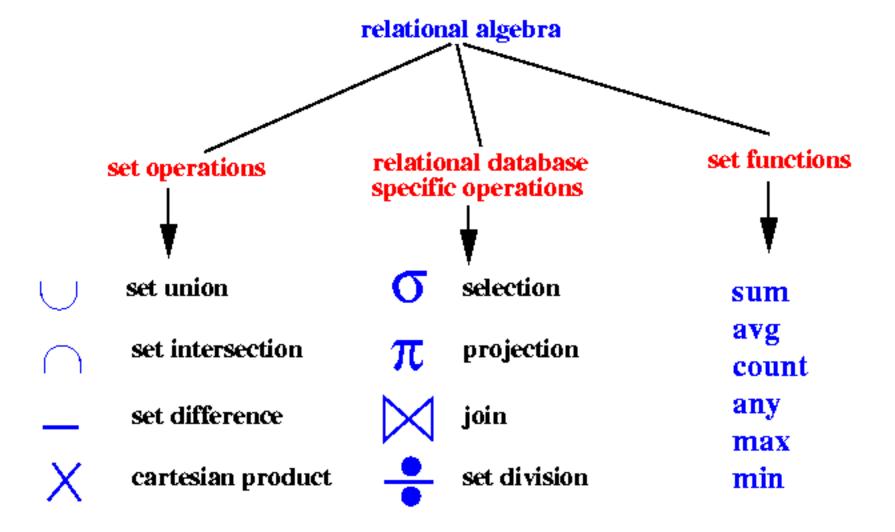
Fundamental Operators

Let r and s be relations with schemas R and S

union	$r \cup s = \{t \mid t \in r \lor t \in s\}$	
difference	r-s={t t∈r∧t∉s}	
cartesian_product	$r \times s = \{t \mid t = t_r t_s \text{ where } t_r \in r \land t_s \in s \}$	
selection	σ _P (r)	
projection	π _A (r)	

