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## Unit 1: Introduction to DBMS and Data Models

### 1. What is a Database?

A database is an organized collection of related data stored electronically. Unlike a file system, DBMS reduces redundancy and provides better security and data sharing.

### 2. Define DBMS and its characteristics.

DBMS is software to store, retrieve, and manage data efficiently.

Features: Data independence, integrity, security, concurrency, and backup.

### 3. Three levels of data abstraction.

Physical (storage details), Logical (tables/relations), and View (user view).

### 4. What is Data Independence?

Ability to modify schema at one level without affecting the next.

Types: Logical and Physical.

### 5. Types of database users.

DBA, Application Programmers, End Users (naive, sophisticated, specialized).

### 6. Role of DBA.

Controls database design, access, security, backup, and performance.

### 7. Types of database models.

Hierarchical, Network, Relational, Object-Oriented, ER, and NoSQL models.

### 8. Logical vs Physical schema.

Logical – structure of data; Physical – storage details.

### 9. Components of DBMS architecture.

Query Processor, Storage Manager, Transaction Manager, DB Engine, Metadata.

### 10. Advantages/Disadvantages of DBMS.

✓ Centralized control, security, consistency.

✗ Costly, complex, and slower for small systems.

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## Unit 2: ER and Extended ER Model

### 1. Entity, Attribute, Relationship.

Entity – object (Student), Attribute – property (Name), Relationship – link (Enrolls).

## **2. Types of attributes.**

Simple, Composite, Single/Multivalued, Derived, Key attributes.

## **3. Strong vs Weak entity.**

Strong has its own key; Weak depends on another entity.

## **4. Types of relationships.**

One-to-One, One-to-Many, Many-to-Many.

## **5. Cardinality & Participation.**

Cardinality – number of entities in relation;

Participation – total or partial involvement.

## **6. ER Diagram.**

Graphical model showing entities and relationships (e.g., Library system).

## **7. Specialization & Generalization.**

Specialization – dividing entity; Generalization – combining entities.

## **8. Aggregation & Composition.**

Aggregation – “has-a” relationship; Composition – stronger ownership.

## **9. Mapping cardinality.**

Specifies how many entities participate in a relation.

## **10. ER to Relational model.**

Entities → Tables, Attributes → Columns, Relationships → Foreign keys.

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# **Unit 3: Relational Model and Relational Algebra**

## **1. Relational model.**

Stores data in tables (relations) with rows (tuples) and columns (attributes).

## **2. Keys.**

Super, Candidate, Primary, Foreign, Alternate — used to identify tuples.

## **3. Referential integrity.**

Ensures foreign key matches a primary key in another table.

## **4. Relational algebra.**

Set of operations to manipulate tables — SELECT, PROJECT, JOIN, etc.

## **5. Main operations.**

SELECT ( $\sigma$ ), PROJECT ( $\pi$ ), UNION, INTERSECTION, JOIN, CARTESIAN PRODUCT.

## **6. Theta join & Equi-join.**

Theta uses condition ( $<$ ,  $>$ ,  $=$ ); Equi-join uses only equality.

## **7. Cartesian Product vs Join.**

Cartesian combines all tuples; Join combines matching tuples only.

## **8. View.**

A virtual table created from queries; does not store data physically.

## **9. Tuple & Attribute.**

Tuple – row; Attribute – column in a relation.

## **10. NULL values.**

Represent missing/unknown data; handled using IS NULL or default values.

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# **Unit 4: SQL — Structured Query Language**

## **1. What is SQL?**

Language to create, query, and manage databases.

## **2. DDL, DML, DCL, TCL.**

DDL – structure; DML – data; DCL – control access; TCL – transactions.

## **3. Create/Alter Table.**

```
CREATE TABLE student(...);  
ALTER TABLE student ADD age INT;
```

## **4. Primary/Foreign Key.**

Primary – unique identifier; Foreign – references another table.

## **5. Salary > 50,000 query.**

```
SELECT * FROM employee WHERE salary > 50000;
```

## **6. Subquery.**

Query inside another query.

Example: `SELECT * FROM emp WHERE salary > (SELECT AVG(salary) FROM emp);`

## **7. Aggregate functions.**

SUM, AVG, MAX, MIN, COUNT.

