

CS4.301 Data & Applications

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Discussion on Relationship Types

In the refined design, some attributes from the initial entity types are refined into relationships:

Manager of DEPARTMENT -> MANAGES

Works_on of EMPLOYEE -> WORKS_ON

Department of EMPLOYEE -> WORKS_FOR

etc

In general, more than one relationship type can exist between the same participating entity types

MANAGES and WORKS_FOR are distinct relationship types between EMPLOYEE and DEPARTMENT

Different meanings and different relationship instances

Constraints on Relationships

Constraints on Relationship Types

Also known as ratio constraints

Cardinality Ratio (specifies *maximum* participation)

- One-to-one (1:1)

- One-to-many (1:N) or Many-to-one (N:1)

- Many-to-many (M:N)

Existence Dependency Constraint (specifies *minimum* participation) (also called participation constraint)

- zero (optional participation, not existence-dependent)

- one or more (mandatory participation, existence-dependent)

Term	Meaning	Example
Existence-dependent	One entity <i>cannot exist</i> without another	<i>Course Section → Course</i>
Not existence-dependent	Entity <i>can exist independently</i>	<i>Professor → Department</i>

Many-to-one (N:1) Relationship

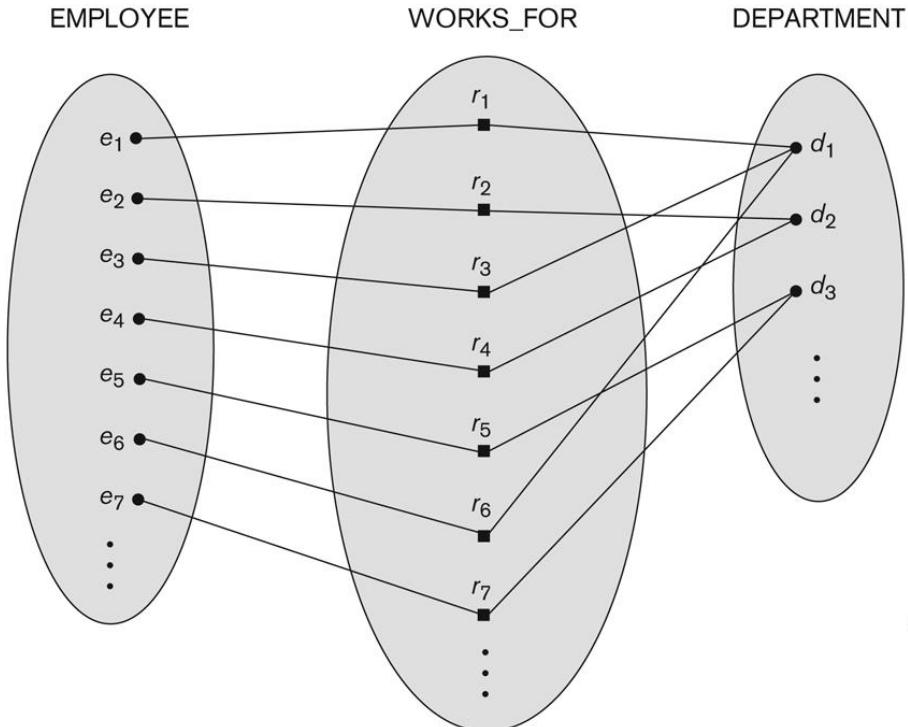


Figure 3.9
Some instances in the WORKS_FOR relationship set, which represents a relationship type WORKS_FOR between EMPLOYEE and DEPARTMENT.

Many-to-many (M:N) Relationship

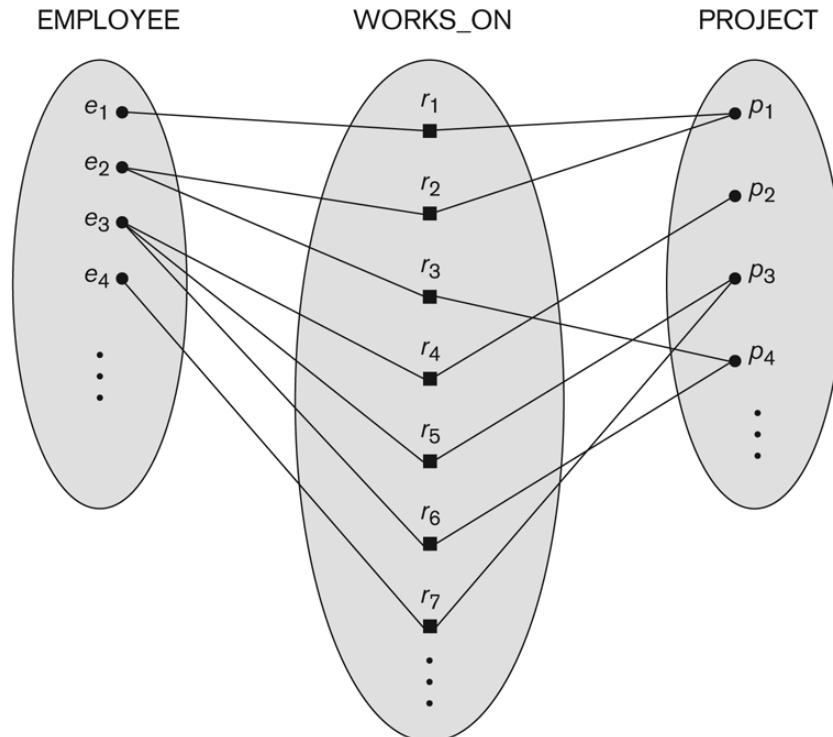


Figure 3.13
An M:N relationship,
WORKS_ON.

Recursive Relationship Type

A relationship type between the same participating entity type in **distinct roles**

Also called a **self-referencing** relationship type.

Example: the SUPERVISION relationship

EMPLOYEE participates twice in two distinct roles:

- supervisor (or boss) role

- supervisee (or subordinate) role

Each relationship instance relates two distinct EMPLOYEE entities:

- One employee in *supervisor* role

- One employee in *supervisee* role

Displaying a recursive relationship

In a recursive relationship type.

Both participations are same entity type in different roles.

For example, SUPERVISION relationships between EMPLOYEE (in role of supervisor or boss) and (another) EMPLOYEE (in role of subordinate or worker).

In following figure, first role participation labeled with 1 and second role participation labeled with 2.

In ER diagram, need to display role names to distinguish participations.

