W4111 – Introduction to Databases
Section 002, Fall 2021

Lecture 11: No SQL, Transactions, Big Data

COLUMBIA | ENGINEERING
The Fu Foundation School of Engineering and Applied Science

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  - Query processing and query optimization
  - Transactions and recovery
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- Homework 4:
  - Web applications
  - Data warehouse, data lake, decision support, … …

Needed for HW 4

Course Completion Schedule

Syllabus Topics

- Relational Foundations
  - ~~Overview (1 lecture)~~
  - ~~ER Model (2 lectures)~~
  - ~~Relational Model (4 lectures)~~
  - ~~Relational Algebra (2 lectures)~~
  - ~~SQL (5 lectures)~~
  - ~~Application Programming and Database APIs (1 lecture)~~
  - Security (2 lectures)
  - Normalization (2 lectures)
  - ~~Overview of Storage and Indexes (1 lecture)~~
  - Overview of Query Optimization (1 lecture)
  - Overview of Transaction Processing (1 lecture)
- Beyond Relational Foundations
  - ~~NoSQL (1 lecture)~~
  - Data Preparation and Cleaning (1 lecture)
  - ~~Graphs (1 lecture)~~
  - ~~Object-Relational Databases (2 lectures)~~
  - Cloud Databases (1 lecture)

More Fun with NoSQL

Concepts and Examples

- Comparing Concepts between Database Models
  - SQL
  - MongoDB
  - Neo4j
  - We will briefly add Pandas as an “in notebook” database
- Concepts
  - We have seen *project* for MongoDB. Examples of Neo4j project.
  - JOIN
  - Group By
  - View
- Switch to Notebook

Normalization

Features of Good Relational Designs

- Suppose we combine *instructor* and *department* into *in_dep,* which represents the natural join on the relations *instructor* and *department*

ID	*name*	*salary*	*dept_name*	*building*	*budget*
22222	Einstein	95000	Physics	Watson	70000
12121	Wu	90000	Finance	Painter	120000
32343	El Said	60000	History	Painter	50000
45565	Katz	75000	Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
98345	Kim	80000	Elec. Eng.	Taylor	85000
76766	Crick	72000	Biology	Watson	90000
10101	Srinivasan	65000	Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
58583	Califieri	62000	History	Painter	50000
83821	Brandt	92000	Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
15151	Mozart	40000	Music	Packard	80000
33456	Gold	87000	Physics	Watson	70000
76543	Singh	80000	Finance	Painter	120000

- There is repetition of information
- Need to use null values (if we add a new department with no instructors)

Evil's of Redundancy

The Evils of Redundancy

- *Redundancy* is at the root of several problems associated with relational schemas:
  - redundant storage, insert/delete/update anomalies
- Integrity constraints, in particular *functional dependencies*, can be used to identify schemas with such problems and to suggest refinements.
- Main refinement technique: *decomposition* (replacing ABCD with, say, AB and BCD, or ACD and ABD).
- Decomposition should be used judiciously:
  - Is there reason to decompose a relation?
  - What problems (if any) does the decomposition cause?

Database Management Systems, 3ed, R. Ramakrishnan and J. Gehrke 12

Decomposition

- The only way to avoid the repetition-of-information problem in the i*n_dep* schema is to decompose it into two schemas – instructor and *department* schemas.
- Not all decompositions are good. Suppose we decompose

  employee(ID, name, street, city, salary)

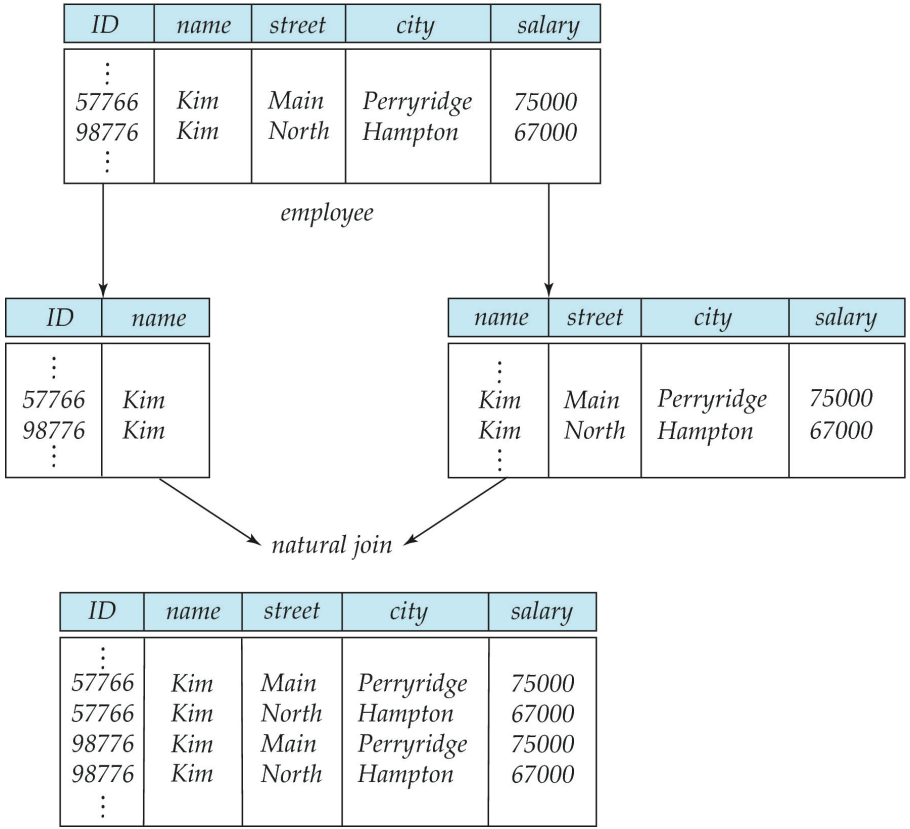
  into

  employee1 (*ID*, *name*)

  employee2 (*name*, *street, city, salary*)

  The problem arises when we have two employees with the same name
- The next slide shows how we lose information -- we cannot reconstruct the original *employee* relation -- and so, this is a **lossy decomposition**.

A Lossy Decomposition



Lossless Decomposition

- Let *R* be a relation schema and let R_1 and R_2 form a decomposition of R . That is R = R_1 U R_2
- We say that the decomposition is a **lossless decomposition** if there is no loss of information by replacing R with the two relation schemas R_1 U R_2
- Formally,

$$\prod_{R_1}(r) \bowtie \prod_{R_2}(r) = r$$

- And, conversely a decomposition is lossy if

$$r \subset \prod_{R_1}(r) \bowtie \prod_{R_2}(r) = r$$

Example of Lossless Decomposition

- Decomposition of $R = (A, B, C)$

  $R_1 = (A, B)$ $R_2 = (B, C)$

A	B	C
α	1	A
β	2	B

r

A	B
α	1
β	2

$\Pi_{A,B}(r)$

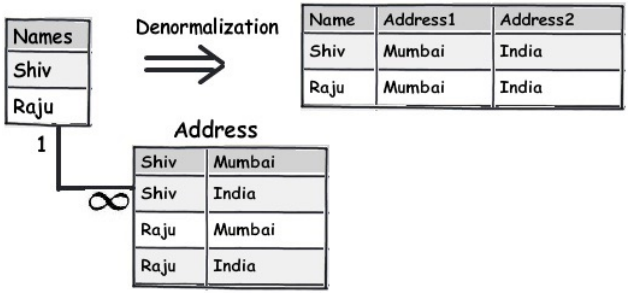
B	C
1	A
2	B

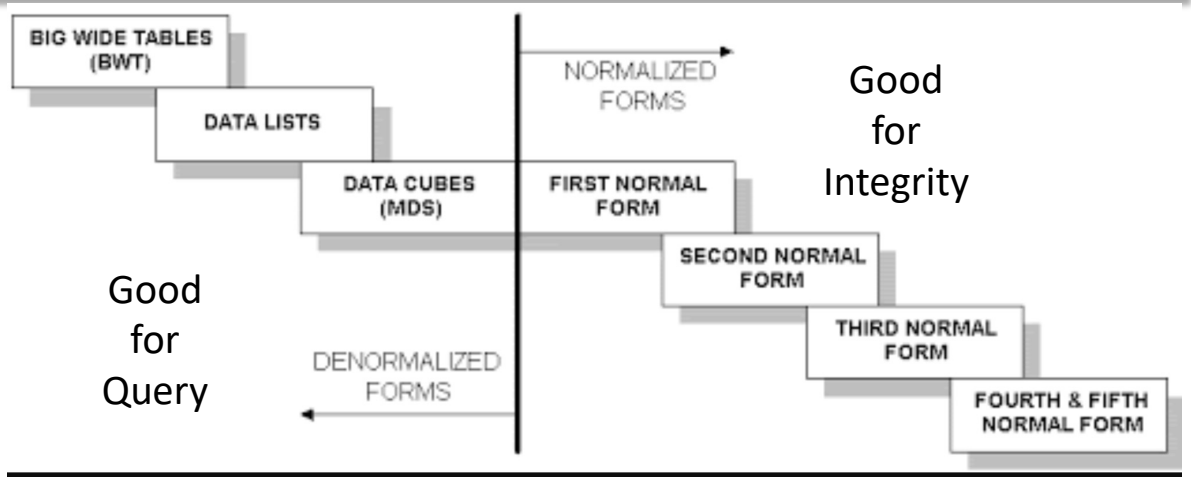
$\Pi_{B,C}(r)$

$\Pi_A (r) \bowtie \Pi_B (r)$

A	B	C
α	1	A
β	2	B

Wide Flat Tables





- Improve query performance by precomputing and saving:
  - JOINs
  - Aggregation
  - Derived/computed columns
- One of the primary strength of the relational model is maintaining "integrity" when applications create, update and delete data. This relies on:
  - The core capabilities of the relational model, e.g. constraints.
  - A well-design database (We will cover a formal definition – "normalization" in more detail later.
- Data models that are well designed for integrity are very bad for read only analysis queries.
  We will build and analyze wide flat tables as part of the analysis tasks in HW3, HW4 as projects.

Normalization Theory

- Decide whether a particular relation R is in "good" form.
- In the case that a relation R is not in "good" form, decompose it into set of relations $\{R_1, R_2, ..., R_n\}$ such that
  - Each relation is in good form
  - The decomposition is a lossless decomposition
- Our theory is based on:
  - Functional dependencies
  - Multivalued dependencies

We will cover details in a future lecture.

Functional Dependencies

- There are usually a variety of constraints (rules) on the data in the real world.
- For example, some of the constraints that are expected to hold in a university database are:
  - Students and instructors are uniquely identified by their ID.
  - Each student and instructor has only one name.
  - Each instructor and student is (primarily) associated with only one department.
  - Each department has only one value for its budget, and only one associated building.

Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- An instance of a relation that satisfies all such real-world constraints is called a **legal instance** of the relation;
- A legal instance of a database is one where all the relation instances are legal instances
- Constraints on the set of legal relations.
- Require that the value for a certain set of attributes determines uniquely the value for another set of attributes.
- A functional dependency is a generalization of the notion of a *key.*

Functional Dependencies Definition

- Let R be a relation schema

$$\alpha \subseteq R \text{ and } \beta \subseteq R$$

- The **functional dependency**

$$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$$

holds on R if and only if for any legal relations $r(R)$, whenever any two tuples t_1 and t_2 of r agree on the attributes α, they also agree on the attributes β. That is,

$$t_1[\alpha] = t_2[\alpha] \Rightarrow t_1[\beta] = t_2[\beta]$$

- Example: Consider $r(A,B)$ with the following instance of r.