## **8. GROUP BY & HAVING.**

GROUP BY groups rows; HAVING filters groups.

```
SELECT dept, AVG(sal) FROM emp GROUP BY dept HAVING AVG(sal)>50000;
```

## **9. View.**

```
CREATE VIEW high_salary AS SELECT * FROM emp WHERE sal>50000;
```

## **10. Trigger.**

Procedure that runs automatically on events (INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE).

**11. 2nd highest salary.**

```
SELECT MAX(salary) FROM emp WHERE salary < (SELECT MAX(salary) FROM emp);
```

**12. Prime check PL/SQL block.**

Loop from 2 to n/2; check divisibility.

**13. Views for security.**

Views hide sensitive columns from users.

**14. Normalization steps.**

Split large table into smaller ones to remove redundancy.

**15. Example of trigger/procedure.**

Trigger to log salary updates; Procedure to calculate bonus.

**16. Create student table.**

```
CREATE TABLE student(id INT PRIMARY KEY, name VARCHAR(20), age INT  
CHECK(age>0));
```

**17. JOIN example.**

```
SELECT s.name, c.course FROM student s JOIN course c ON s.cid=c.id;
```

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## Unit 5: Normalization and Functional Dependencies

**1. Functional dependency.**

If  $A \rightarrow B$ , B depends on A (e.g., RollNo  $\rightarrow$  Name).

**2. Need for normalization.**

Removes redundancy and anomalies.

**3. Types of anomalies.**

Insertion, Deletion, Update anomalies.

**4. 1NF, 2NF, 3NF.**

1NF – atomic values,

2NF – remove partial dependency,

3NF – remove transitive dependency.

**5. BCNF.**

Stronger than 3NF; each determinant is a candidate key.

**6. Decomposition.**

Breaking table into smaller relations; must be lossless and dependency-preserving.

**7. Multivalued dependency & 4NF.**

If  $A \twoheadrightarrow B$ , then B is multivalued; 4NF removes such dependencies.

**8. Denormalization.**

Combining tables to improve query performance.

**9. Redundancy effect.**

Increases storage and inconsistency chances.

**10. Convert to 3NF.**

Identify FDs → remove partial and transitive dependencies.

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## Unit 6: Transaction Management and Concurrency Control

**1. Transaction.**

A sequence of database operations as a single logical unit.

**2. ACID properties.**

Atomicity, Consistency, Isolation, Durability.

**3. States of transaction.**

Active → Partially Committed → Committed/Failed → Terminated.

**4. Concurrency control.**

Manages simultaneous transactions to avoid conflicts.

**5. Schedule & Serializability.**

Schedule – order of operations; Serializability – result same as serial execution.

**6. Deadlock.**

Two transactions wait for each other; prevented using timeouts or wait-die schemes.

**7. Two-Phase Locking (2PL).**

Growing phase (acquire locks), shrinking phase (release locks).

**8. Shared vs Exclusive lock.**

Shared – read only; Exclusive – read/write.

**9. Recovery techniques.**

Log-based, checkpoint-based recovery.

**10. Log-based recovery.**

Maintains log of all operations for undo/redo after failure.

**11. Transaction precautions.**

Use proper commit/rollback and locking mechanisms.

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## Unit 7: Advanced Topics (PL/SQL / Indexing / NoSQL)

### **1. PL/SQL.**

Procedural extension of SQL with loops, conditions, and blocks.

### **2. Structure of PL/SQL block.**

DECLARE → BEGIN → EXCEPTION → END;

### **3. Cursors.**

Pointers to query result sets. Types: Implicit and Explicit.

### **4. Indexing.**

Improves query speed by reducing data scans.

### **5. Types of indexes.**

Primary, Secondary, Clustered, Non-clustered.

### **6. B-tree & B+ tree.**

Balanced structures used for fast searching and indexing.

### **7. NoSQL databases.**

Non-relational; stores data as documents, key-value pairs (e.g., MongoDB).

### **8. Relational vs Non-relational.**

Relational – structured, fixed schema;

Non-relational – unstructured, flexible schema.

### **9. Stored Procedures.**

Predefined SQL code stored in database for reuse.

### **10. Exception Handling in PL/SQL.**

Handled using EXCEPTION block with WHEN others THEN ...

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