A Recursive Relationship Supervision`

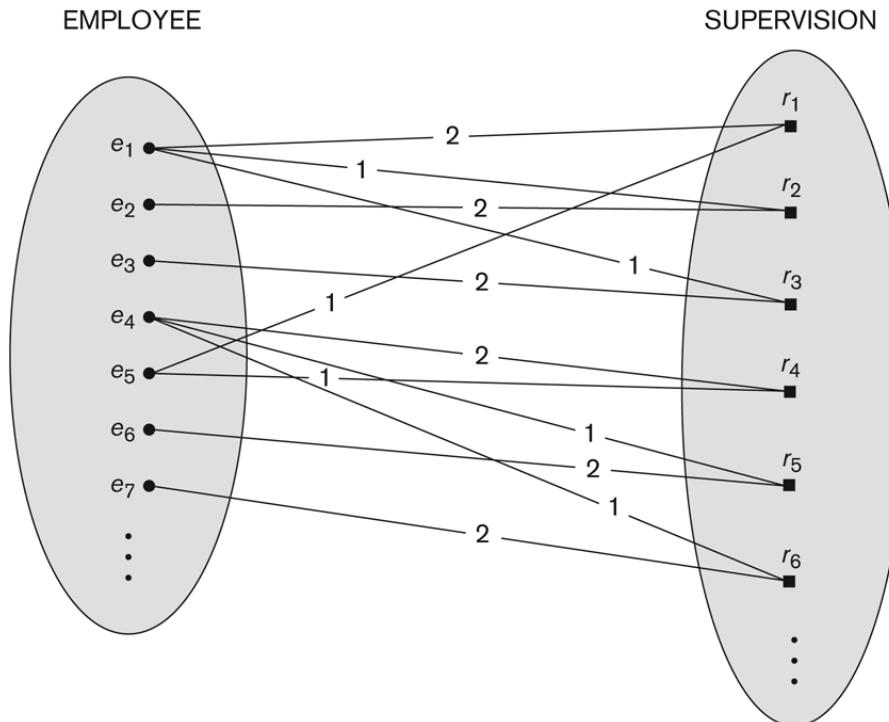
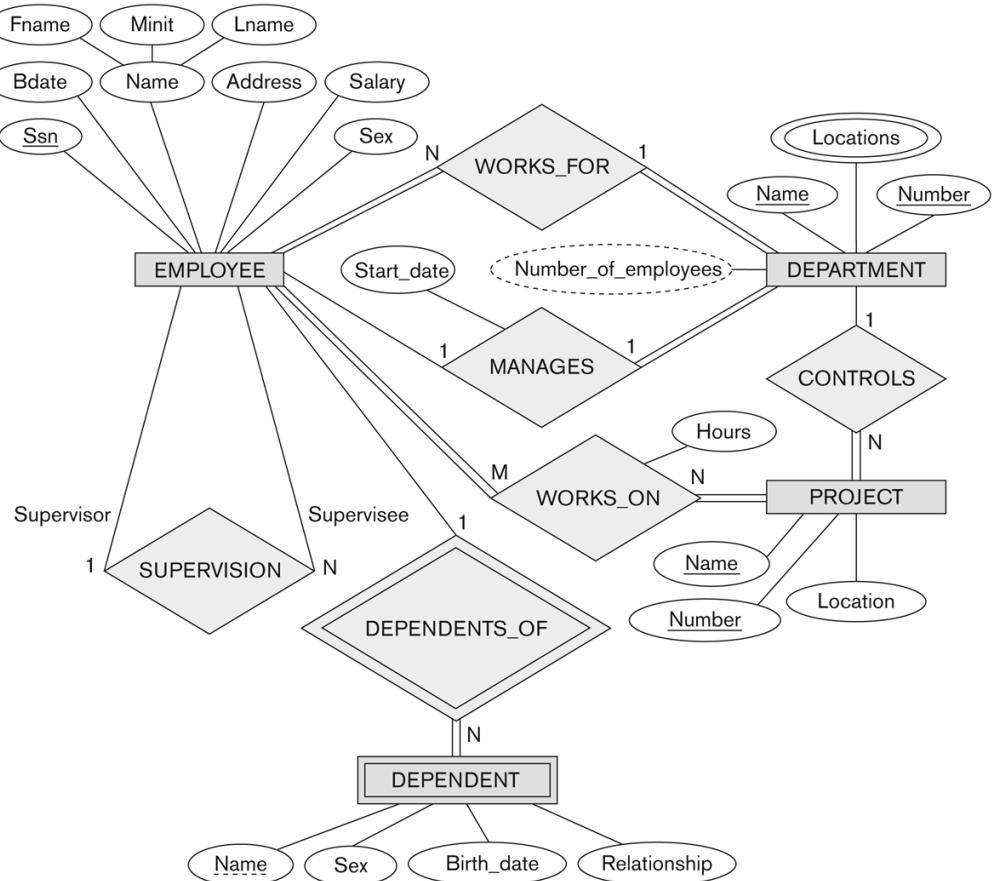


Figure 3.11

A recursive relation-
ship **SUPERVISION**
between **EMPLOYEE**
in the *supervisor* role
(1) and **EMPLOYEE**
in the *subordinate*
role (2).



Recursive Relationship
Type is:
SUPERVISION
(participation role names are shown)

Figure 3.2

An ER schema diagram for the COMPANY database. The diagrammatic notation is introduced gradually throughout this chapter.

This Lecture

Weak Entity Types

An entity that does not have a key attribute and that is identification-dependent on another entity type.

A weak entity must participate in an identifying relationship type with an owner or identifying entity type

Entities are identified by the combination of:

A partial key of the weak entity type

The particular entity they are related to in the identifying relationship type

Example:

A DEPENDENT entity is identified by the dependent's first name, *and* the specific EMPLOYEE with whom the dependent is related

Name of DEPENDENT is the *partial key*

DEPENDENT is a *weak entity type*

EMPLOYEE is its identifying entity type via the identifying relationship type DEPENDENT_OF

Weak Entity Types

Concept	Symbol	Meaning
Strong Entity	Single rectangle	Independent existence
Weak Entity	Double rectangle	Depends on strong entity
Identifying Relationship	Double diamond	Defines weak entity's identity

Attributes of Relationship types

A relationship type can have attributes:

For example, HoursPerWeek of WORKS_ON

Its value for each relationship instance describes the number of hours per week that an EMPLOYEE works on a PROJECT.

A value of HoursPerWeek depends on a particular (employee, project) combination

Most relationship attributes are used with M:N relationships

A **relationship type** can have an **attribute** when that attribute **belongs to the association itself** — not to any of the entities individually.

Think of it as information that **only makes sense because of the relationship** between the entities.

Attributes of Relationship types

Add attributes to a relationship type **only when**:

1. The information applies **to the link itself**, not to either entity.
2. It's **not derivable** from the entities' existing attributes.
3. It helps capture **real-world meaning** of that association.

Attributes of Relationship types

When an ER relationship has attributes, those attributes are stored as columns in the relationship table (also called a junction or association table) that represents the relationship in the relational database.

Employee(Emp_ID, Name)

Project(Proj_ID, Title)

Works_On(Emp_ID, Proj_ID, hours_per_week)

Relationship attributes become **columns in the relationship (junction) table** when the ER model is converted to the relational model.