1	4
1	5
3	7

- On this instance, $B \rightarrow A$ hold; $A \rightarrow B$ does **NOT** hold,

Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

- Given a set F set of functional dependencies, there are certain other functional dependencies that are logically implied by F.
  - If $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$, then we can infer that $A \rightarrow C$
  - etc.
- The set of **all** functional dependencies logically implied by F is the **closure** of F.
- We denote the *closure* of F by F^+.

Keys and Functional Dependencies

- K is a superkey for relation schema R if and only if $K \rightarrow R$
- K is a candidate key for R if and only if
  - $K \rightarrow R$, and
  - for no $\alpha \subset K$, $\alpha \rightarrow R$
- Functional dependencies allow us to express constraints that cannot be expressed using superkeys. Consider the schema:

  in_dep (*ID, name, salary, dept_name, building, budget*).

  We expect these functional dependencies to hold:

  dept_name→ *building*

  ID → *building*

  but would not expect the following to hold:

  dept_name → *salary*

Use of Functional Dependencies

- We use functional dependencies to:
  - To test relations to see if they are legal under a given set of functional dependencies.
    - If a relation *r* is legal under a set *F* of functional dependencies, we say that *r* **satisfies** *F.*
  - To specify constraints on the set of legal relations
    - We say that *F* **holds on** *R* if all legal relations on *R* satisfy the set of functional dependencies *F.*
- Note: A specific instance of a relation schema may satisfy a functional dependency even if the functional dependency does not hold on all legal instances.
  - For example, a specific instance of *instructor* may, by chance, satisfy
    name $\rightarrow$ *ID.*

Trivial Functional Dependencies

- *A* functional dependency is **trivial** if it is satisfied by all instances of a relation
- Example*:*
  - *ID, name* $\rightarrow$ *ID*
  - *name* $\rightarrow$ *name*
- In general, $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial if $\beta \subseteq \alpha$

Lossless Decomposition

- We can use functional dependencies to show when certain decomposition are lossless.
- For the case of $R = (R_1, R_2)$, we require that for all possible relations r on schema R

$$r = \Pi_{R1}(r) \bowtie \Pi_{R2}(r)$$

- A decomposition of R into R_1 and R_2 is lossless decomposition if at least one of the following dependencies is in F^+:
  - $R_1 \cap R_2 \rightarrow R_1$
  - $R_1 \cap R_2 \rightarrow R_2$
- The above functional dependencies are a sufficient condition for lossless join decomposition; the dependencies are a necessary condition only if all constraints are functional dependencies

Example

- $R = (A, B, C)$
  $F = \{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C)$
- $R_1 = (A, B)$, $R_2 = (B, C)$
  - Lossless decomposition:

    $R_1 \cap R_2 = \{B\}$ and $B \rightarrow BC$
- $R_1 = (A, B)$, $R_2 = (A, C)$
  - Lossless decomposition:

    $R_1 \cap R_2 = \{A\}$ and $A \rightarrow AB$
- *Note:*
  - $B \rightarrow BC$

    is a shorthand notation for
  - $B \rightarrow \{B, C\}$

Dependency Preservation

- Testing functional dependency constraints each time the database is updated can be costly
- It is useful to design the database in a way that constraints can be tested efficiently.
- If testing a functional dependency can be done by considering just one relation, then the cost of testing this constraint is low
- When decomposing a relation it is possible that it is no longer possible to do the testing without having to perform a Cartesian Produced.
- A decomposition that makes it computationally hard to enforce functional dependency is said to be NOT **dependency preserving**.

Dependency Preservation Example

- Consider a schema:

  dept_advisor(s_ID, i_ID, department_name)

- With function dependencies:

  $i\_ID \rightarrow dept\_name$

  $s\_ID, dept\_name \rightarrow i\_ID$

- In the above design we are forced to repeat the department name once for each time an instructor participates in a *dept_advisor* relationship.
- To fix this, we need to decompose *dept_advisor*
- Any decomposition will not include all the attributes in

  $s\_ID, dept\_name \rightarrow i\_ID$

- Thus, the composition NOT be dependency preserving

Boyce-Codd Normal Form

- A relation schema R is in BCNF with respect to a set F of functional dependencies if for all functional dependencies in F^+ of the form

  $$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$$

  where $\alpha \subseteq R$ and $\beta \subseteq R$, at least one of the following holds:
  - $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial (i.e., $\beta \subseteq \alpha$)
  - α is a superkey for R

Boyce-Codd Normal Form (Cont.)

- Example schema that is ***not*** in BCNF:

  in_dep (*ID, name, salary, dept_name, building, budget*)

  because :

  - *dept_name*→ *building, budget*
    - holds on *in_dep*
    - but
  - *dept_name* is not a superkey
- When decompose *in_dept* into *instructor* and *department*
  - *instructor* is in BCNF
  - *department* is in BCNF

Decomposing a Schema into BCNF

- Let R be a schema R that is not in BCNF. Let $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ be the FD that causes a violation of BCNF.
- We decompose R into:
  - $(\alpha \cup \beta)$
  - $(R - (\beta - \alpha))$
- In our example of *in_dep*,
  - α = *dept_name*
  - β = *building, budget*

  and *in_dep* is replaced by
  - $(\alpha \cup \beta)$ = (*dept_name, building, budget*)
  - $(R - (\beta - \alpha))$ = (*ID, name, dept_name, salary*)

Example

- $R = (A, B, C)$
  $F = \{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C)$
- $R_1 = (A, B)$, $R_2 = (B, C)$
  - Lossless-join decomposition:

    $$R_1 \cap R_2 = \{B\} \quad \text{and } B \rightarrow BC$$

  - Dependency preserving
- $R_1 = (A, B)$, $R_2 = (A, C)$
  - Lossless-join decomposition:

    $$R_1 \cap R_2 = \{A\} \text{ and } A \rightarrow AB$$

  - Not dependency preserving
    (cannot check $B \rightarrow C$ without computing $R_1 \bowtie R_2$)

BCNF and Dependency Preservation

- It is not always possible to achieve both BCNF and dependency preservation
- Consider a schema:

  dept_advisor(s_ID, i_ID, department_name)
- With function dependencies:

  $i\_ID \rightarrow dept\_name$

  $s\_ID, dept\_name \rightarrow i\_ID$
- *dept_advisor* is not in BCNF
  - *i_ID* is not a superkey.
- Any decomposition of *dept_advisor* will not include all the attributes in

  $s\_ID, dept\_name \rightarrow i\_ID$
- Thus, the composition is NOT be dependency preserving

Third Normal Form

- A relation schema R is in **third normal form (3NF)** if for all:

  $$\alpha \rightarrow \beta \text{ in } F^+$$

  at least one of the following holds:

  - $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial (i.e., $\beta \in \alpha$)
  - α is a superkey for R
  - Each attribute A in $\beta - \alpha$ is contained in a candidate key for R.

    (**NOTE**: each attribute may be in a different candidate key)
- If a relation is in BCNF it is in 3NF (since in BCNF one of the first two conditions above must hold).
- Third condition is a minimal relaxation of BCNF to ensure dependency preservation (will see why later).

3NF Example

- Consider a schema:

  dept_advisor(s_ID, i_ID, dept_name)
- With function dependencies:

  $i\_ID \rightarrow dept\_name$

  $s\_ID, dept\_name \rightarrow i\_ID$
- Two candidate keys = {*s_ID, dept_name*}, {*s_ID, i_ID* }
- We have seen before that *dept_advisor* is not in BCNF
- *R,* however, is in 3NF
  - *s_ID, dept_name* is a superkey
  - $i\_ID \rightarrow dept\_name$ *and* *i_ID* is NOT a superkey, but:
    - { *dept_name*} – {*i_ID* } = {*dept_name* } and
    - *dept_name* is contained in a candidate key

Redundancy in 3NF

- Consider the schema R below, which is in 3NF
  - $R = (J, K, L)$
  - $F = \{JK \rightarrow L, L \rightarrow K\}$
  - And an instance table:

J	L	K
j_1	l_1	k_1
j_2	l_1	k_1
j_3	l_1	k_1
null	l_2	k_2

- What is wrong with the table?
  - Repetition of information
  - Need to use null values (e.g., to represent the relationship l_2, k_2 where there is no corresponding value for J)

Comparison of BCNF and 3NF

- Advantages to 3NF over BCNF. It is always possible to obtain a 3NF design without sacrificing losslessness or dependency preservation.
- Disadvantages to 3NF.
  - We may have to use null values to represent some of the possible meaningful relationships among data items.
  - There is the problem of repetition of information.

Goals of Normalization

- Let R be a relation scheme with a set F of functional dependencies.
- Decide whether a relation scheme R is in "good" form.
- In the case that a relation scheme R is not in "good" form, need to decompose it into a set of relation scheme $\{R_1, R_2, ..., R_n\}$ such that:
  - Each relation scheme is in good form
  - The decomposition is a lossless decomposition
  - Preferably, the decomposition should be dependency preserving.

How good is BCNF?

- There are database schemas in BCNF that do not seem to be sufficiently normalized
- Consider a relation

  inst_info (ID, child_name, phone)

  - where an instructor may have more than one phone and can have multiple children
  - Instance of *inst_info*

ID	*child_name*	*phone*
99999	David	512-555-1234
99999	David	512-555-4321
99999	William	512-555-1234
99999	William	512-555-4321

How good is BCNF? (Cont.)

- There are no non-trivial functional dependencies and therefore the relation is in BCNF
- Insertion anomalies – i.e., if we add a phone 981-992-3443 to 99999, we need to add two tuples

(99999, David, 981-992-3443)
(99999, William, 981-992-3443)

Higher Normal Forms

- It is better to decompose *inst_info* into:
  - *inst_child*:

ID	*child_name*
99999	David
99999	William

  - *inst_phone:*

ID	*phone*
99999	512-555-1234
99999	512-555-4321

- This suggests the need for higher normal forms, such as Fourth Normal Form (4NF), which we shall see later

Functional-Dependency Theory Roadmap

- We now consider the formal theory that tells us which functional dependencies are implied logically by a given set of functional dependencies.
- We then develop algorithms to generate lossless decompositions into BCNF and 3NF
- We then develop algorithms to test if a decomposition is dependency-preserving

Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

- Given a set F set of functional dependencies, there are certain other functional dependencies that are logically implied by F.
  - If $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$, then we can infer that $A \rightarrow C$
  - etc.
- The set of **all** functional dependencies logically implied by F is the **closure** of F.
- We denote the *closure* of F by F^+.

Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

- We can compute F^+, the closure of F, by repeatedly applying **Armstrong's Axioms:**
  - **Reflexive rule:** if $\beta \subseteq \alpha$, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$
  - **Augmentation rule:** if $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, then $\gamma\ \alpha \rightarrow \gamma\ \beta$
  - **Transitivity rule:** if $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, and $\beta \rightarrow \gamma$, then $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$
- These rules are
  - **Sound** -- generate only functional dependencies that actually hold, and
  - **Complete** -- generate all functional dependencies that hold.

Example of F^+

- $R = (A, B, C, G, H, I)$
  $F = \{ A \rightarrow B$
  $A \rightarrow C$
  $CG \rightarrow H$
  $CG \rightarrow I$
  $B \rightarrow H\}$
- Some members of F^+
  - $A \rightarrow H$
    - by transitivity from $A \rightarrow B$ *and* $B \rightarrow H$
  - $AG \rightarrow I$
    - by augmenting $A \rightarrow C$ with G, to get $AG \rightarrow CG$
      and then transitivity with $CG \rightarrow I$
  - $CG \rightarrow HI$
    - by augmenting $CG \rightarrow I$ to infer $CG \rightarrow CGI$,
      and augmenting of $CG \rightarrow H$ to infer $CGI \rightarrow HI$,
      and then transitivity

Closure of Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- Additional rules:
  - **Union rule**: If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds *a*nd $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ holds, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta\gamma$ holds.
  - **Decomposition rule**: If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta\gamma$ holds, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds and $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ holds.
  - **Pseudotransitivity rule**:If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds *a*nd $\gamma\ \beta \rightarrow \delta$ holds, then $\alpha\ \gamma \rightarrow \delta$ holds**.**
- The above rules can be inferred from Armstrong's axioms.