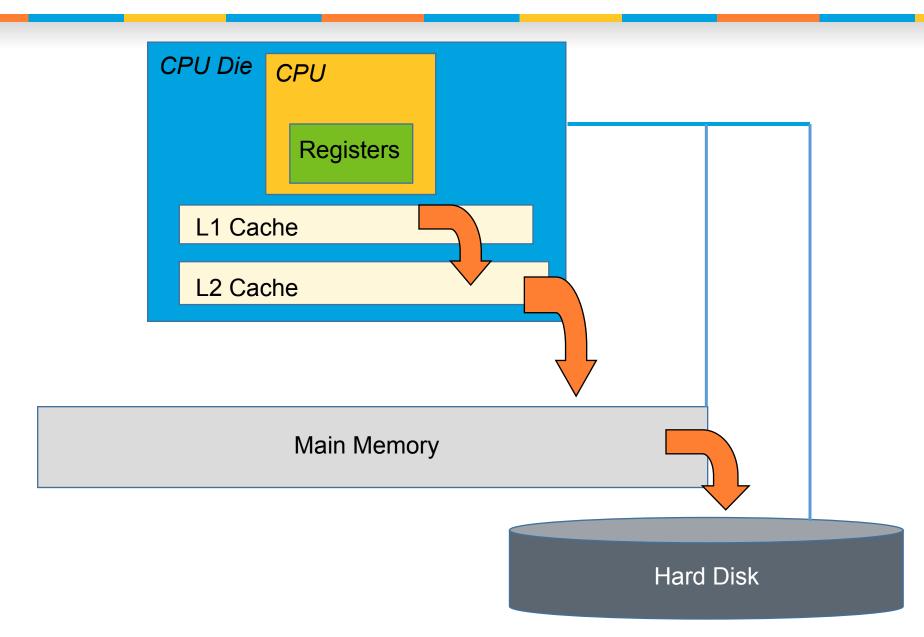


The Memory Hierarchy

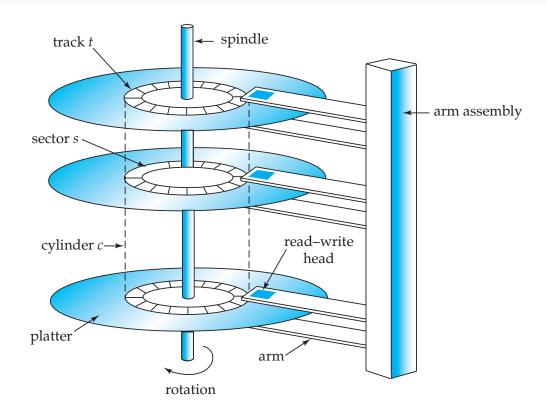
Example: Intel PIII

CPU: 450MHz

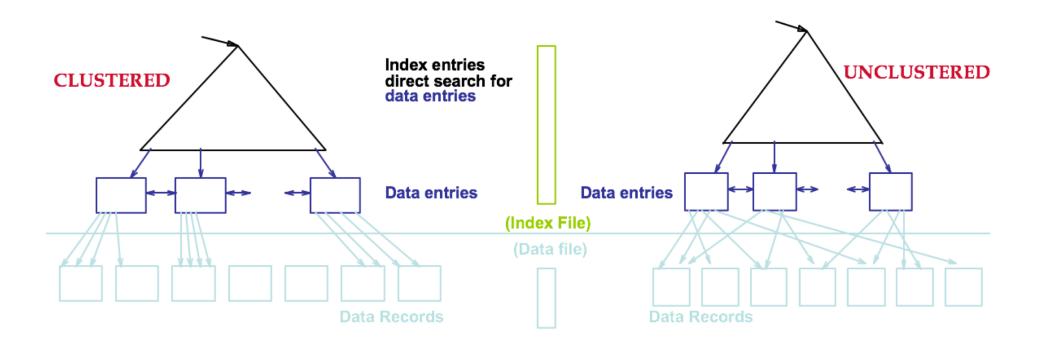
Memory: 512MB



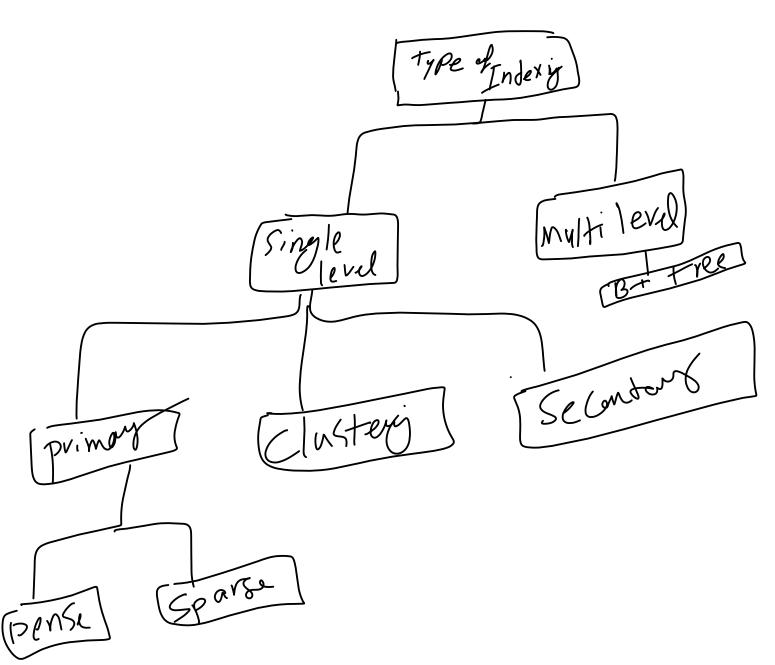
Internal Data Storage



Clustered vs. Unclustered Index



Types of Indexing



1-single level

a- Primary Indexing

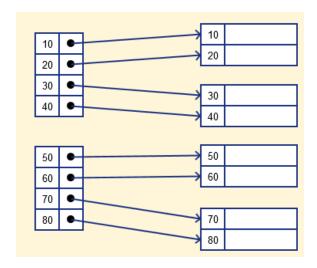
Primary Index is an ordered file which is fixed length size with two fields. The first field is the same a primary key and second, filed is pointed to that specific data block. In the primary Index, there is always one to one relationship between the entries in the index table.