Example Attribute of a
Relationship Type:
Hours of WORKS_ON

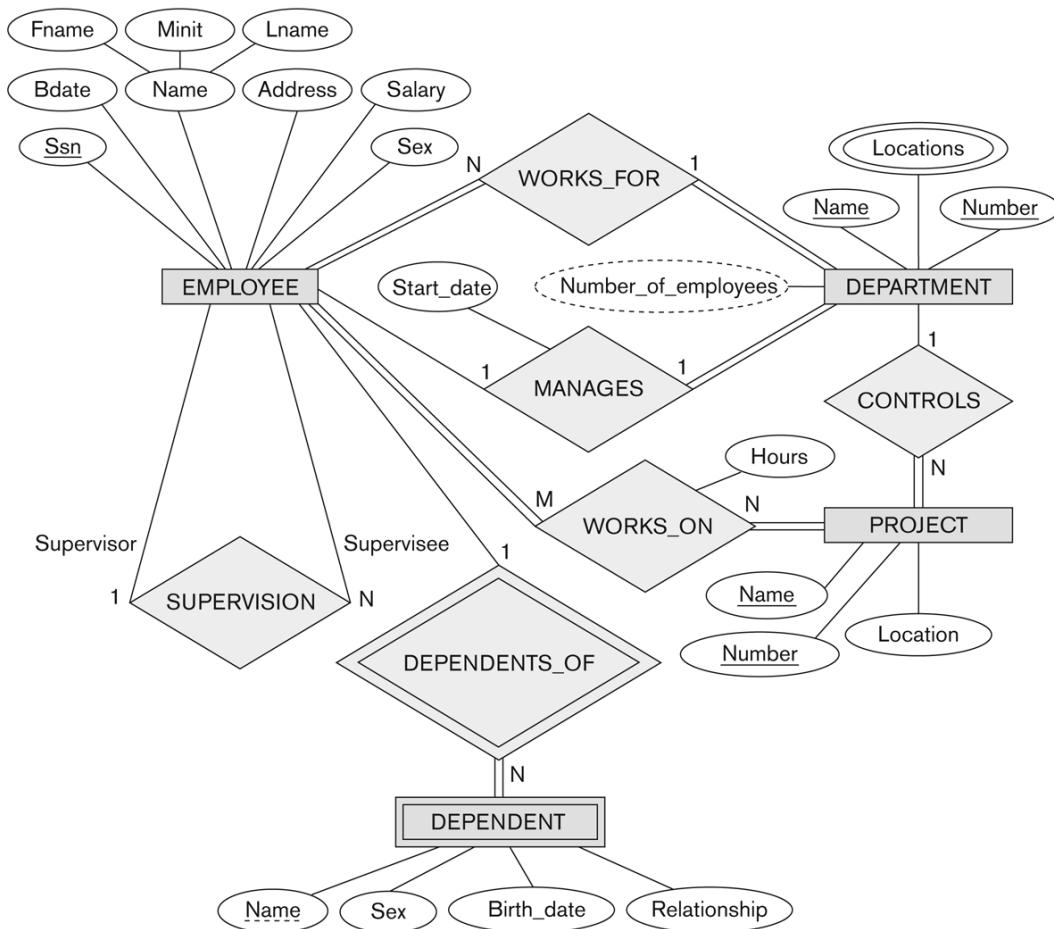


Figure 3.2

An ER schema diagram for the COMPANY database. The diagrammatic notation is introduced gradually throughout this chapter.

Notation for Constraints on Relationships

Cardinality ratio (of a binary relationship): 1:1, 1:N, N:1, or M:N

Shown by placing appropriate numbers on the relationship edges.

Participation constraint (on each participating entity type): total (called existence dependency) or partial.

Total shown by double line, partial by single line.

Alternative (min, max) notation for relationship structural constraints:

Specified on each participation of an entity type E in a relationship type R

Specifies that each entity e in E participates in at least *min* and at most *max* relationship instances in R

Default(no constraint): min=0, max=n (signifying no limit)

Must have $\text{min} \leq \text{max}$, $\text{min} \geq 0$, $\text{max} \geq 1$

Derived from the knowledge of mini-world constraints

Cardinality & Participation taken together called structural constraints; (m,n); m = 0 is partial, m = 1 total

Examples:

A department has exactly one manager and an employee can manage at most one department.

Specify (0,1) for participation of EMPLOYEE in MANAGES

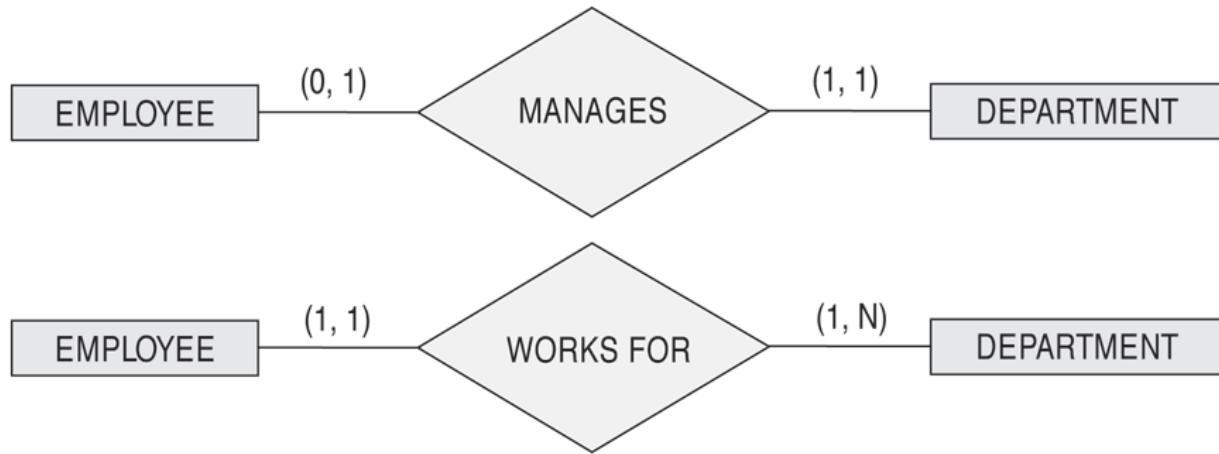
Specify (1,1) for participation of DEPARTMENT in MANAGES

An employee can work for exactly one department but a department can have any number of employees.