Procedure for Computing F+

- To compute the closure of a set of functional dependencies F:

  $F^+ = F$
  repeat
  for each functional dependency f in F^+
  apply reflexivity and augmentation rules on f
  add the resulting functional dependencies to F^+
  for each pair of functional dependencies f_1 and f_2 in F^+
  if f_1 and f_2 can be combined using transitivity
  then add the resulting functional dependency to F^+
  until F^+ does not change any further

- **NOTE**: We shall see an alternative procedure for this task later

Closure of Attribute Sets

- Given a set of attributes α, define the ***closure*** of α **under** F (denoted by α^+) as the set of attributes that are functionally determined by α under F
- Algorithm to compute α^+, the closure of α under F

```
result := α;
while (changes to result) do
        for each β → γ in F do
          begin
              if β ⊆ result then  result := result ∪ γ
          end
```

Example of Attribute Set Closure

- $R = (A, B, C, G, H, I)$
- $F = \{A \rightarrow B$
  $A \rightarrow C$
  $CG \rightarrow H$
  $CG \rightarrow I$
  $B \rightarrow H\}$
- $(AG)^+$
  1. $result = AG$
  2. $result = ABCG$ $(A \rightarrow C$ and $A \rightarrow B)$
  3. $result = ABCGH$ $(CG \rightarrow H$ and $CG \subseteq AGBC)$
  4. $result = ABCGHI$ $(CG \rightarrow I$ and $CG \subseteq AGBCH)$
- Is AG a candidate key?
  1. Is AG a super key?
     1. Does $AG \rightarrow R$? == Is $R \supseteq (AG)^+$
  2. Is any subset of AG a superkey?
     1. Does $A \rightarrow R$? == Is $R \supseteq (A)^+$
     2. Does $G \rightarrow R$? == Is $R \supseteq (G)^+$
     3. In general: check for each subset of size $n-1$

Uses of Attribute Closure

There are several uses of the attribute closure algorithm:

- Testing for superkey:
  - To test if α is a superkey, we compute α^+, and check if α^+ contains all attributes of R.
- Testing functional dependencies
  - To check if a functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds (or, in other words, is in F^+), just check if $\beta \subseteq \alpha^+$.
  - That is, we compute α^+ by using attribute closure, and then check if it contains β.
  - Is a simple and cheap test, and very useful
- Computing closure of F
  - For each $\gamma \subseteq R$, we find the closure γ^+, and for each $S \subseteq \gamma^+$, we output a functional dependency $\gamma \rightarrow S$.

Canonical Cover

- Suppose that we have a set of functional dependencies F on a relation schema. Whenever a user performs an update on the relation, the database system must ensure that the update does not violate any functional dependencies; that is, all the functional dependencies in F are satisfied in the new database state.
- If an update violates any functional dependencies in the set F, the system must roll back the update.
- We can reduce the effort spent in checking for violations by testing a simplified set of functional dependencies that has the same closure as the given set.
- This simplified set is termed the **canonical cover**
- To define canonical cover we must first define **extraneous attributes.**
  - An attribute of a functional dependency in F is **extraneous** if we can remove it without changing F^+

Extraneous Attributes

- Removing an attribute from the left side of a functional dependency could make it a stronger constraint.
  - For example, if we have $AB \rightarrow C$ and remove B, we get the possibly stronger result $A \rightarrow C$. It may be stronger because $A \rightarrow C$ logically implies $AB \rightarrow C$, but $AB \rightarrow C$ does not, on its own, logically imply $A \rightarrow C$
- But, depending on what our set F of functional dependencies happens to be, we may be able to remove B from $AB \rightarrow C$ safely.
  - For example, suppose that
  - $F = \{AB \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow D, D \rightarrow C\}$
  - Then we can show that F logically implies $A \rightarrow C$, making extraneous in $AB \rightarrow C$.

Extraneous Attributes (Cont.)

- Removing an attribute from the right side of a functional dependency could make it a weaker constraint.
  - For example, if we have AB $\rightarrow$ CD and remove C, we get the possibly weaker result AB $\rightarrow$ D. It may be weaker because using just AB $\rightarrow$ D, we can no longer infer AB $\rightarrow$ C.
- But, depending on what our set F of functional dependencies happens to be, we may be able to remove C from AB $\rightarrow$ CD safely.
  - For example, suppose that

    F = { AB $\rightarrow$ CD, A $\rightarrow$ C.
  - Then we can show that even after replacing AB $\rightarrow$ CD by AB $\rightarrow$ D, we can still infer $AB $\rightarrow$ C and thus AB $\rightarrow$ CD.

Extraneous Attributes

- An attribute of a functional dependency in F is **extraneous** if we can remove it without changing F^+
- Consider a set F of functional dependencies and the functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in F.
  - **Remove from the left side**: Attribute A is **extraneous** in α if
    - $A \in \alpha$ and
    - F logically implies $(F - \{\alpha \rightarrow \beta\}) \cup \{(\alpha - A) \rightarrow \beta\}$.
  - **Remove from the right side**: Attribute A is **extraneous** in β if
    - $A \in \beta$ and
    - The set of functional dependencies

      $(F - \{\alpha \rightarrow \beta\}) \cup \{\alpha \rightarrow (\beta - A)\}$ logically implies F.
- *Note:* implication in the opposite direction is trivial in each of the cases above, since a "stronger" functional dependency always implies a weaker one

Testing if an Attribute is Extraneous

- Let R be a relation schema and let F be a set of functional dependencies that hold on R. Consider an attribute in the functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$.
- To test if attribute $A \in \beta$ is extraneous in β
  - Consider the set:
    $$F' = (F - \{\alpha \rightarrow \beta\}) \cup \{\alpha \rightarrow (\beta - A)\},$$
  - check that α^+ contains A; if it does, A is extraneous in β
- To test if attribute $A \in \alpha$ is extraneous in α
  - Let $\gamma = \alpha - \{A\}$. Check if $\gamma \rightarrow \beta$ can be inferred from F.
    - Compute γ^+ using the dependencies in F
    - If γ^+ includes all attributes in β then , A is extraneous in α

Examples of Extraneous Attributes

- Let $F = \{AB \rightarrow CD, A \rightarrow E, E \rightarrow C\}$
- To check if C is extraneous in $AB \rightarrow CD$, we:
  - Compute the attribute closure of AB under $F' = \{AB \rightarrow D, A \rightarrow E, E \rightarrow C\}$
  - The closure is $ABCDE$, which includes CD
  - This implies that C is extraneous

Canonical Cover

A **canonical cover** for F is a set of dependencies F_c such that

- F logically implies all dependencies in F_c , and
- F_c logically implies all dependencies in F, and
- No functional dependency in F_c contains an extraneous attribute, and
- Each left side of functional dependency in F_c is unique. That is, there are no two dependencies in F_c
  - $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \beta_1$ and $\alpha_2 \rightarrow \beta_2$ such that
  - $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2$

Canonical Cover

- To compute a canonical cover for *F*:

  repeat

  Use the union rule to replace any dependencies in *F* of the form

  $$\alpha_1 \rightarrow \beta_1 \text{ and } \alpha_1 \rightarrow \beta_2 \text{ with } \alpha_1 \rightarrow \beta_1 \beta_2$$

  Find a functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in F_c with an extraneous attribute either in α or in β

  /* Note: test for extraneous attributes done using F_c, not F*/

  If an extraneous attribute is found, delete it from $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$

  until (F_c not change

- Note: Union rule may become applicable after some extraneous attributes have been deleted, so it has to be re-applied

Example: Computing a Canonical Cover

- $R = (A, B, C)$
  $F = \{A \rightarrow BC$
  $B \rightarrow C$
  $A \rightarrow B$
  $AB \rightarrow C\}$
- Combine $A \rightarrow BC$ and $A \rightarrow B$ into $A \rightarrow BC$
  - Set is now $\{A \rightarrow BC, B \rightarrow C, AB \rightarrow C\}$
- A is extraneous in $AB \rightarrow C$
  - Check if the result of deleting A from $AB \rightarrow C$ is implied by the other dependencies
    - Yes: in fact, $B \rightarrow C$ is already present!
  - Set is now $\{A \rightarrow BC, B \rightarrow C\}$
- C is extraneous in $A \rightarrow BC$
  - Check if $A \rightarrow C$ is logically implied by $A \rightarrow B$ and the other dependencies
    - Yes*:* using transitivity on $A \rightarrow B$ *and* $B \rightarrow$ C.
      - Can use attribute closure of A in more complex cases
- The canonical cover is: $A \rightarrow B$
  $B \rightarrow C$

Dependency Preservation

- Let F_i be the set of dependencies F^+ that include only attributes in R_i.
  - A decomposition is **dependency preserving**, if

    $$(F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \ldots \cup F_n)^+ = F^+$$
- Using the above definition, testing for dependency preservation take exponential time.
- Not that if a decomposition is NOT dependency preserving then checking updates for violation of functional dependencies may require computing joins, which is expensive.

Dependency Preservation (Cont.)

- Let F be the set of dependencies on schema R and let R_1, R_2, .., R_n be a decomposition of R.
- The restriction of F to R_i is the set F_i of all functional dependencies in F^+ that include **only** attributes of R_i.
- Since all functional dependencies in a restriction involve attributes of only one relation schema, it is possible to test such a dependency for satisfaction by checking only one relation.
- Note that the definition of restriction uses all dependencies in in F^+, not just those in F.
- The set of restrictions F_1, F_2, .. , F_n is the set of functional dependencies that can be checked efficiently.

Testing for Dependency Preservation

- To check if a dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is preserved in a decomposition of R into $R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_n$, we apply the following test (with attribute closure done with respect to F)
  - *result* = α
    repeat
    for each R_i in the decomposition
    $t = (result \cap R_i)^+ \cap R_i$
    $result = result \cup t$
    until (*result* does not change)
  - If *result* contains all attributes in β, then the functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is preserved.
- We apply the test on all dependencies in F to check if a decomposition is dependency preserving
- This procedure takes polynomial time, instead of the exponential time required to compute F^+ and $(F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \ldots \cup F_n)^+$

Example

- $R = (A, B, C)$
  $F = \{A \rightarrow B$
  $B \rightarrow C\}$
  Key = $\{A\}$
- R is not in BCNF
- Decomposition $R_1 = (A, B)$, $R_2 = (B, C)$
  - R_1 and R_2 in BCNF
  - Lossless-join decomposition
  - Dependency preserving

Query Processing

Query Processing Overview

Query Compilation

Database Systems: The Complete Book (2nd Edition) 2nd Edition
by Hector Garcia-Molina (Author), Jeffrey D. Ullman (Author), Jennifer Widom (Author)

Preview of Query Compilation

To set the context for query execution, we offer a very brief outline of the content of the next chapter. Query compilation is divided into the three major steps shown in Fig. 15.2.

a) *Parsing*. A *parse tree* for the query is constructed.

b) *Query Rewrite*. The parse tree is converted to an initial query plan, which is usually an algebraic representation of the query. This initial plan is then transformed into an equivalent plan that is expected to require less time to execute.

