships:
 - A customer can place multiple orders.
 - Each order can contain multiple books.

2. Normalization

Normalization: The Story of "Café Delight"

Imagine you are opening a new café called **Café Delight**. You want to use a database to track your orders, customers, and menu items. When you first design the database, it's a bit chaotic. Let's see how normalization can help us organize things.

1NF (First Normal Form): "No Messy Tables Allowed"

The Problem: You start with a table that looks like this:

OrderID	CustomerName	Menultems	Quantities
1	Alice	Coffee, Croissant	1, 2
2	Bob	Sandwich, Orange Juice	1, 1

- The MenuItems and Quantities columns have multiple values (e.g., "Coffee, Croissant" and "1, 2").
- This format is messy and hard to query.

The Rule: In 1NF, each column must contain atomic (indivisible) values.

Solution: Split the table so that each piece of data is in its own row:

OrderID	CustomerName	Menultem	Quantity
1	Alice	Coffee	1
1	Alice	Croissant	2
2	Bob	Sandwich	1
2	Bob	Orange Juice	1

Now each column contains only one value, and the table is in **1NF**.

2NF (Second Normal Form): "No Partial Dependencies"

The Problem: Your new table is much better, but it still has a problem. Let's say you extend it to include the price of each menu item:

OrderID	CustomerName	Menultem	Quantity	Price
1	Alice	Coffee	1	\$3.00
1	Alice	Croissant	2	\$2.50
2	Bob	Sandwich	1	\$5.00
2	Bob	Orange Juice	1	\$4.00

Here's the issue:

- The Price of a menuitem depends on the MenuItem, not the OrderID.
- If you update the price of "Coffee," you'd need to update it in multiple rows, increasing the chance of errors.

The Rule: In 2NF, all non-key attributes must depend on the entire primary key. (No partial dependencies!)

Solution: Break the table into two tables:

Break the table into two tables:

1. An Orders table that tracks orders and quantities:

OrderID	CustomerName	Menultem	Quantity
1	Alice	Coffee	1
1	Alice	Croissant	2
2	Bob	Sandwich	1
2	Bob	Orange Juice	1

2. A Menu table that tracks menu items and their prices:

Menultem	Price
Coffee	\$3.00
Croissant	\$2.50
Sandwich	\$5.00
Orange Juice	\$4.00

Now, the Price depends only on the MenuItem, and the table is in 2NF.

3NF (Third Normal Form): "No Transitive Dependencies"

The Problem: Your database is getting better, but there's still room for improvement. Let's say you add a column to track each customer's phone number:

OrderID	CustomerName	Menultem	Quantity	PhoneNumber
1	Alice	Coffee	1	123-456-7890
1	Alice	Croissant	2	123-456-7890
2	Bob	Sandwich	1	987-654-3210
2	Bob	Orange Juice	1	987-654-3210

Here's the issue:

- The PhoneNumber depends on the CustomerName, not directly on the OrderID.
- If Alice changes her phone number, you'd need to update it in multiple rows.

The Rule: In 3NF, there should be no transitive dependencies. (A non-key column should not depend on another non-key column.)

Solution: Split the table into three tables:

Split the table into three tables:

1. An Orders table:

OrderID	CustomerName	Menultem	Quantity
1	Alice	Coffee	1
1	Alice	Croissant	2
2	Bob	Sandwich	1
2	Bob	Orange Juice	1

2. A Menu table (unchanged):

Menultem	Price
Coffee	\$3.00
Croissant	\$2.50
Sandwich	\$5.00
Orange Juice	\$4.00

3. A Customers table:

CustomerName	PhoneNumber
Alice	123-456-7890
Bob	987-654-3210

Now, the PhoneNumber depends only on the CustomerName, and the table is in 3NF.

Conclusion

Through **Normalization**:

- 1NF ensures that data is organized into atomic values (no repeating groups).
- 2NF eliminates partial dependencies by splitting data into smaller, logically related tables.
- **3NF** removes transitive dependencies, ensuring every non-key column depends only on the primary key.

With a properly normalized database, **Café Delight** can now handle updates, queries, and maintenance efficiently without redundant data.

3. Denormalization

Real-Life Example:

For reporting purposes, you might combine Orders and Customers into a single denormalized view (e.g., "OrdersWithCustomerDetails") for faster queries, accepting some redundancy for performance.

4. Primary Keys

Real-Life Example:

- Books table:
 - Primary Key: BookID (surrogate key, auto-incremented).
- Avoid composite keys like combining ISBN and Author, as they make the table harder to manage.

5. Foreign Keys

Real-Life Example:

- Orders table:
 - CustomerID (foreign key referencing the Customers table).
- OrderDetails table:
 - OrderID (foreign key referencing Orders).
 - BookID (foreign key referencing Books).

6. Avoid Redundancy

Real-Life Example:

• Instead of storing the author's name repeatedly in the Books table, create an Authors table and reference it with AuthorID.