Specify (1,1) for participation of EMPLOYEE in WORKS_FOR

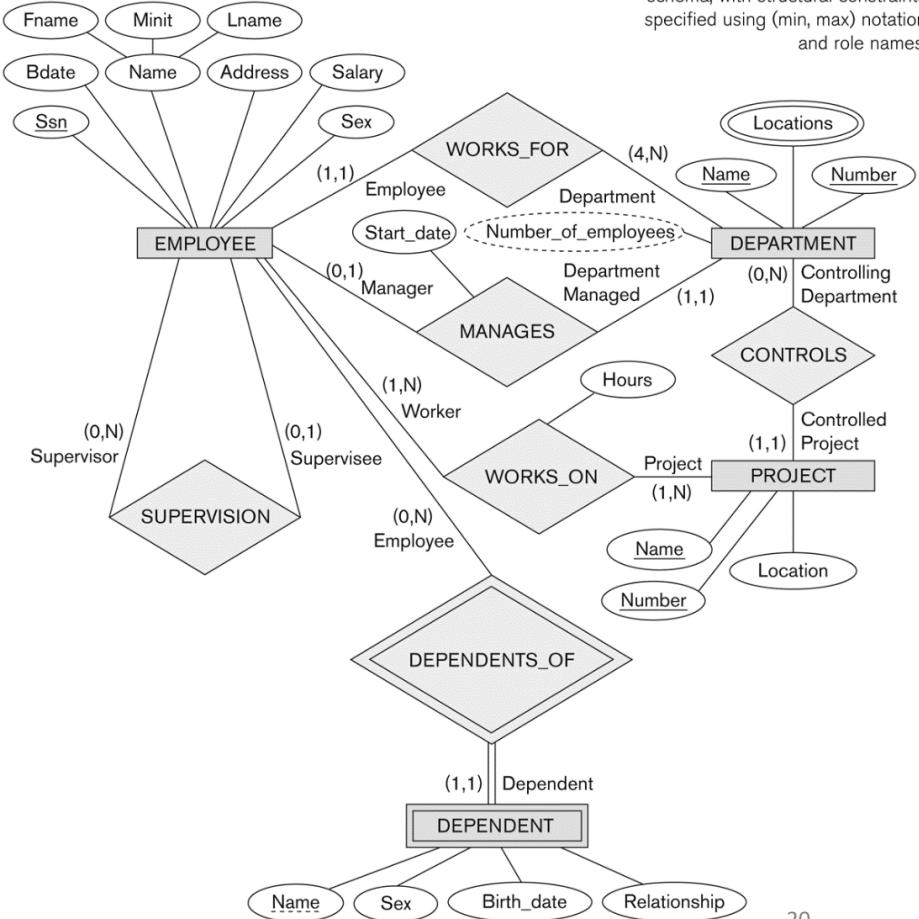
Specify (0,n) for participation of DEPARTMENT in WORKS_FOR

The (min,max) notation for relationship constraints



Read the min,max numbers next to the entity type and looking **away from** the entity type

COMPANY ER Schema Diagram using (min, max) notation



Alternative diagrammatic notation

ER diagrams is one popular example for displaying database schemas

Many other notations exist in the literature and in various database design and modeling tools

UML class diagrams is representative of another way of displaying ER concepts that is used in several commercial design tools

Summary of notation for ER diagrams

Figure 3.14
Summary of the
notation for ER
diagrams.

Symbol	Meaning
	Entity
	Weak Entity
	Relationship
	Identifying Relationship
	Attribute
	Key Attribute
	Multivalued Attribute
	Composite Attribute
	Derived Attribute
	Total Participation of E_2 in R
	Cardinality Ratio 1:N for $E_1:E_2$ in R
	Structural Constraint (\min, \max) on Participation of E in R

UML class diagrams

Represent classes (similar to entity types) as large rounded boxes with three sections:

- Top section includes entity type (class) name

- Second section includes attributes

- Third section includes class operations (operations are not in basic ER model)

Relationships (called associations) represented as lines connecting the classes

- Other UML terminology also differs from ER terminology

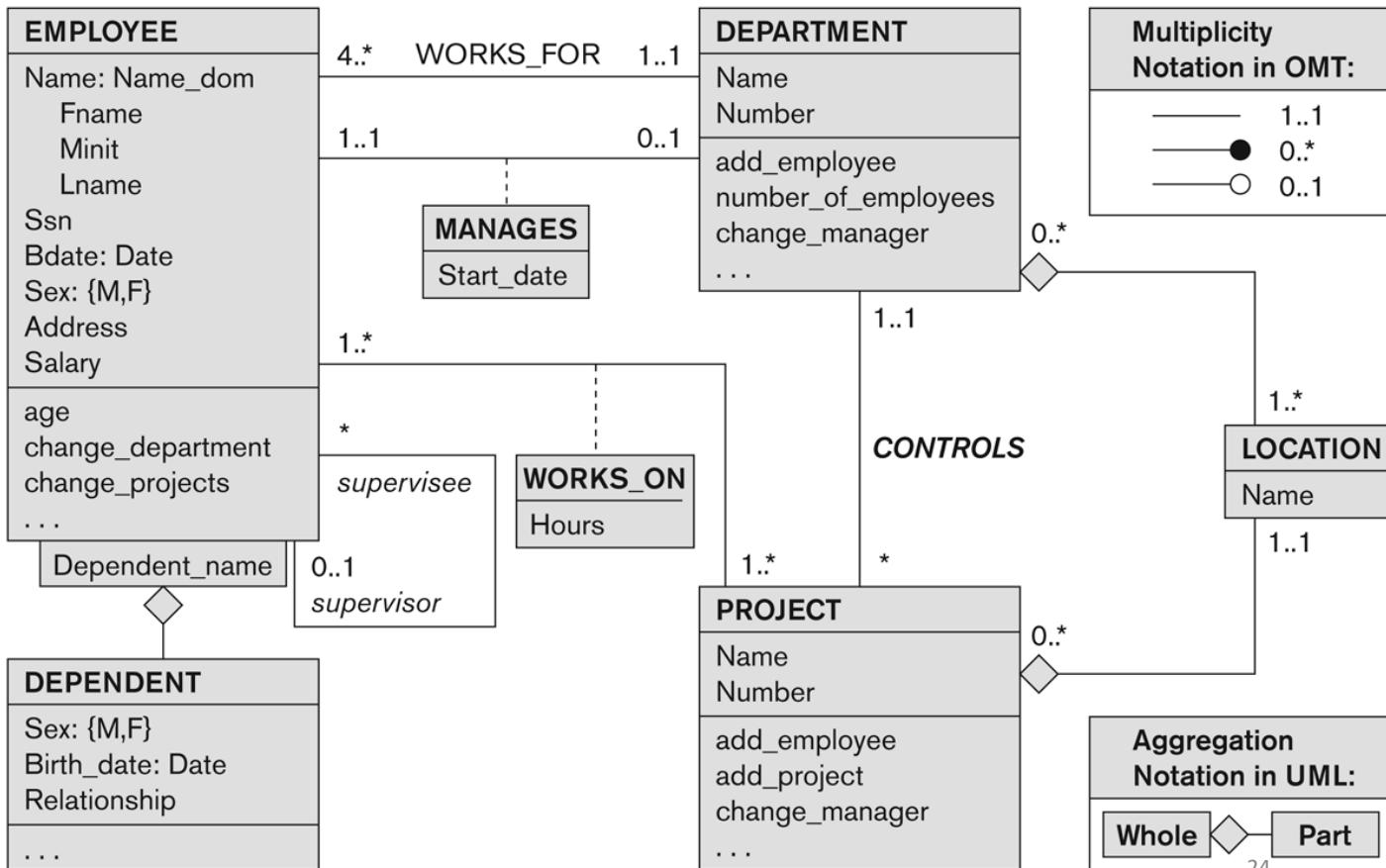
Used in database design and object-oriented software design

UML has many other types of diagrams for software design

Figure 3.16

The COMPANY conceptual schema in UML class diagram notation.