The primary Indexing is also further divided into two types.

- Dense Index
- Sparse Index

a-1- Dense Index

- The dense index contains an index record for every search key value in the data file. It makes searching faster.
- o In this, the number of records in the index table is same as the number of records in the disk.
- o It needs more space to store index record itself. The index records have the search key and a pointer to the actual record on the disk.

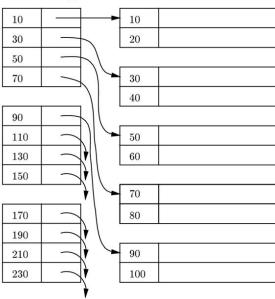


a-2-Sparse Index

- In the data file, index record appears only for a few items. Each item points to a block.
- In this, instead of pointing to each record in the main table, the index points to the records in the main table in a gap.

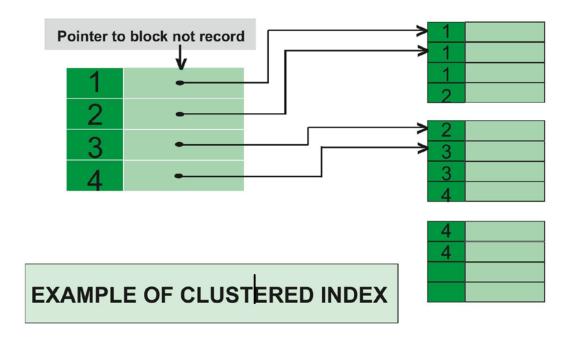
Example of Sparse Index





b- Clustering Index

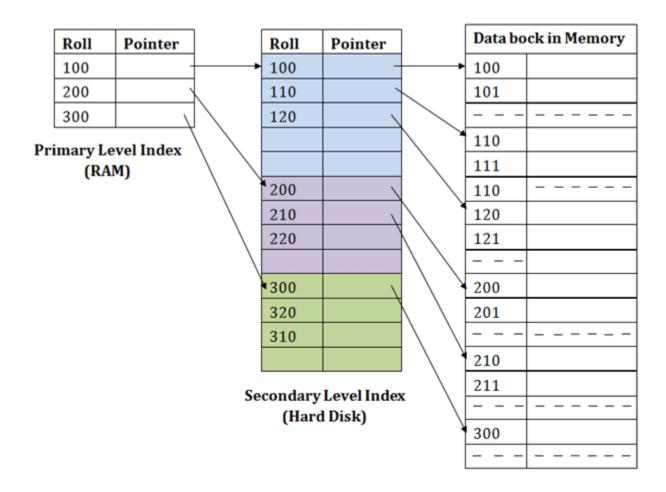
 A clustered index can be defined as an ordered data file. Sometimes the index is created on non-primary key columns which may not be unique for each record.



c- Secondary Index(non-clustering index)

In the sparse indexing, as the size of the table grows, the size of mapping also grows. These mappings are usually kept in the primary memory so that address fetch should be faster. Then the secondary memory searches the actual data based on the address got from mapping. If the mapping size grows then fetching the address itself becomes slower. In this case, the sparse index will not be efficient. To overcome this problem, secondary indexing is introduced.

In secondary indexing, to reduce the size of mapping, another level of indexing is introduced. In this method, the huge range for the columns is selected initially so that the mapping size of the first level becomes small. Then each range is further divided into smaller ranges. The mapping of the first level is stored in the primary memory, so that address fetch is faster. The mapping of the second level and actual data are stored in the secondary memory (hard disk).