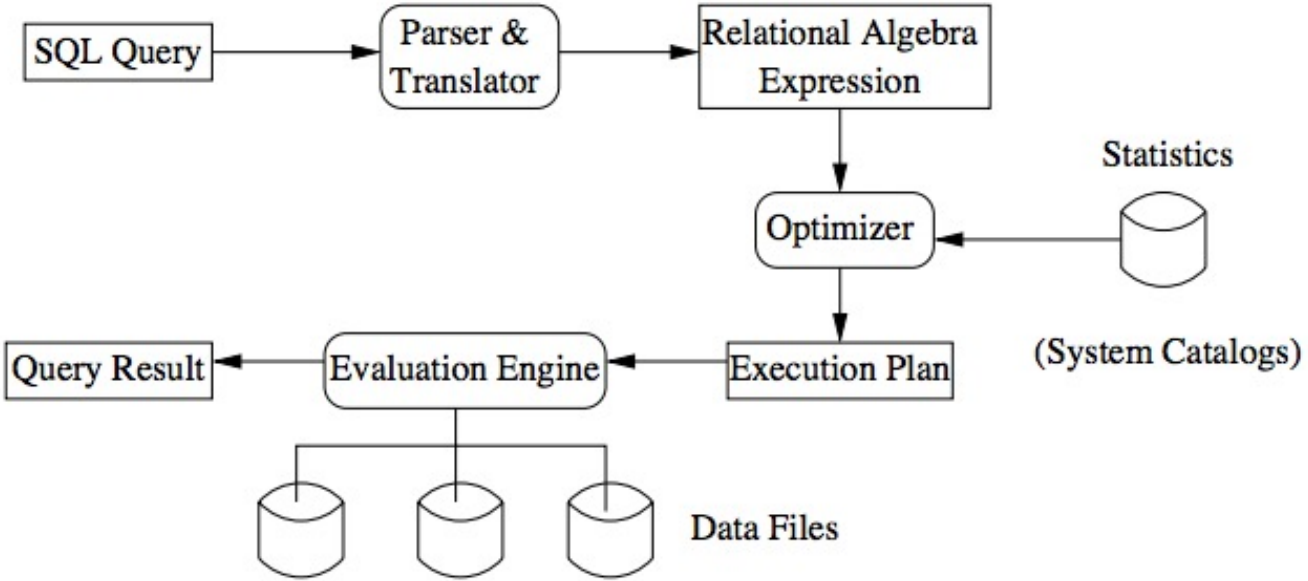
c) *Physical Plan Generation*. The abstract query plan from (b), often called a *logical query plan*, is turned into a *physical query plan* by selecting algorithms to implement each of the operators of the logical plan, and by selecting an order of execution for these operators. The physical plan, like the result of parsing and the logical plan, is represented by an expression tree. The physical plan also includes details such as how the queried relations are accessed, and when and if a relation should be sorted.

Parsing and Execution

- Parser/Translator
  - Verifies syntax correctness and generates a *parse tree.*
  - Converts to *logical plan tree* that defines how to execute the query.
    - Tree nodes are *operator(tables, parameters)*
    - Edges are the flow of data “up the tree” from node to node.
- Optimizer
  - Modifies the logical plan to define an improved execution.
  - Query rewrite/transformation.
  - Determines *how* to choose among multiple implementations of operators.
- Engine
  - Executes the plan
  - May modify the plan to *optimize* execution, e.g. using indexes.

Query Processing Overview

Basic Steps in Processing an SQL Query



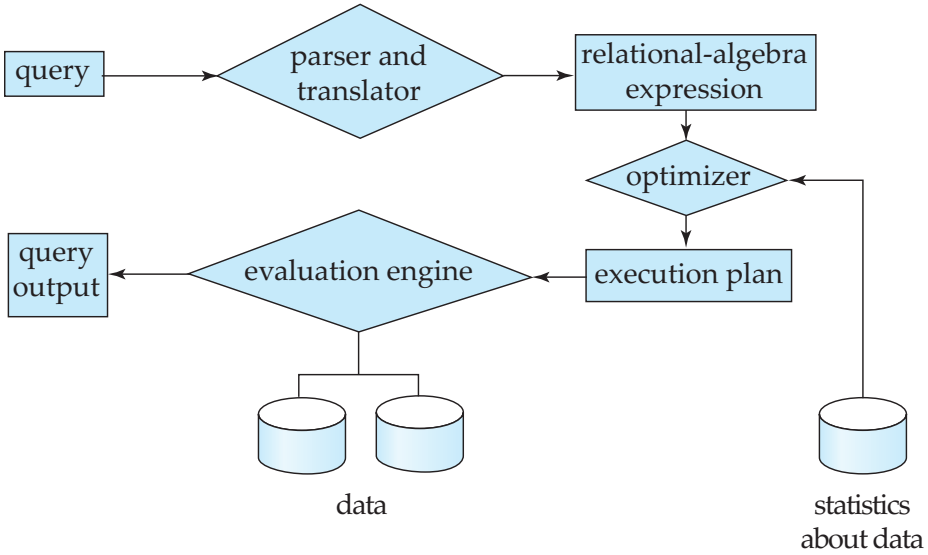
Chapter 15
From the Book

Chapter 15: Query Processing

- Overview
- Measures of Query Cost
- Selection Operation
- Sorting
- Join Operation
- Other Operations
- Evaluation of Expressions

Basic Steps in Query Processing

1. Parsing and translation
2. Optimization
3. Evaluation



Basic Steps in Query Processing (Cont.)

- Parsing and translation
  - translate the query into its internal form. This is then translated into relational algebra.
  - Parser checks syntax, verifies relations
- Evaluation
  - The query-execution engine takes a query-evaluation plan, executes that plan, and returns the answers to the query.

Basic Steps in Query Processing: Optimization

- A relational algebra expression may have many equivalent expressions
  - E.g., $\sigma_{salary<75000}(\Pi_{salary}(instructor))$ is equivalent to $\Pi_{salary}(\sigma_{salary<75000}(instructor))$
- Each relational algebra operation can be evaluated using one of several different algorithms
  - Correspondingly, a relational-algebra expression can be evaluated in many ways.
- Annotated expression specifying detailed evaluation strategy is called an **evaluation-plan**. E.g.,:
  - Use an index on *salary* to find instructors with salary < 75000,
  - Or perform complete relation scan and discard instructors with salary ≥ 75000

Basic Steps: Optimization (Cont.)

- **Query Optimization**: Amongst all equivalent evaluation plans choose the one with lowest cost.
  - Cost is estimated using statistical information from the database catalog
    - e.g.. number of tuples in each relation, size of tuples, etc.
- In this chapter we study
  - How to measure query costs
  - Algorithms for evaluating relational algebra operations
  - How to combine algorithms for individual operations in order to evaluate a complete expression
- In Chapter 16
  - We study how to optimize queries, that is, how to find an evaluation plan with lowest estimated cost

Measures of Query Cost

- Many factors contribute to time cost
  - *disk access, CPU*, and network *communication*
- Cost can be measured based on
  - **response time**, i.e. total elapsed time for answering query, or
  - total **resource consumption**
- We use total resource consumption as cost metric
  - Response time harder to estimate, and minimizing resource consumption is a good idea in a shared database
- We ignore CPU costs for simplicity
  - Real systems do take CPU cost into account
  - Network costs must be considered for parallel systems
- We describe how estimate the cost of each operation
  - We do not include cost to writing output to disk

Measures of Query Cost

- Disk cost can be estimated as:
  - Number of seeks * average-seek-cost
  - Number of blocks read * average-block-read-cost
  - Number of blocks written * average-block-write-cost
- For simplicity we just use the **number of block transfers** *from disk and the* **number of seeks** as the cost measures
  - t_T – time to transfer one block
    - Assuming for simplicity that write cost is same as read cost
  - t_S – time for one seek
  - Cost for b block transfers plus S seeks
    $b * t_T + S * t_S$
- t_S and t_T depend on where data is stored; with 4 KB blocks:
  - High end magnetic disk: t_S = 4 msec and t_T =0.1 msec
  - SSD: t_S = 20-90 microsec and t_T = 2-10 microsec for 4KB

Measures of Query Cost (Cont.)

- Required data may be buffer resident already, avoiding disk I/O
  - But hard to take into account for cost estimation
- Several algorithms can reduce disk IO by using extra buffer space
  - Amount of real memory available to buffer depends on other concurrent queries and OS processes, known only during execution
- Worst case estimates assume that no data is initially in buffer and only the minimum amount of memory needed for the operation is available
  - But more optimistic estimates are used in practice

Join Operation

- Several different algorithms to implement joins
  - Nested-loop join
  - Block nested-loop join
  - Indexed nested-loop join
  - Merge-join
  - Hash-join
- Choice based on cost estimate
- Examples use the following information
  - Number of records of *student*: 5,000 *takes*: 10,000
  - Number of blocks of *student*: 100 *takes*: 400

- R JOIN L = L JOIN R
  - R is scan table
  - L is probe

Nested-Loop Join

- To compute the theta join $r \bowtie_\theta s$

  for each tuple t_r **in** r **do begin**
    for each tuple t_s **in** s **do begin**
      test pair (t_r, t_s) to see if they satisfy the join condition θ
      if they do, add $t_r \cdot t_s$ to the result.
    end
  end

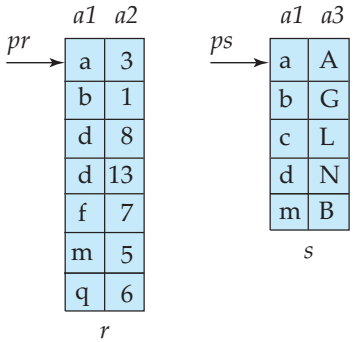
- r is called the **outer relation** and s the **inner relation** of the join.
- Requires no indices and can be used with any kind of join condition.
- Expensive since it examines every pair of tuples in the two relations.

Indexed Nested-Loop Join

- Index lookups can replace file scans if
  - join is an equi-join or natural join and
  - an index is available on the inner relation's join attribute
    - Can construct an index just to compute a join.
- For each tuple t_r in the outer relation *r,* use the index to look up tuples in *s* that satisfy the join condition with tuple t_r.
- Worst case: buffer has space for only one page of *r*, and, for each tuple in *r*, we perform an index lookup on *s.*
- Cost of the join: $b_r (t_T + t_S) + n_r * c$
  - Where *c* is the cost of traversing index and fetching all matching *s* tuples for one tuple or *r*
  - *c* can be estimated as cost of a single selection on *s* using the join condition.
- If indices are available on join attributes of both *r* and *s,* use the relation with fewer tuples as the outer relation.

Merge-Join

1. Sort both relations on their join attribute (if not already sorted on the join attributes).
2. Merge the sorted relations to join them
    1. Join step is similar to the merge stage of the sort-merge algorithm.
    2. Main difference is handling of duplicate values in join attribute — every pair with same value on join attribute must be matched
    3. Detailed algorithm in book



Merge-Join (Cont.)