UML class diagram for COMPANY database schema



Other alternative diagrammatic notations

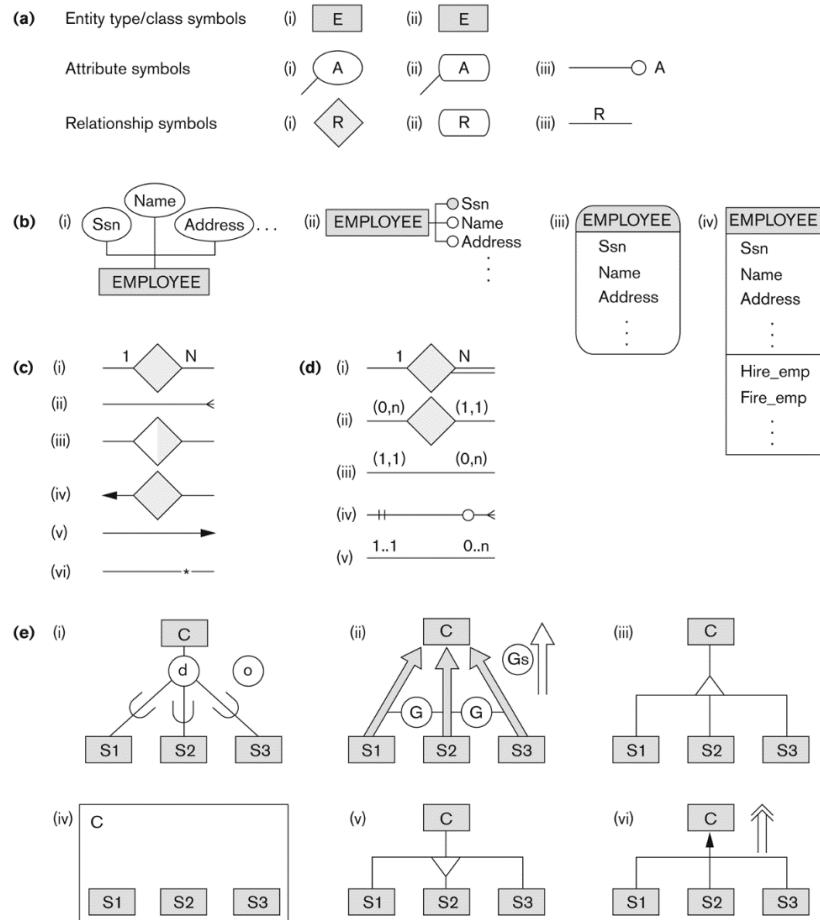


Figure A.1

Alternative notations. (a) Symbols for entity type/class, attribute, and relationship. (b) Displaying attributes. (c) Displaying cardinality ratios. (d) Various (min, max) notations. (e) Notations for displaying specialization/generalization.

Some of the Automated Database Design Tools (Note: Not all may be on the market now)

COMPANY	TOOL	FUNCTIONALITY
Embarcadero Technologies	ER Studio	Database Modeling in ER and IDEF1X
	DB Artisan	Database administration, space and security management
Oracle	Developer 2000/Designer 2000	Database modeling, application development
Popkin Software	System Architect 2001	Data modeling, object modeling, process modeling, structured analysis/design
Platinum (Computer Associates)	Enterprise Modeling Suite: Erwin, BPWin, Paradigm Plus	Data, process, and business component modeling
Persistence Inc.	Pwertier	Mapping from O-O to relational model
Rational (IBM)	Rational Rose	UML Modeling & application generation in C++/JAVA
Resolution Ltd.	Xcase	Conceptual modeling up to code maintenance
Sybase	Enterprise Application Suite	Data modeling, business logic modeling
Visio	Visio Enterprise	Data modeling, design/reengineering Visual Basic/C++

DBMS Interfaces

Stand-alone query language interfaces

Example: Entering SQL queries at the DBMS interactive SQL interface (e.g. SQL*Plus in ORACLE)

Programmer interfaces for embedding DML in programming languages

User-friendly interfaces

Menu-based, forms-based, graphics-based, etc.

Mobile Interfaces: interfaces allowing users to perform transactions using mobile apps

DBMS Programming Language Interfaces

Programmer interfaces for embedding DML in a programming languages:

Embedded Approach: e.g embedded SQL (for C, C++, etc.), SQLJ (for Java)

Procedure Call Approach: e.g. JDBC for Java, ODBC (Open Database Connectivity) for other programming languages as API's (application programming interfaces)

Database Programming Language Approach: e.g. ORACLE has PL/SQL, a programming language based on SQL; language incorporates SQL and its data types as integral components

Scripting Languages: PHP (client-side scripting) and Python (server-side scripting) are used to write database programs.

User-Friendly DBMS Interfaces

Menu-based (Web-based), popular for browsing on the web

Forms-based, designed for naïve users used to filling in entries on a form

Graphics-based

- Point and Click, Drag and Drop, etc.

- Specifying a query on a schema diagram

Natural language: requests in written English

Combinations of the above:

- For example, both menus and forms used extensively in Web database interfaces

Other DBMS Interfaces

Natural language: free text as a query

Speech: Input query and Output response

Web Browser with keyword search

Parametric interfaces, e.g., bank tellers using function keys.

Interfaces for the DBA:

- Creating user accounts, granting authorizations

- Setting system parameters

- Changing schemas or access paths

Database System Utilities

To perform certain functions such as:

Loading data stored in files into a database. Includes data conversion tools.

Backing up the database periodically on tape.

Reorganizing database file structures.

Performance monitoring utilities.

Report generation utilities.

Other functions, such as sorting, user monitoring, data compression, etc.