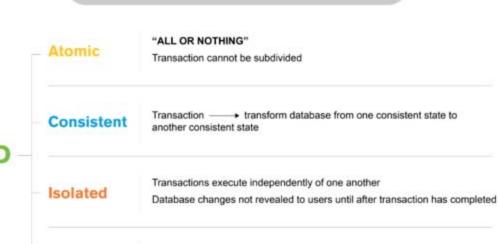
2- Multi-level:

B+-tree

Transaction ACID Properties

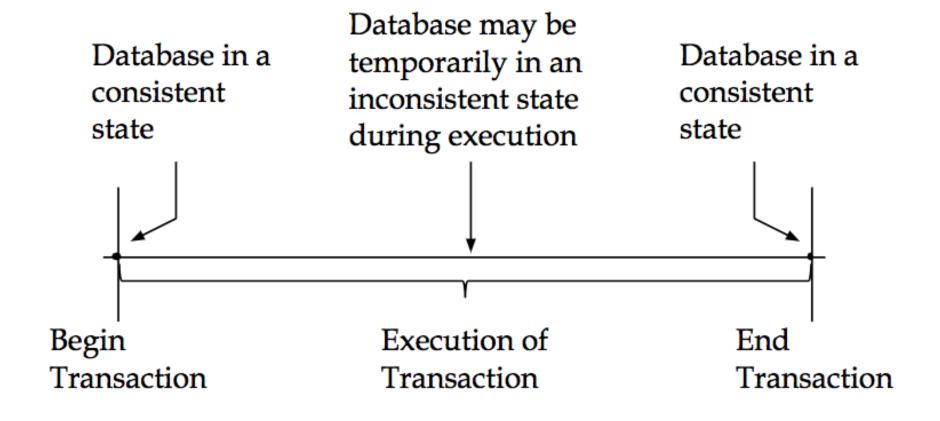
Database changes are perminent

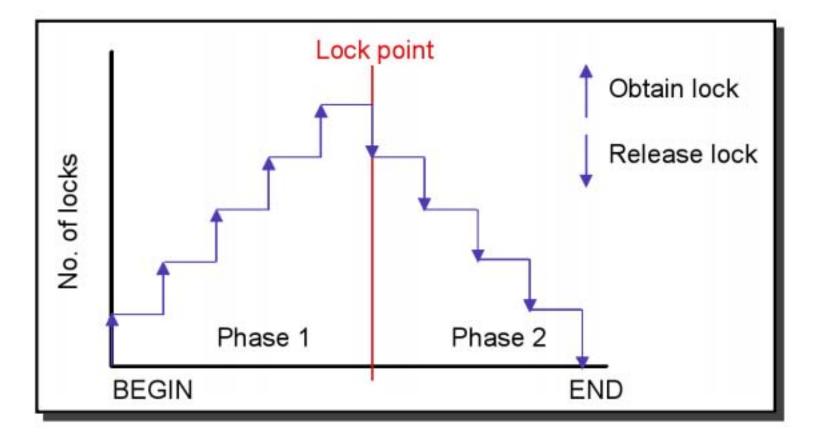
The permanence of the database's consistent state