7. Data Types

Real-Life Example:

- Books table:
 - Price: Use DECIMAL(10,2) for monetary values.
 - Title: Use VARCHAR(255) for variable-length titles.
 - PublishedDate: Use DATE for clarity and comparison.

8. Constraints

Real-Life Example:

- Books table:
 - Price: Use CHECK (Price > 0) to ensure valid pricing.
 - Title: Use NOT NULL to ensure every book has a title.
 - ISBN: Use UNIQUE to prevent duplicate entries for the same book.
 - PublishedDate: Use a DEFAULT value for books with unknown publish dates.

2. ER Diagram Notations

Entity-Relationship (ER) Diagram: Visual representation of entities, attributes, and their relationships.

Key Components:

- Entities: Represented by rectangles (e.g., User, Product).
- Attributes: Represented by ovals connected to entities (e.g., UserName, Email).
- Relationships: Represented by diamonds showing how entities are related.
- Cardinality:
 - 1:1: A single entity instance relates to only one instance of another entity.
 - 1:N: A single entity instance relates to multiple instances of another entity.
 - N:M: Multiple instances of an entity relate to multiple instances of another entity.

3. Relationships

One-to-One (1:1)

- **Definition**: One record in a table is associated with exactly one record in another table.
- Example:
 - Tables: Users and UserProfiles
 - Schema:
 - Users: UserID (PK), UserName
 - UserProfiles: ProfileID (PK, FK), UserID, Bio
 - Implementation:

```
CREATE TABLE Users (
    UserID INT PRIMARY KEY,
    UserName VARCHAR(50)
);

CREATE TABLE UserProfiles (
    ProfileID INT PRIMARY KEY,
    UserID INT UNIQUE,
    Bio TEXT,
    FOREIGN KEY (UserID) REFERENCES Users(UserID)
);
```

One-to-Many (1:N)

- Definition: One record in a table is associated with multiple records in another table.
- Example:
 - Tables: Authors and Books
 - Schema:
 - Authors : AuthorID (PK), Name
 - Books: BookID (PK), Title, AuthorID (FK)
 - Implementation:

```
CREATE TABLE Authors (
   AuthorID INT PRIMARY KEY,
   Name VARCHAR(100)
);

CREATE TABLE Books (
   BookID INT PRIMARY KEY,
```

```
Title VARCHAR(100),
AuthorID INT,
FOREIGN KEY (AuthorID) REFERENCES Authors(AuthorID)
);
```

Many-to-Many (N:M)

- Definition: Multiple records in one table are associated with multiple records in another table.
- Example:

```
Tables: Students, Courses, and StudentCourses
```

- Schema:
 - Students: StudentID (PK), Name
 - Courses: CourseID (PK), Title
 - StudentCourses: StudentID (FK), CourseID (FK)
- Implementation:

```
CREATE TABLE Students (
   StudentID INT PRIMARY KEY,
   Name VARCHAR(100)
);

CREATE TABLE Courses (
   CourseID INT PRIMARY KEY,
   Title VARCHAR(100)
);

CREATE TABLE StudentCourses (
   StudentID INT,
   CourseID INT,
   PRIMARY KEY (StudentID, CourseID),
   FOREIGN KEY (StudentID) REFERENCES Students(StudentID),
   FOREIGN KEY (CourseID) REFERENCES Courses(CourseID)
);
```

4. Advanced Querying

Understanding and Implementing JOINs

• INNER JOIN:

- Combines rows from both tables where a match exists.
- Example:

```
SELECT Users.UserName, Orders.OrderID
FROM Users
INNER JOIN Orders ON Users.UserID = Orders.UserID;
```

LEFT JOIN:

- Retrieves all rows from the left table and matching rows from the right table.
- Example:

```
SELECT Users.UserName, Orders.OrderID
FROM Users
LEFT JOIN Orders ON Users.UserID = Orders.UserID;
```

RIGHT JOIN:

- Retrieves all rows from the right table and matching rows from the left table.
- Example:

```
SELECT Users.UserName, Orders.OrderID
FROM Users
RIGHT JOIN Orders ON Users.UserID = Orders.UserID;
```

5. Indexing

Techniques to Optimize Query Performance

1. What is an Index?

A data structure that speeds up the retrieval of rows by pointing to their locations.

2. Types of Indexes:

- Single-Column Index: Index on a single column.
- Composite Index: Index on multiple columns.

3. Creating an Index:

Syntax:

```
CREATE INDEX idx_column ON TableName(ColumnName);
```

4. Benefits:

- Faster SELECT queries.
- Optimized JOIN operations.

5. Trade-offs:

- Slower INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE operations.
- Requires additional storage.

6. Example:

```
CREATE INDEX idx_author_name ON Authors(Name);
```

7. EXPLAIN Keyword:

- Analyze query performance.
- Example:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM Books WHERE AuthorID = 1;
```