Typical DBMS Component Modules

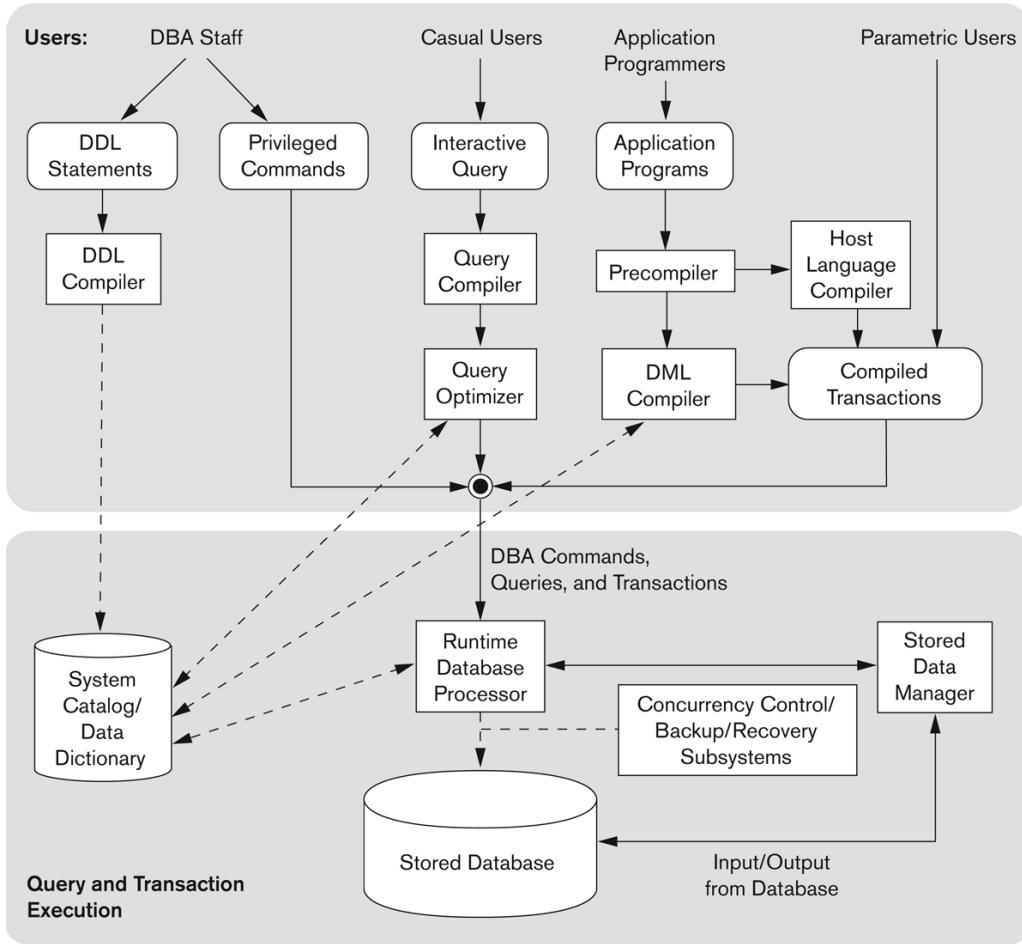


Figure 2.3
Component modules of a DBMS and their interactions.

Centralized and Client-Server DBMS Architectures

Centralized DBMS:

Combines everything into single system including- DBMS software, hardware, application programs, and user interface processing software.

User can still connect through a remote terminal – however, all processing is done at centralized site.

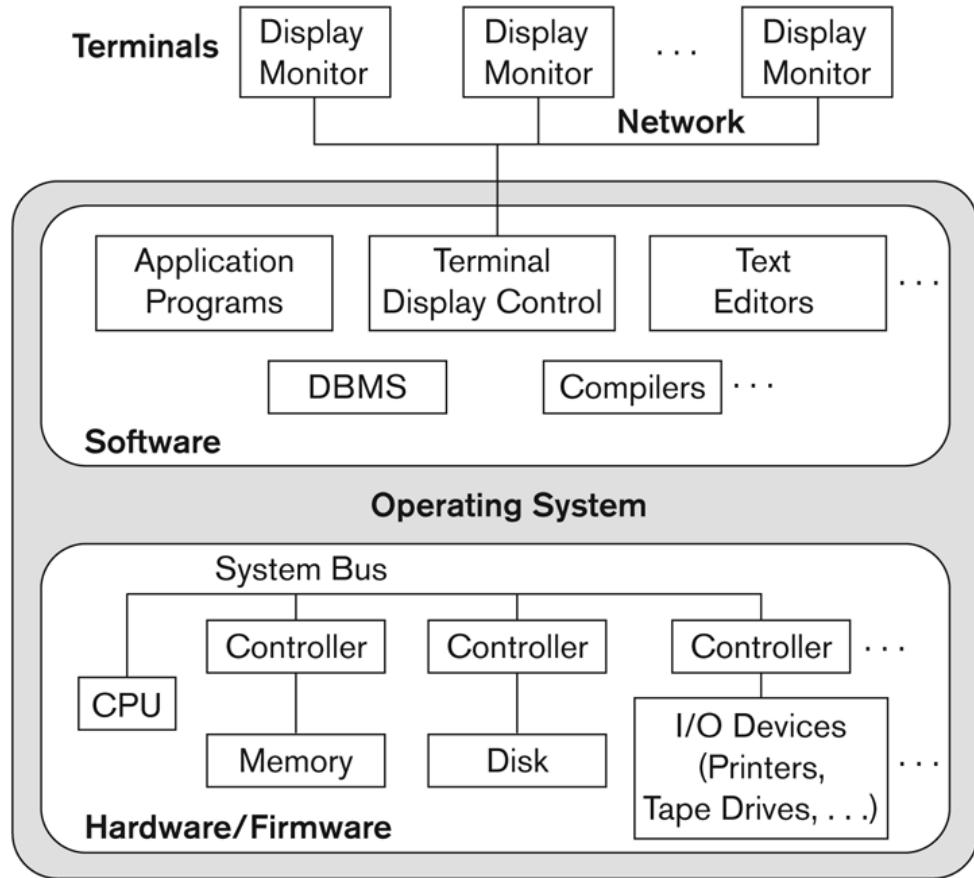
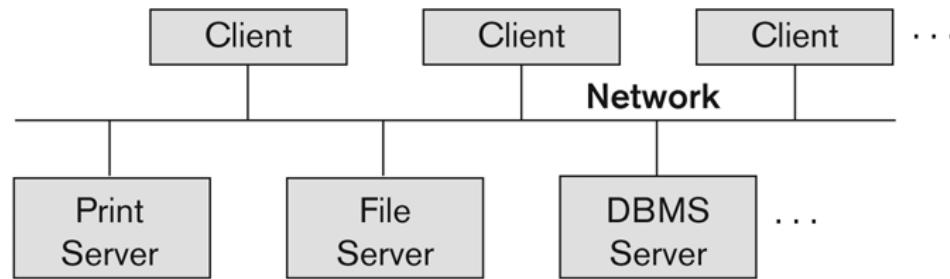


Figure 2.4
A physical centralized architecture.

A Physical Centralized Architecture

Logical two-tier client server architecture

Figure 2.5
Logical two-tier
client/server
architecture.



Clients

Provide appropriate interfaces through a client software module to access and utilize the various server resources.

Clients may be diskless machines or PCs or Workstations with disks with only the client software installed.