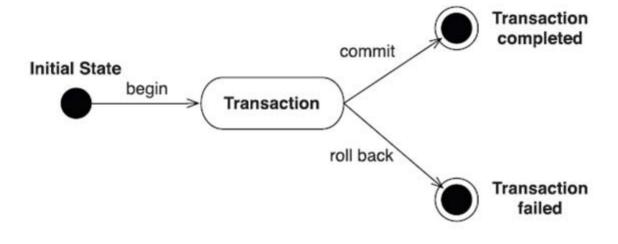


Durable

Transactions

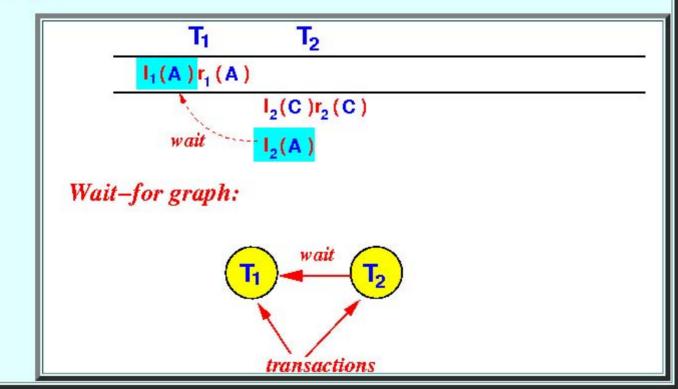




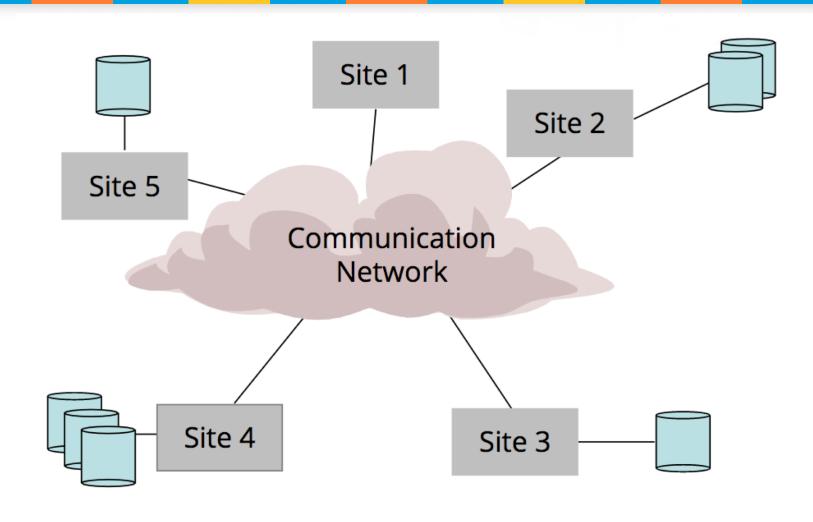


- Wait-for graph is a graph where:
 - Node represents a transaction
 - Edge $i \Rightarrow j$ represents the fact that:
 - The transaction i is waiting for a lock held by the transaction j

Example:



Distributed DBMS Environment



Definition

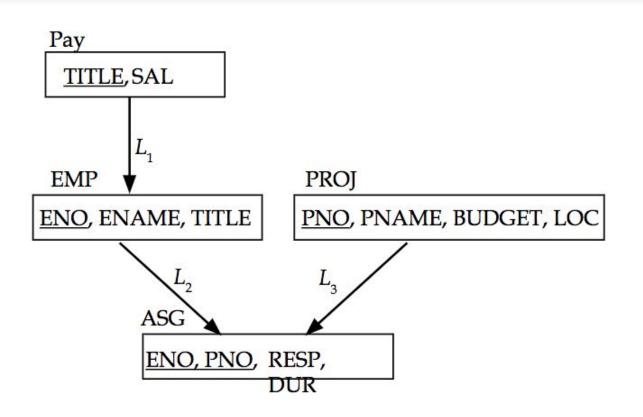
Primary Horizontal Fragmentation is:

$$R_j = \sigma_{F_j}(R), \quad 1 \le j \le w$$

A horizontal fragment R_i of relation R consists of all the tuples of R which satisfy a minterm predicate m_i .

Given a set of minterm predicates *M*, there are as many horizontal fragments of relation *R* as there are minterm predicates.

Derived Horizontal Fragmentation (DHF)



Definition

Given a link L where owner(L)=S and member(L)=R, the derived horizontal fragments of R are defined as

$$R_i = R \ltimes_F S_i$$
, $1 \le i \le w$

where w is the maximum number of fragments that will be defined on R and

$$S_i = \sigma_{Fi}(S)$$

where F_i is the formula according to which the primary horizontal fragment S_i is defined.