- Can be used only for equi-joins and natural joins
- Each block needs to be read only once (assuming all tuples for any given value of the join attributes fit in memory
- Thus the cost of merge join is:

  $b_r + b_s$ block transfers $+ \lceil b_r / b_b \rceil + \lceil b_s / b_b \rceil$ seeks

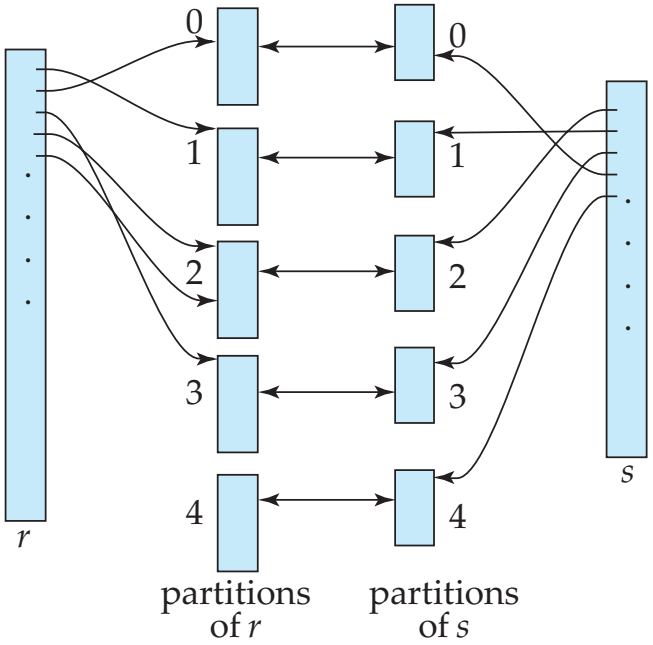
  + the cost of sorting if relations are unsorted.
- **hybrid merge-join:** If one relation is sorted, and the other has a secondary B^+-tree index on the join attribute
  - Merge the sorted relation with the leaf entries of the B^+-tree .
  - Sort the result on the addresses of the unsorted relation's tuples
  - Scan the unsorted relation in physical address order and merge with previous result, to replace addresses by the actual tuples
    - Sequential scan more efficient than random lookup

Hash-Join

- Applicable for equi-joins and natural joins.
- A hash function *h* is used to partition tuples of both relations
- *h* maps *JoinAttrs* values to {0, 1, ..., *n*}, where *JoinAttrs* denotes the common attributes of *r* and *s* used in the natural join.
  - $r_0, r_1, \ldots, r_n$ denote partitions of *r* tuples
    - Each tuple $t_r \in r$ is put in partition r_i where $i = h(t_r[JoinAttrs])$.
  - $r_0, r_1 \ldots, r_n$ denotes partitions of *s* tuples
    - Each tuple $t_s \in s$ is put in partition s_i, where $i = h(t_s[JoinAttrs])$.
- *Note:* In book, Figure 12.10 r_i is denoted as H_{ri}, s_i is denoted as H_{si} and *n* is denoted as n_h.

- *R JOIN L --> O(R*L)*
- *1. Build a hash index on L → O(L)*
- *O (R) * O(1) + O(L)*

Hash-Join (Cont.)



Hash-Join Algorithm

The hash-join of r and s is computed as follows.

1. Partition the relation s using hashing function h. When partitioning a relation, one block of memory is reserved as the output buffer for each partition.
2. Partition r similarly.
3. For each i:
   (a) Load s_i into memory and build an in-memory hash index on it using the join attribute. This hash index uses a different hash function than the earlier one h.
   (b) Read the tuples in r_i from the disk one by one. For each tuple t_r locate each matching tuple t_s in s_i using the in-memory hash index. Output the concatenation of their attributes.

Relation s is called the **build input** and r is called the **probe input**.

Hash-Join algorithm (Cont.)

- The value n and the hash function h is chosen such that each s_i should fit in memory.
  - Typically n is chosen as $\lceil b_s/M \rceil * f$ where f is a "**fudge factor**", typically around 1.2
  - The probe relation partitions s_i need not fit in memory
- **Recursive partitioning** required if number of partitions n is greater than number of pages M of memory.
  - instead of partitioning n ways, use $M - 1$ partitions for s
  - Further partition the $M - 1$ partitions using a different hash function
  - Use same partitioning method on r
  - Rarely required: e.g., with block size of 4 KB, recursive partitioning not needed for relations of < 1GB with memory size of 2MB, or relations of < 36 GB with memory of 12 MB

Other Operations

- **Duplicate elimination** can be implemented via hashing or sorting.
  - On sorting duplicates will come adjacent to each other, and all but one set of duplicates can be deleted.
  - *Optimization:* duplicates can be deleted during run generation as well as at intermediate merge steps in external sort-merge.
  - Hashing is similar – duplicates will come into the same bucket.
- **Projection**:
  - perform projection on each tuple
  - followed by duplicate elimination.

Other Operations : Aggregation

- **Aggregation** can be implemented in a manner similar to duplicate elimination.
  - **Sorting** or **hashing** can be used to bring tuples in the same group together, and then the aggregate functions can be applied on each group.
  - Optimization*:* **partial aggregation**
    - combine tuples in the same group during run generation and intermediate merges, by computing partial aggregate values
    - For count, min, max, sum: keep aggregate values on tuples found so far in the group.
      - When combining partial aggregate for count, add up the partial aggregates
    - For avg, keep sum and count, and divide sum by count at the end

Evaluation of Expressions

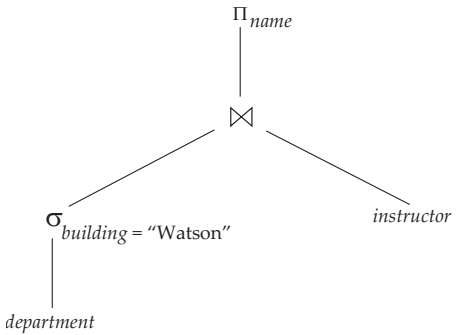
- So far: we have seen algorithms for individual operations
- Alternatives for evaluating an entire expression tree
  - **Materialization**: generate results of an expression whose inputs are relations or are already computed, **materialize** (store) it on disk. Repeat.
  - **Pipelining**: pass on tuples to parent operations even as an operation is being executed
- We study above alternatives in more detail

Materialization

- **Materialized evaluation**: evaluate one operation at a time, starting at the lowest-level. Use intermediate results materialized into temporary relations to evaluate next-level operations.
- E.g., in figure below, compute and store

$$\sigma_{building="\text{Watson}"}(department)$$

then compute the store its join with *instructor,* and finally compute the projection on *name.*



Materialization (Cont.)

- Materialized evaluation is always applicable
- Cost of writing results to disk and reading them back can be quite high
  - Our cost formulas for operations ignore cost of writing results to disk, so
    - Overall cost = Sum of costs of individual operations + cost of writing intermediate results to disk
- **Double buffering**: use two output buffers for each operation, when one is full write it to disk while the other is getting filled
  - Allows overlap of disk writes with computation and reduces execution time

Pipelining

- **Pipelined evaluation**: evaluate several operations simultaneously, passing the results of one operation on to the next.
- E.g., in previous expression tree, don't store result of

$$\sigma_{building = \text{"Watson"}}(department)$$

  - instead, pass tuples directly to the join.. Similarly, don't store result of join, pass tuples directly to projection.
- Much cheaper than materialization: no need to store a temporary relation to disk.
- Pipelining may not always be possible – e.g., sort, hash-join.
- For pipelining to be effective, use evaluation algorithms that generate output tuples even as tuples are received for inputs to the operation.
- Pipelines can be executed in two ways: **demand driven** and **producer driven**

Pipelining (Cont.)

- In **demand driven** or **lazy** evaluation
  - system repeatedly requests next tuple from top level operation
  - Each operation requests next tuple from children operations as required, in order to output its next tuple
  - In between calls, operation has to maintain "**state**" so it knows what to return next
- In **producer-driven** or **eager** pipelining
  - Operators produce tuples eagerly and pass them up to their parents
    - Buffer maintained between operators, child puts tuples in buffer, parent removes tuples from buffer
    - if buffer is full, child waits till there is space in the buffer, and then generates more tuples
  - System schedules operations that have space in output buffer and can process more input tuples
- Alternative name: **pull** and **push** models of pipelining

Pipelining (Cont.)

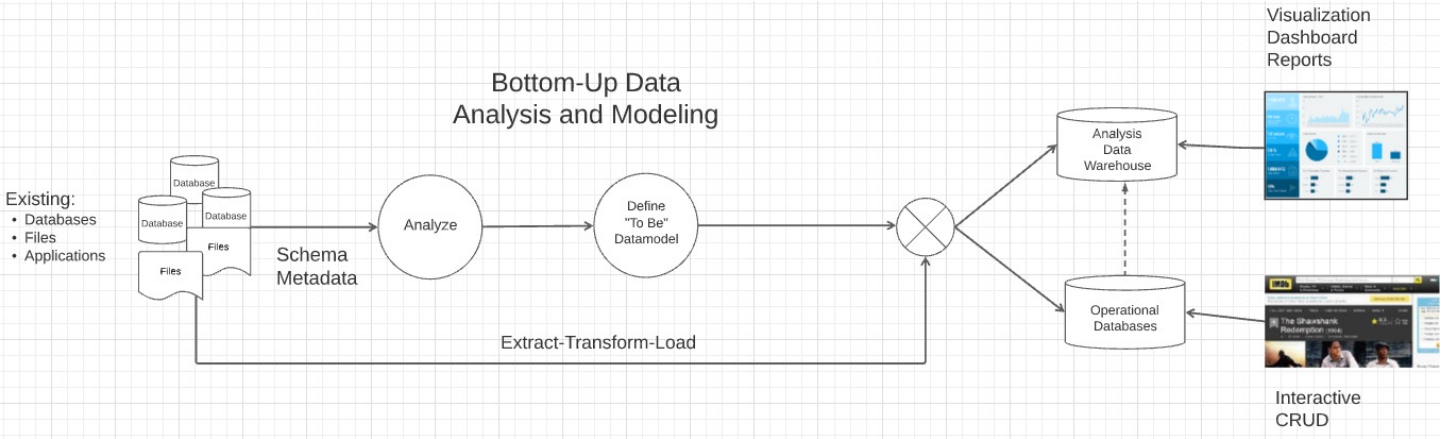
- Implementation of demand-driven pipelining
  - Each operation is implemented as an **iterator** implementing the following operations
    - **open()**
      - E.g., file scan: initialize file scan
        - state: pointer to beginning of file
      - E.g., merge join: sort relations;
        - state: pointers to beginning of sorted relations
    - **next()**
      - E.g., for file scan: Output next tuple, and advance and store file pointer
      - E.g., for merge join: continue with merge from earlier state till next output tuple is found. Save pointers as iterator state.
    - **close()**

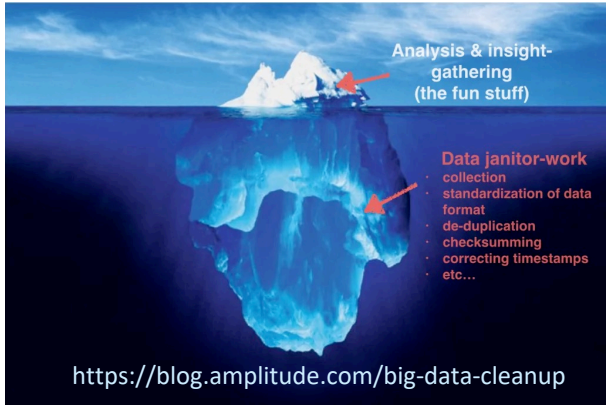
HW3A – Setting the Foundation for HW3 and HW4 ➔ Project

Types of Database Application

- Overly simplistically, there are two broad categories of database applications.
  1. Online/Interactive/Transactional:
     - Supports users interactively performing CRUD on objects-entities:
       - Retrieve: Support for querying and finding entities using relatively simple, often predefined parameterized queries.
       - Create, Update, Delete of specific entities
     - Examples:
       - Online banking, e-commerce, …
       - SSOL
  2. Decision Support:
     - Read only.
     - Ad-hoc, complex queries.
     - Exploration, visualization, report generation, … …
- Most environments have both types, which are integrated.
- Both types require well-designed databases and data models.