Connected to the servers via some form of a network.
(LAN: local area network, wireless network, etc.)

DBMS Server

Provides database query and transaction services to the clients

Relational DBMS servers are often called SQL servers, query servers, or transaction servers

Applications running on clients utilize an Application Program Interface (**API**) to access server databases via standard interface such as:

ODBC: Open Database Connectivity standard

JDBC: for Java programming access

Two Tier Client-Server Architecture

Client and server must install appropriate client module and server module software for ODBC or JDBC

A client program may connect to several DBMSs, sometimes called the data sources.

In general, data sources can be files or other non-DBMS software that manages data.

Three Tier Client-Server Architecture

Common for Web applications

Intermediate Layer called Application Server or Web Server:

Stores the web connectivity software and the business logic part of the application used to access the corresponding data from the database server

Acts like a conduit for sending partially processed data between the database server and the client.

Three-tier Architecture can enhance security:

Database server only accessible via middle tier

Clients cannot directly access database server

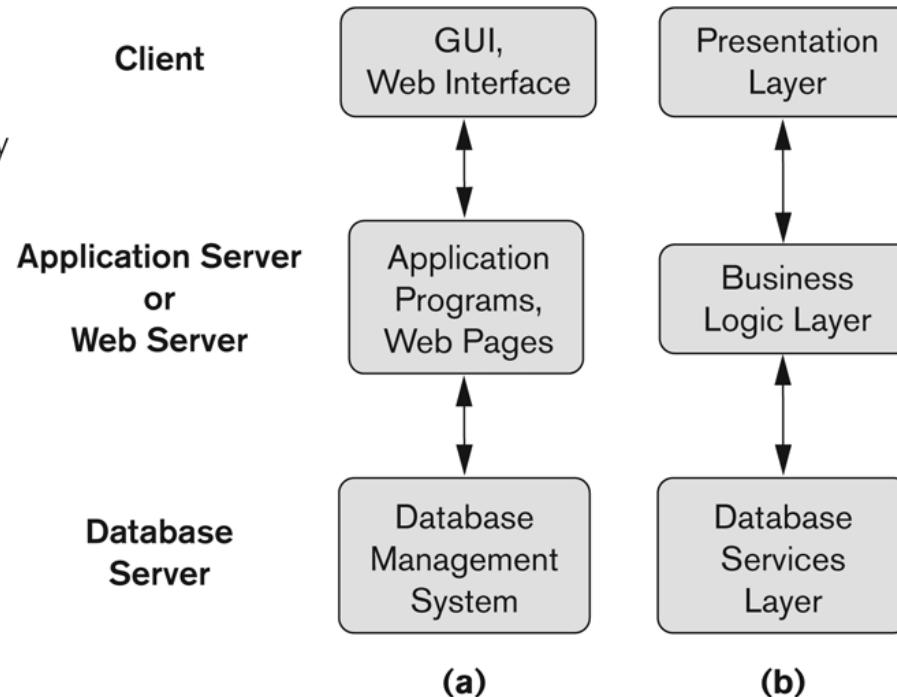
Clients contain user interfaces and Web browsers

The client is typically a PC or a mobile device connected to the Web

Three-tier client-server architecture

Figure 2.7

Logical three-tier client/server architecture, with a couple of commonly used nomenclatures.



The Relational Data Model and Relational Database Constraints

Relational Model Concepts

The relational Model of Data is based on the concept of a *Relation*

The strength of the relational approach to data management comes from the formal foundation provided by the theory of relations

We review the essentials of the *formal relational model* in this module

In *practice*, there is a *standard model* based on SQL – We will see this as next module

Relational Model Concepts

A Relation is a mathematical concept based on the ideas of sets

The model was first proposed by Dr. E.F. Codd of IBM Research in 1970
in the following paper:

"A Relational Model for Large Shared Data Banks," Communications of the ACM, June 1970

The above paper caused a major revolution in the field of database management and earned Dr. Codd the coveted ACM Turing Award

Informal Definitions

Informally, a **relation** looks like a **table** of values.

A relation typically contains a **set of rows**.

The data elements in each **row** represent certain facts that correspond to a real-world **entity or relationship**. In the formal model, rows are called **tuples**.

Each **column** has a column header that gives an indication of the meaning of the data items in that column.

In the formal model, the column header is called an **attribute name** (or just **attribute**)

Example of a Relation

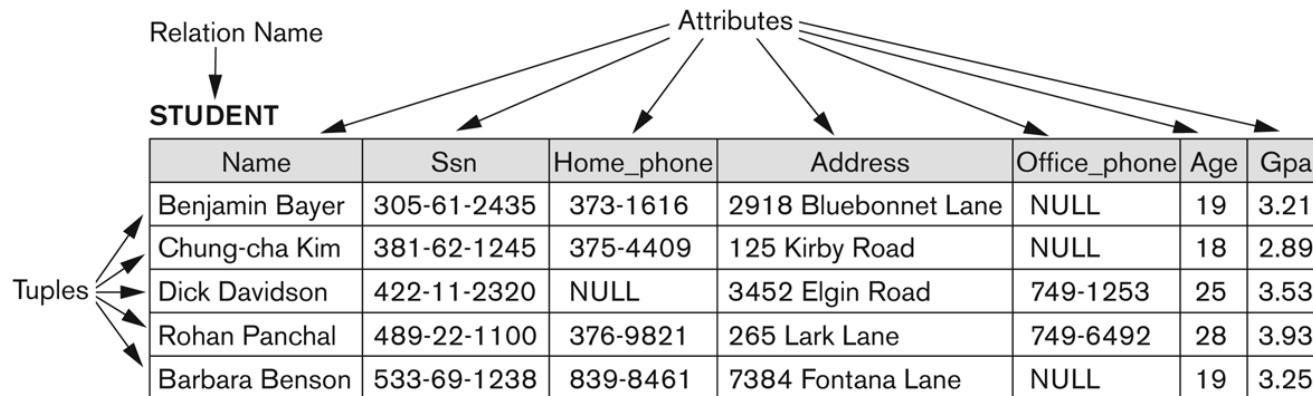


Figure 5.1
The attributes and tuples of a relation STUDENT.

Informal Definitions

Key of a Relation:

Each row has a value of a data item (or set of items) that uniquely identifies that row in the table

Called the *key*

In the STUDENT table, SSN is the key

Sometimes row-ids or sequential numbers are assigned as keys to identify the rows in a table

Called *artificial key* or *surrogate key*

Activity

Create 3 recursive relationship and show them in ER diagram

Create 3 different weak entities in 3 different mini-world and show them in ER diagram

Create 3 different sets of relationships in Infinium showing cardinality / min-max

Formal Definitions - Schema

The **Schema** (or description) of a Relation:

Denoted by $R(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n)$

R is the **name** of the relation

The **attributes** of the relation are A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n

Example:

CUSTOMER (Cust-id, Cust-name, Address, Phone#)

CUSTOMER is the relation name

Defined over the four attributes: Cust-id, Cust-name, Address, Phone#

Each attribute has a **domain** or a set of valid values.