DHF Example

Given link L_1 where owner(L_1)=PAY and member(L_1)=EMP

- $EMP_1 = EMP \times PAY_1$
- $EMP_2 = EMP \times PAY_2$

Where

- $PAY₁ = \sigma_{SAL \le 30000}(PAY)$ $PAY₂ = \sigma_{SAL \ge 30000}(PAY)$

EMP_1

ENO	ENAME	TITLE
E3	A. Lee	Mech. Eng.
E4	J. Miller	Programmer
E7	R. Davis	Mech. Eng.

DHF Example

Given link L_1 where owner(L_1)=PAY and member(L_1)=EMP

- $EMP_1 = EMP \times PAY_1$
- $EMP_2 = EMP \times PAY_2$

Where

- $PAY₁ = \sigma_{SAL \le 30000}(PAY)$ $PAY₂ = \sigma_{SAL \ge 30000}(PAY)$

EMP₂

ENO	ENAME	TITLE
E1	J. Doe	Elect. Eng.
E2	M. Smith	Syst. Anal.
E5	B. Casey	Syst. Anal.
E6	L. Chu	Elect. Eng.
E8	J. Jones	Syst. Anal.

VF: Information Requirements

Application Information:

Attribute affinities

- a measure that indicates how closely related the attributes are
- This is obtained from more primitive usage data

Attribute usage values

- Given a set of queries $Q = \{q_1, q_2, ..., q_q\}$ that will run on the relation: $R[A_1, A_2, ..., A_q]$

$$use(q_i A_j) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if attribute } A_j \text{ is referenced by query } q_i \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 $use(q_{,} \bullet)$ can be defined accordingly

VF – Definition of $use(q_i, A_i)$

Consider the following 4 queries for relation PROJ:

Let
$$A_1$$
= PNO, A_2 = PNAME, A_3 = BUDGET, A_4 = LOC

Attribute Usage Matrix

VF – Affinity Measure $aff(A_i, A_i)$

The attribute affinity measure between two attributes A_i and A_j of a relation $R[A_1, A_2, ..., A_n]$ with respect to the set of applications $Q = (q_1, q_2, ..., q_q)$ is defined as:

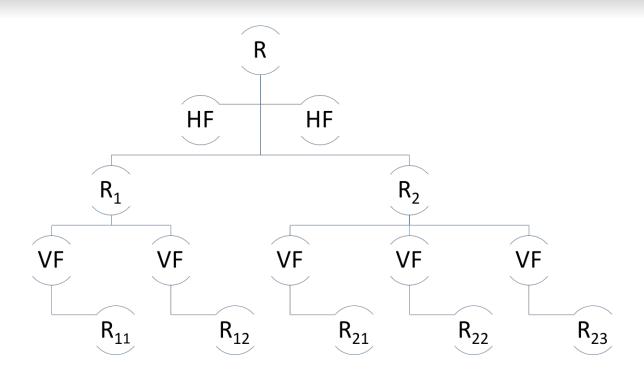
$$aff (A_{i'}, A_{j}) = \sum_{\text{(query access)}} all \text{ queries that access } A_{i} \text{ and } A_{i}$$