Homework 3A – Laying the Foundation





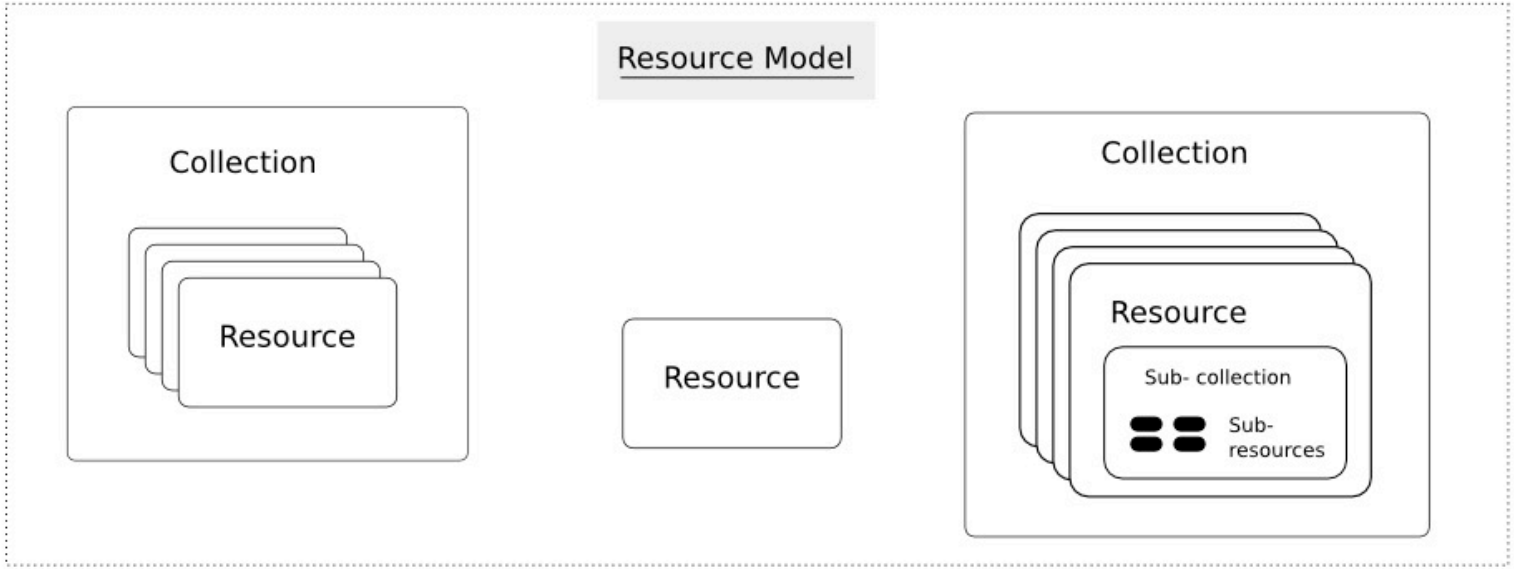
Data Models and REST

Data Modeling Concepts and REST

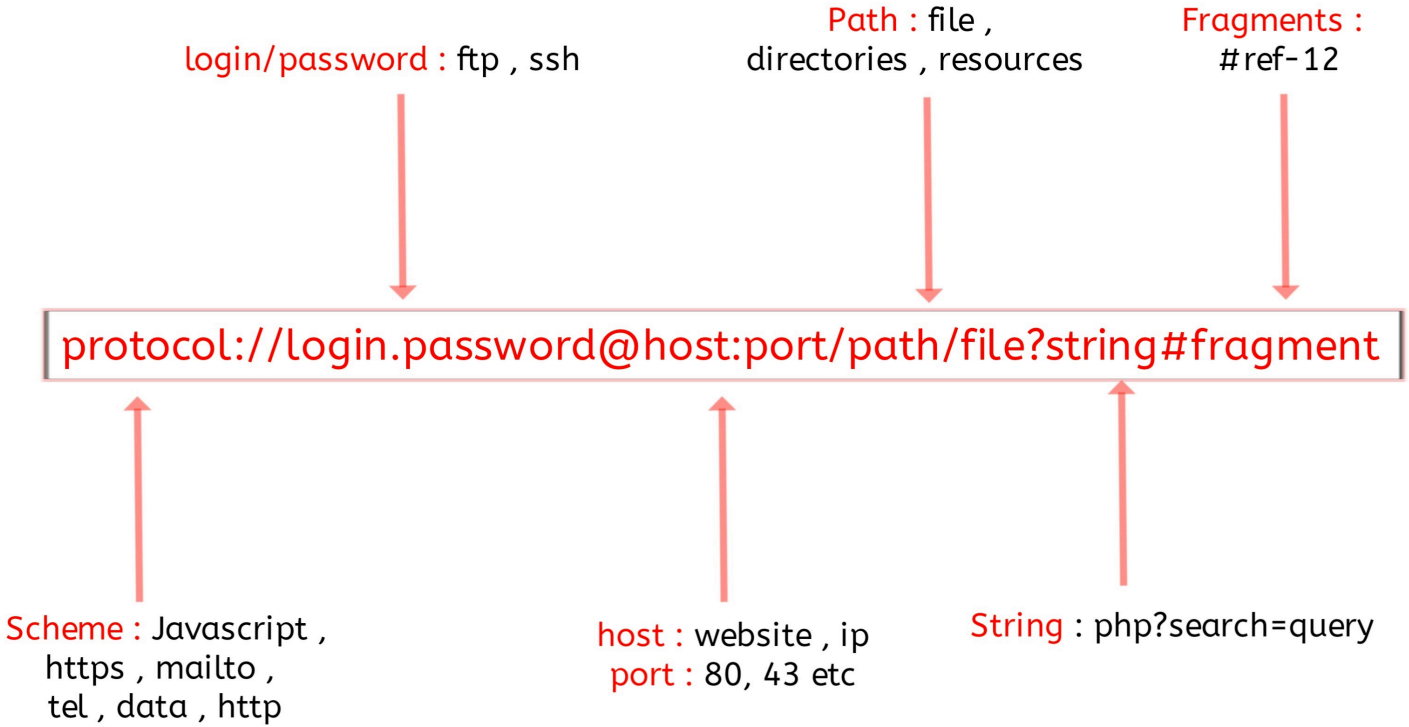
Almost any data model has the same core concepts:

- Types and instances:
  - Entity Type: A definition of a type of thing with properties and relationships.
  - Entity Instance: A specific instantiation of the Entity Type
  - Entity Set Instance: An Entity Type that:
    - Has properties and relationships like any entity, but ...
    - Has at least one *special relationship* – ***contains.***
- Operations, minimally CRUD, that manipulate entity types and instances:
  - Create
  - Retrieve
  - Update
  - Delete
  - Reference/Identify/... ...

REST and Resources



URLs



URL Mappings

- Some URLs: This gets you to the database service (program)
  - http://127.0.0.1:5001/api
  - mysql+pymysql://dbuser:dbuserdbuser@localhost
  - mongodb://mongodb0.example.com:27017
  - neo4j://graph.example.com:7687
- You still have to get into a database within the service:
  - SQL: use lahmansbaseballdb
  - MongoDB: db.lahmansbaseballdb
  - HTTP://127.0.0.1:5001/api/lahmansbaseballdb
  - … …
- And then into things inside of things inside of things … In the database.

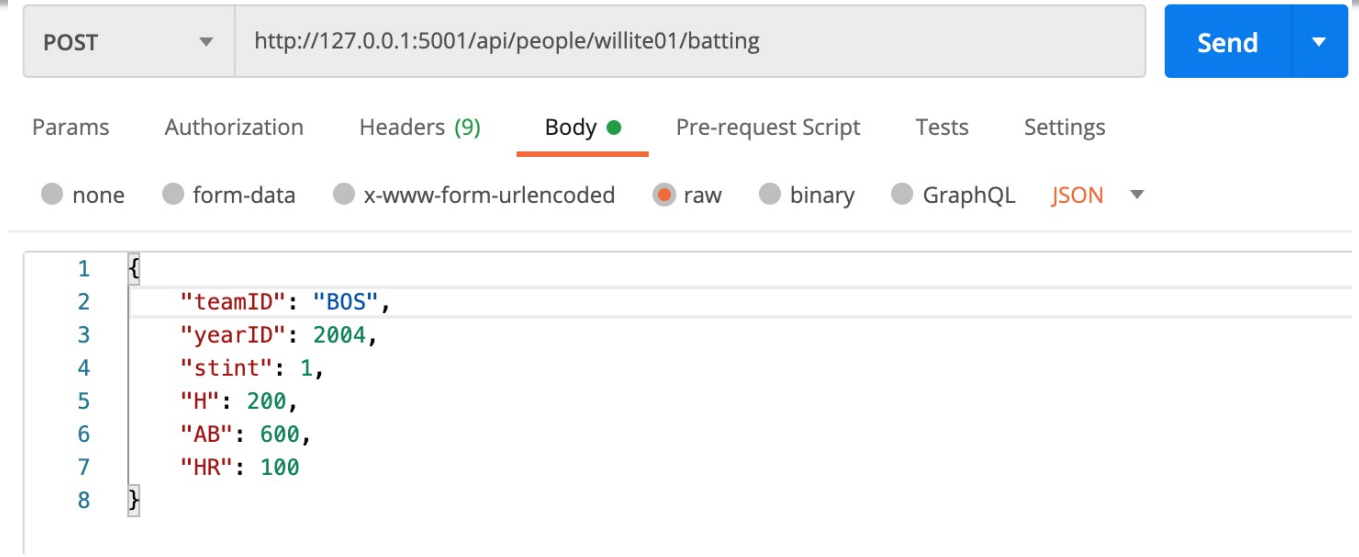
Simplistic, Conceptual Mapping (Examples)

REST Method	Resource Path	Relational Operation	DB Resource
DELETE	/people	DROP TABLE	people table
POST	/people	INSERT INTO PEOPLE (...) VALUES(...)	people table people row
GET	/people/21	SHOW KEYS FROM people ...; SELECT * FROM people WHERE playerID= 21	people row
GET	/people/21/batting	SELECT batting.* FROM people JOIN batting USING(playerID) WHERE playerID=21	
GET	/people/21/batting/2004_1	SELECT batting.* FROM people JOIN batting USING(playerID) WHERE playerID=21 AND yearID=2004 AND stint=1	

PUT, DELETE, UPDATE

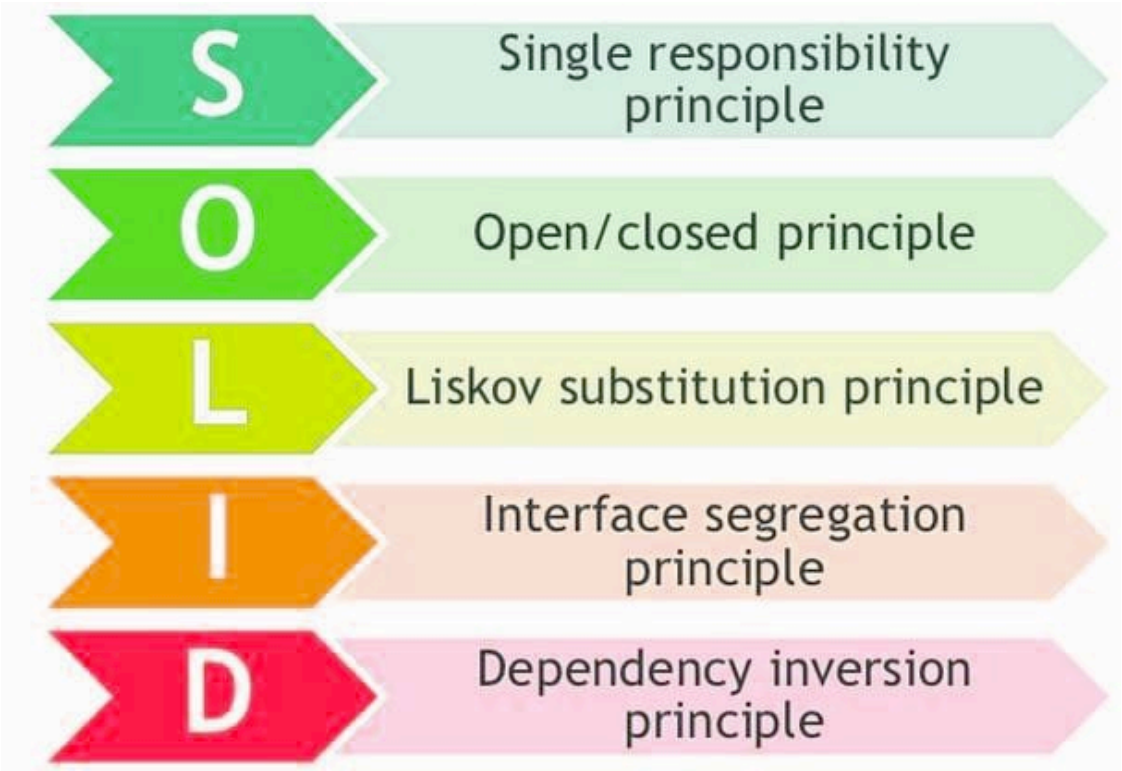
- /people?
  - POST (INSERT)
  - GET (SELECT ... WHERE ...)
- /people/21
  - WHERE peopleID=21
  - DELETE → DELETE WHERE
  - PUT → UPDATE SET ..... WHERE
  - GET SELECT ... WHERE