For example, the domain of Cust-id is 6 digit numbers.

Formal Definitions - Tuple

A **tuple** is an ordered set of values (enclosed in angled brackets '< ... >')

Each value is derived from an appropriate *domain*.

A row in the CUSTOMER relation is a 4-tuple and would consist of four values, for example:

<632895, "John Smith", "101 Main St. Atlanta, GA 30332", "(404) 894-2000">

This is called a 4-tuple as it has 4 values

A tuple (row) in the CUSTOMER relation.

A relation is a **set** of such tuples (rows)

Formal Definitions - Domain

A **domain** has a logical definition:

Example: “USA_phone_numbers” are the set of 10 digit phone numbers valid in the U.S.

A domain also has a data-type or a format defined for it.

The USA_phone_numbers may have a format: (ddd)ddd-dddd where each d is a decimal digit.

Dates have various formats such as year, month, date formatted as yyyy-mm-dd, or as dd mm,yyyy etc.

The attribute name designates the role played by a domain in a relation:

Used to interpret the meaning of the data elements corresponding to that attribute

Example: The domain Date may be used to define two attributes named “Invoice-date” and “Payment-date” with different meanings

Formal Definitions - State

The **relation state** is a subset of the Cartesian product of the domains of its attributes

each domain contains the set of all possible values the attribute can take.

Example: attribute Cust-name is defined over the domain of character strings of maximum length 25

$\text{dom}(\text{Cust-name})$ is $\text{varchar}(25)$

The role these strings play in the CUSTOMER relation is that of the *name of a customer*.

Formal Definitions - Summary

Formally,

Given $R(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n)$

$r(R) \subset \text{dom}(A_1) \times \text{dom}(A_2) \times \dots \times \text{dom}(A_n)$

$R(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n)$ is the **schema** of the relation

R is the **name** of the relation

A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are the **attributes** of the relation

$r(R)$: a specific **state** (or "value" or "population") of relation R – this is a *set of tuples* (rows)

$r(R) = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n\}$ where each t_i is an n -tuple [All Rows in a table]

$t_i = \langle v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \rangle$ where each v_j element-of $\text{dom}(A_j)$ [Single Row in the table]

Formal Definitions - Example

Let $R(A_1, A_2)$ be a relation schema:

Let $\text{dom}(A_1) = \{0,1\}$

Let $\text{dom}(A_2) = \{a,b,c\}$

Then: $\text{dom}(A_1) \times \text{dom}(A_2)$ is all possible combinations:

$\{\langle 0, a \rangle, \langle 0, b \rangle, \langle 0, c \rangle, \langle 1, a \rangle, \langle 1, b \rangle, \langle 1, c \rangle\}$

The relation state $r(R) \subset \text{dom}(A_1) \times \text{dom}(A_2)$

For example: $r(R)$ could be $\{\langle 0, a \rangle, \langle 0, b \rangle, \langle 1, c \rangle\}$

this is one possible state (or “population” or “extension”) r of the relation R , defined over A_1 and A_2 .

It has three 2-tuples: $\langle 0, a \rangle, \langle 0, b \rangle, \langle 1, c \rangle$

Definition Summary

<u>Informal Terms</u>	<u>Formal Terms</u>
Table	Relation
Column Header	Attribute
All possible Column Values	Domain
Row	Tuple
Table Definition	Schema of a Relation
Populated Table	State of the Relation

Example – A relation STUDENT

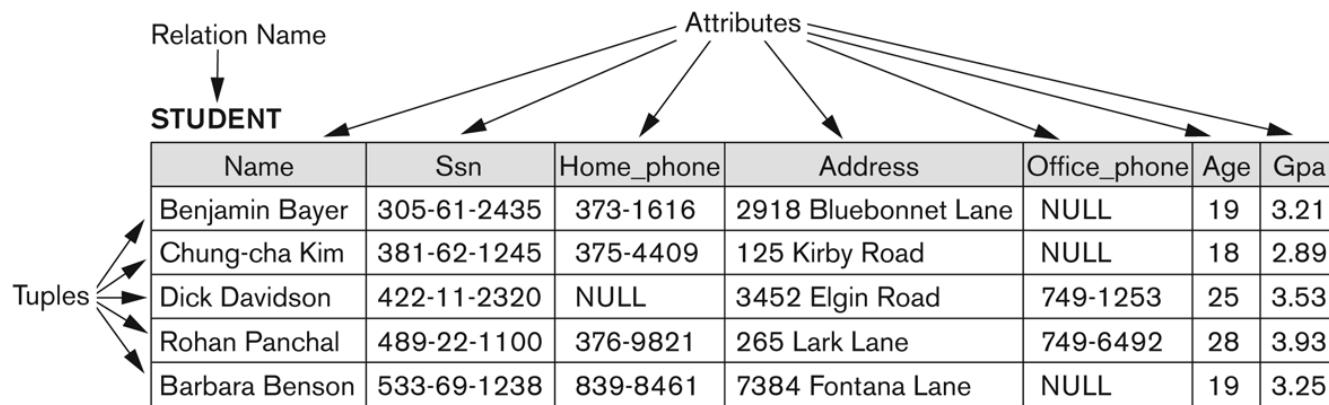


Figure 5.1
The attributes and tuples of a relation STUDENT.

Characteristics Of Relations

Ordering of tuples in a relation $r(R)$:

The tuples are *not considered to be ordered*, even though they appear to be in the tabular form.

Ordering of attributes in a relation schema R (and of values within each tuple):

We will consider the attributes in $R(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n)$ and the values in $t = <v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n>$ to be ordered .

(However, a more general alternative definition of relation does not require this ordering.
It includes both the name and the value for each of the attributes).

Example: $t = \{ <\text{name}, \text{"John"} \gt, <\text{SSN}, 123456789 \gt \}$

This representation may be called as “self-describing”.

Same state as previous Figure (but with different order of tuples)

Figure 5.2

The relation STUDENT from Figure 5.1 with a different order of tuples.

STUDENT

Name	Ssn	Home_phone	Address	Office_phone	Age	Gpa
Dick Davidson	422-11-2320	NULL	3452 Elgin Road	749-1253	25	3.53
Barbara Benson	533-69-1238	839-8461	7384 Fontana Lane	NULL	19	3.25
Rohan Panchal	489-22-1100	376-9821	265 Lark Lane	749-6492	28	3.93
Chung-cha Kim	381-62-1245	375-4409	125 Kirby Road	NULL	18	2.89
Benjamin Bayer	305-61-2435	373-1616	2918 Bluebonnet Lane	NULL	19	3.21

Bibliography / Acknowledgements

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Thank you
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the class!!!