Attribute Affinity Matrix

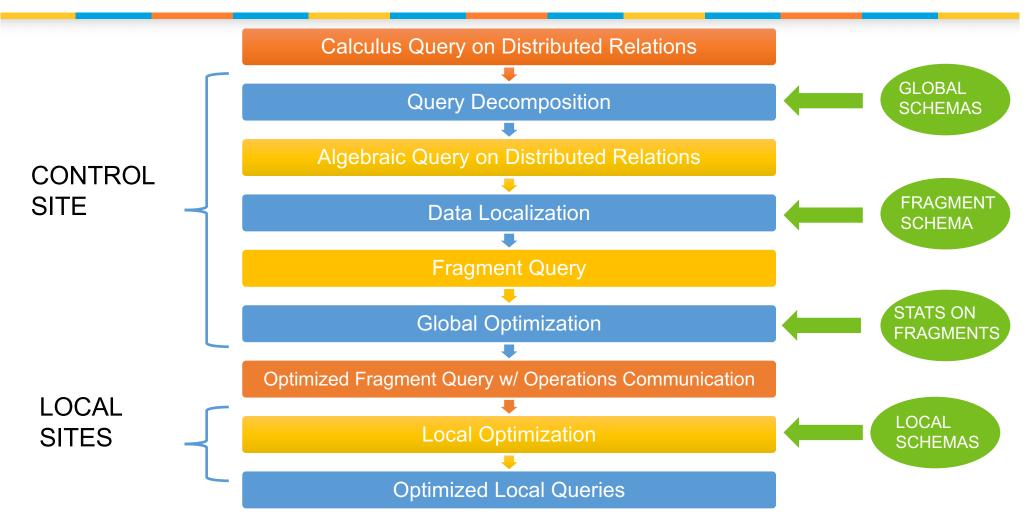
	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5
A1					
A2	50				
A3	45	48			
A4	1	1	0		
A5	0	0	4	75	

R1[K,A1,A2,A3] R2[K,A4,A5]

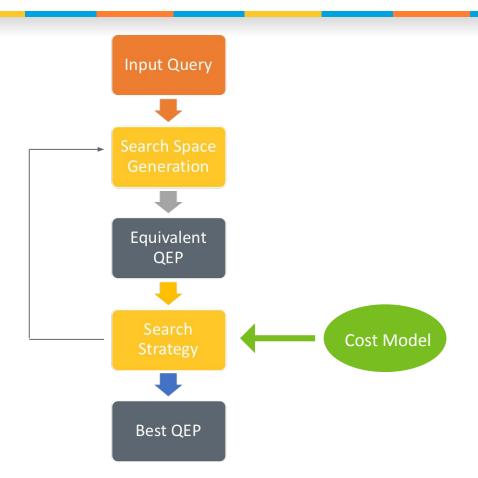
Hybrid Fragmentation



Distributed Query Processing



Query Optimization Process



Total Cost

Total cost = CPU cost + I/O cost + communication cost

CPU cost= unit instruction cost * no. of instructions

I/O cost= unit disk I/O cost * no. of disk I/Os

communication cost = message initiation + transmission

Response Time

Response time= CPU time + I/O time + communication time

CPU time= unit instruction time * no. of sequential instructions

I/O time= unit I/O time*no. of sequential I/Os

communication time= unit msg initiation time*no. of sequential msg

+ unit transmission time*no. of sequential bytes

Parallel DBMS

Pipeline Parallelism

 many machines each doing one step in a multi-step process.

Any sequentia Any sequentia

Partition Parallelism

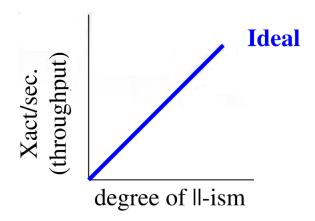
 many machines doing the same thing to different pieces of data.



Terminology

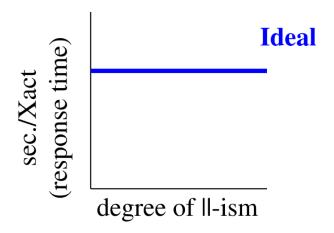
Speed-Up

 More resources means proportionally less time for given amount of data.



Scale-Up

 If resources increased in proportion to increase in data size, time is constant.



Architecture Issues: Shared What?

Shared Memory (SMP)

Shared Disk

Shared Nothing (network)

CLIENTS

CLIENTS

CLIENTS

Easy to program Expensive to build Difficult to scaleup Hard to program Cheap to build Easy to scaleup