Simplistic, Conceptual Mapping (Examples)

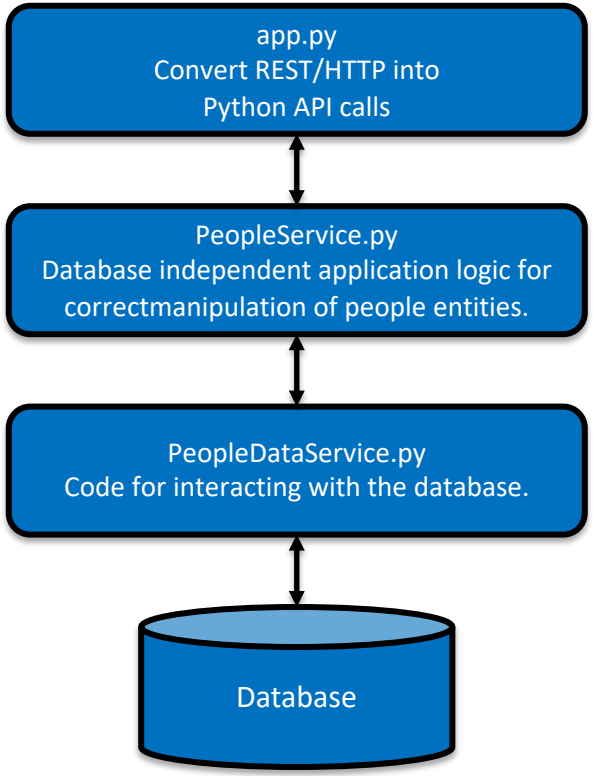



```
INSERT INTO
    batting(playerID, teamID, yearID, stint, H, AB, HR)
    VALUES ("willite01", "BOS", 2004, 1, 200, 600, 100)
```


SOLID (SW) Design Principle

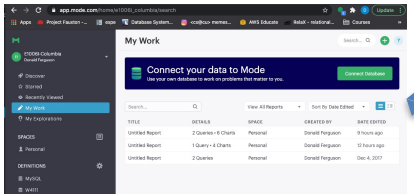


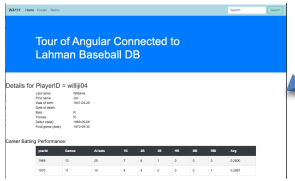
Single Responsibility



HW3 (Project)
To Be Refined and Simplified!

Target Application/Project(s) – Reminder





Data Insight Service

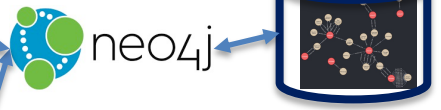
Web Application

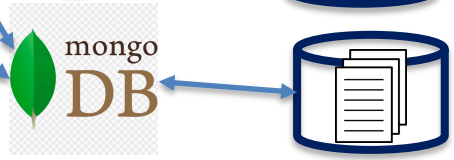
Social Network Service

Core Data Service

Comment Discussion Service

DB Access Service





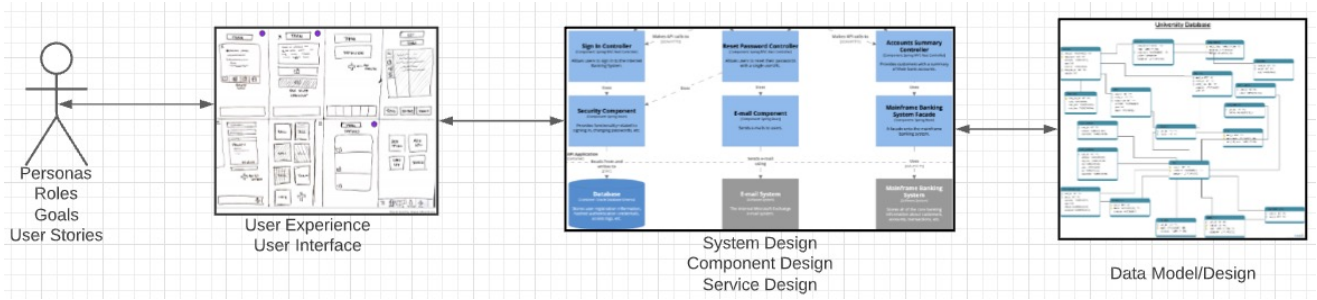
Target Application/Project – Reminder (Lecture 1)

- That diagram was pretty confusing.
- Basically, what it comes down to is that there will be major subsystems:
  1. Interactive web application for viewing, navigating and updating data.
     The updates have to preserve *semantic constraints* and correctness.
  2. A decision support warehouse/lake that allows us to explore data and get insights.
- Programming and non-programming tracks will get experience with both, but
  - Non-programming track focuses on data engineering needed to produce (2).
  - Programming track will focus on (1).
- We will use is *IMDB and Game of Thrones* because:
  - It has aspects and tasks interesting to both tracks.
  - We have an existing data set that we have been using.
  - There are interesting additional sources of data and use cases.

Operational System (Web Application)

Problem Statement – Modified (Lecture 1 Reminder)

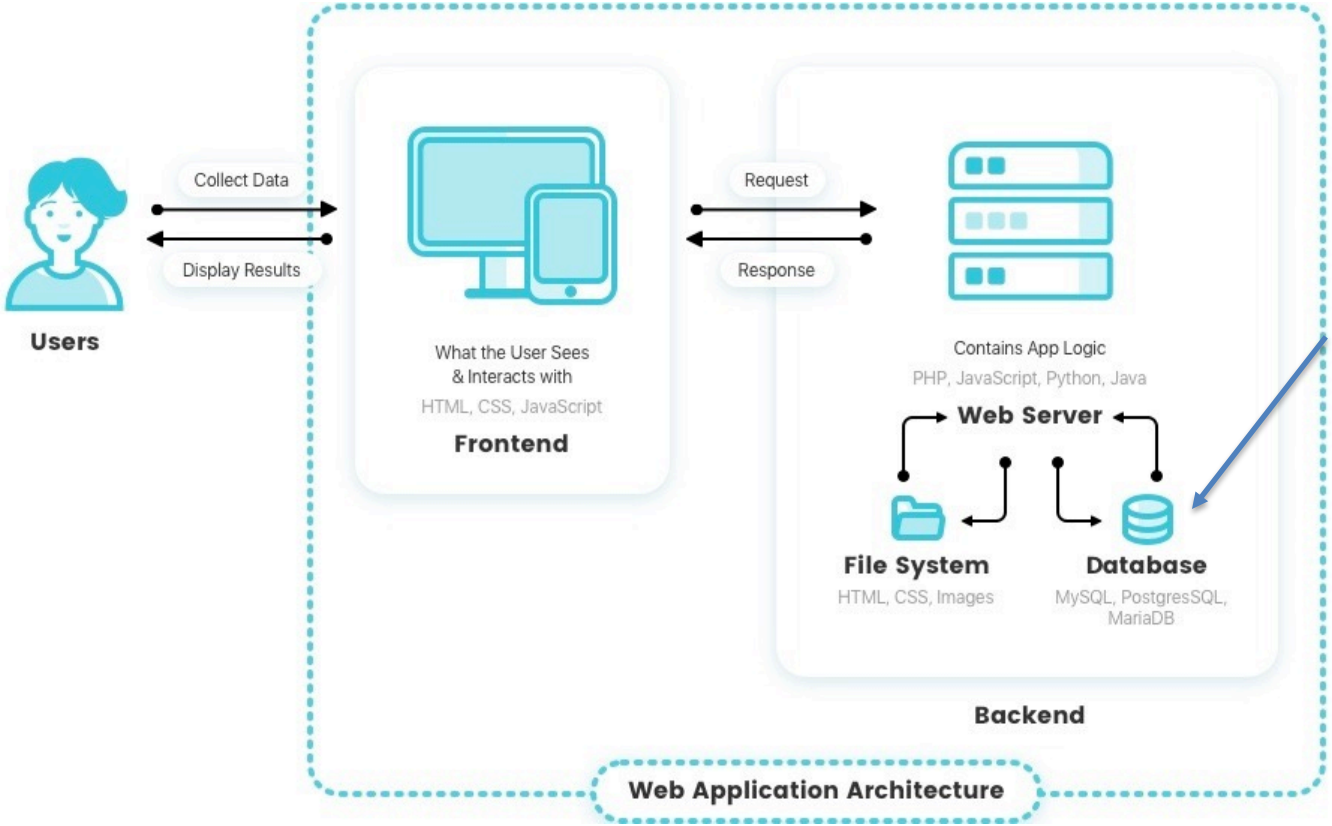
- We must build a system that supports ... ... operations in a ... ...
- We will design, develop, test and deploy the system iteratively and continuously.
- There are four core domains.



- In this course,
- We focus on the data dimension.
- We will get some insight into the other dimensions.

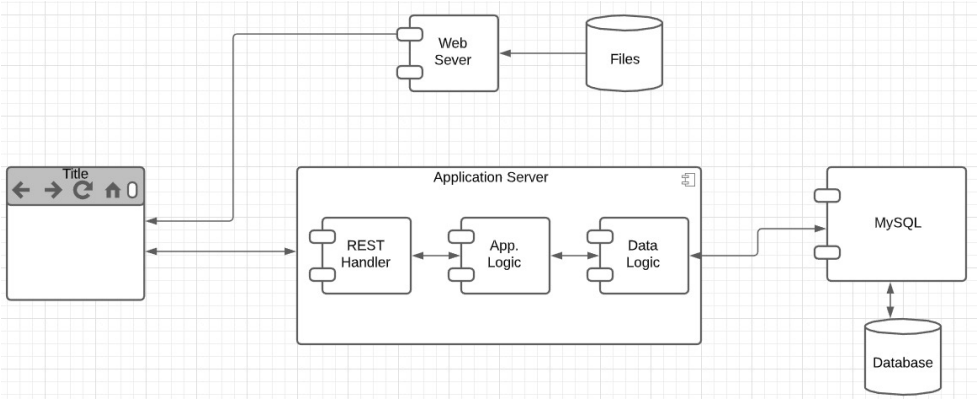
- The processes are iterative, with continuous extension and details.
- We will start implementing various *user stories.* Implementation requires:
  - Web UI
  - Paths
  - Data model and operations.

Web Application – Operational System



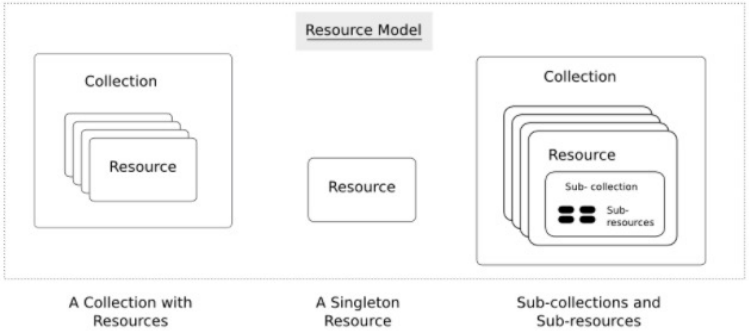
User Story

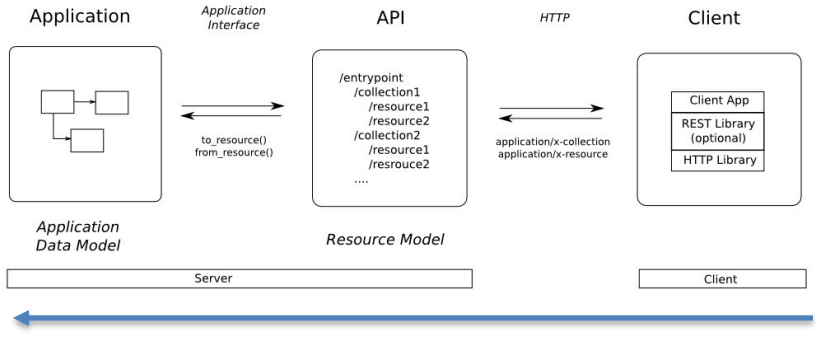
- "In software development and product management, a user story is an informal, natural language description of one or more features of a software system. User stories are often written from the perspective of an end user or user of a system. " (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/User_story)
- Example user stories that I need to implement for the operational system:
  - "As a fantasy team manager, I want to search for players based on career stats."
  - "As a fantasy team manager, I want to add a player to my fantasy team.
  - etc.
- I need to implement:
  - UI
  - Application logic
  - Database tables.



Simple Example – A Resource

https://restful-api-design.readthedocs.io/en/latest/resources.html





Interaction flow is right-to-left in this diagram.

- Resources: (https://restful-api-design.readthedocs.io/en/latest/resources.html)
  - The fundamental concept in any RESTful API is the resource. A resource is an object with a type, associated data, relationships to other resources, and a set of methods that operate on it.
  - … … information that describes available resources types, their behavior, and their relationships the resource model of an API. The resource model can be viewed as the RESTful mapping of the application data model.
- APIs:
  - … … APIs expose functionality of an application or service that exists independently of the API. (DFF comment – the data)
  - Understanding enough of the important details of the application for which an API is to be created, so that an informed decision can be made as to what functionality needs to be exposed … …
  - Modeling this functionality in an API that addresses all use cases that come up in the real world … …

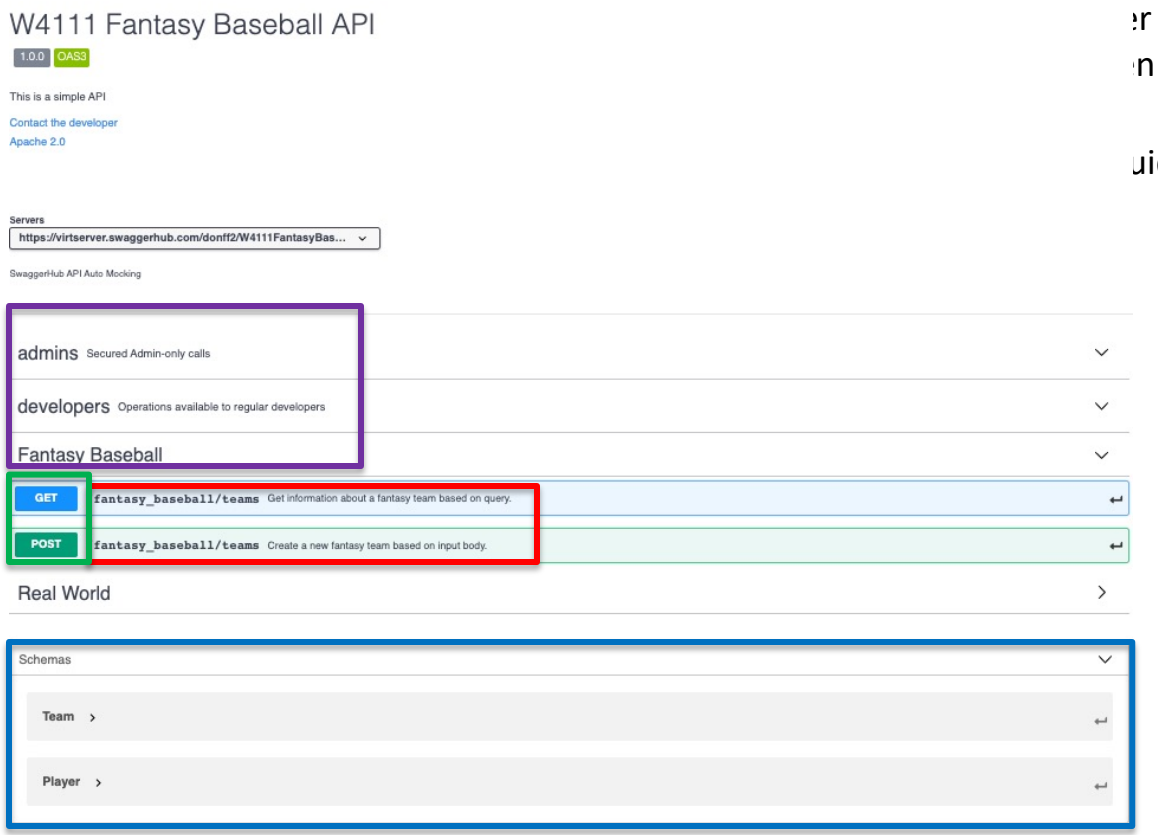
CRUD (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Create,_read,_update_and_delete)

- Definitions:
  - "In computer programming, create, read, update, and delete[1] (CRUD) are the four basic functions of persistent storage."
  - "The acronym CRUD refers to all of the major functions that are implemented in relational database applications. Each letter in the acronym can map to a standard Structured Query Language (SQL) statement, Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP) method (this is typically used to build RESTful APIs[5]) or Data Distribution Service (DDS) operation."

CRUD	SQL	HTTP	DDS
create	INSERT	PUT	write
read	SELECT	GET	read
update	UPDATE	PUT	write
delete	DELETE	DELETE	dispose

- Do not worry about Data Distribution Service.
- For our purposes HTTP – REST
- Entity Set:
  - Table in SQL
  - Collection Resource in REST.
- Entity:
  - Row in SQL
  - Resource in REST

REST API Definition



er HTTP in a similar way to web browsers and
n a fundamental requirement of software

uiding constraints which must be satisfied if an

Open API Definition

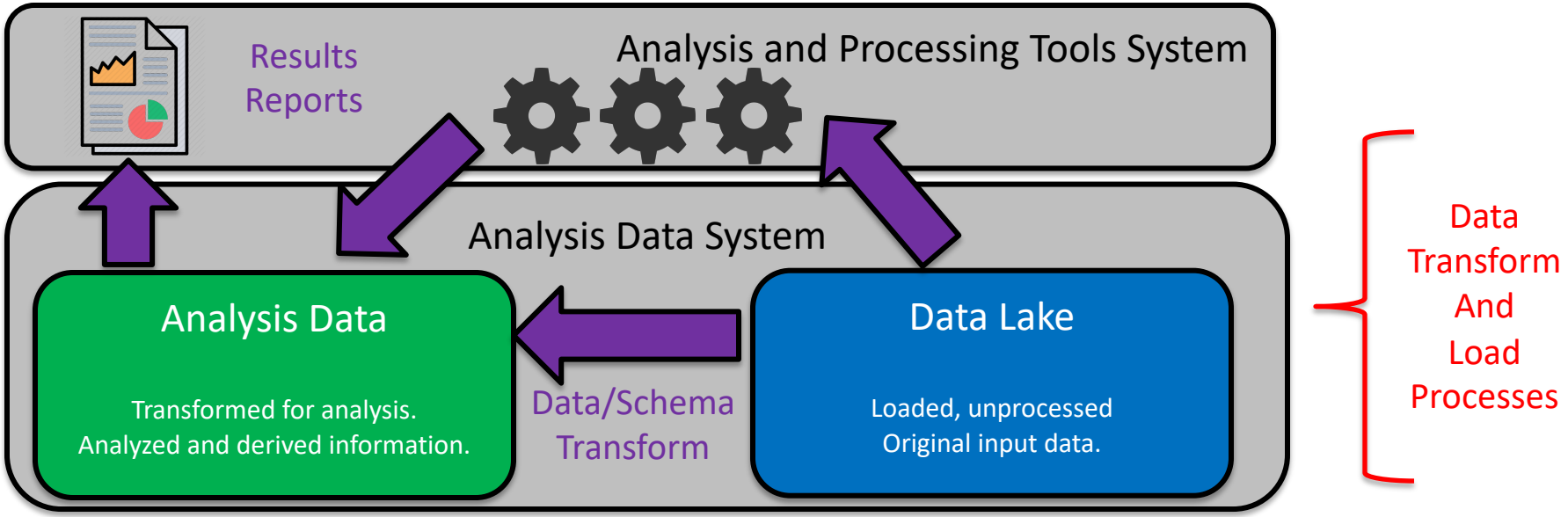
- API Tags/Groupings
- A resource has
  - Paths
  - Methods
- Schema (Data Formats)
  - Sent on POST and PUT
  - Returned on GET

This material is just FYI and to help with understanding concepts, mapping to DB, ...

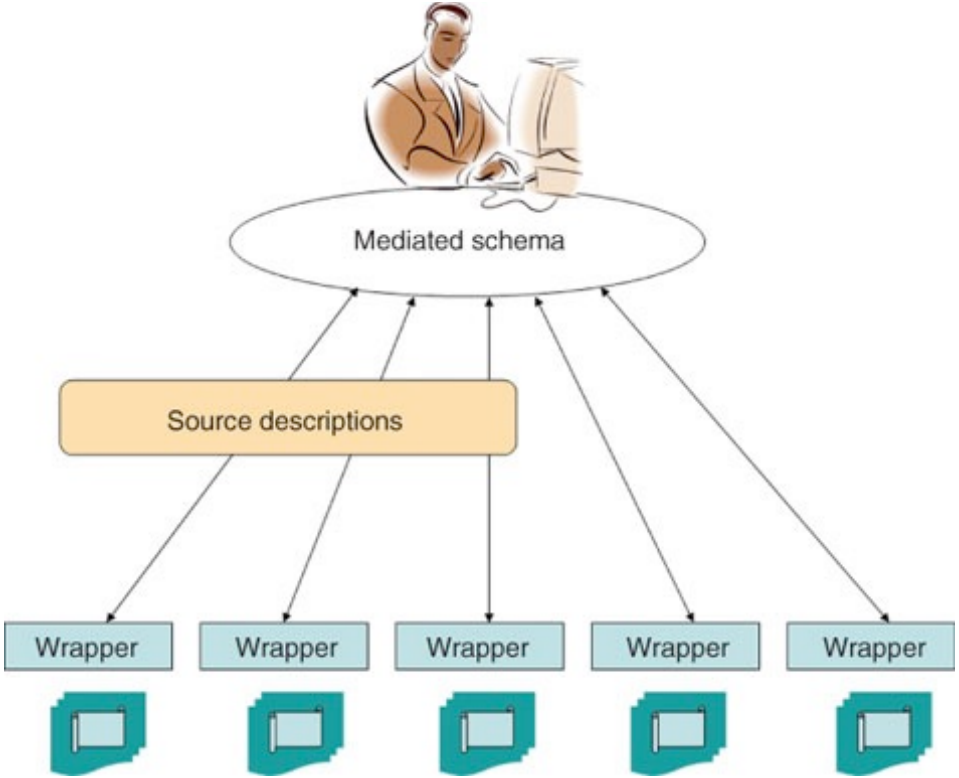
Analysis System

Analysis System – Fantasy Baseball Concept

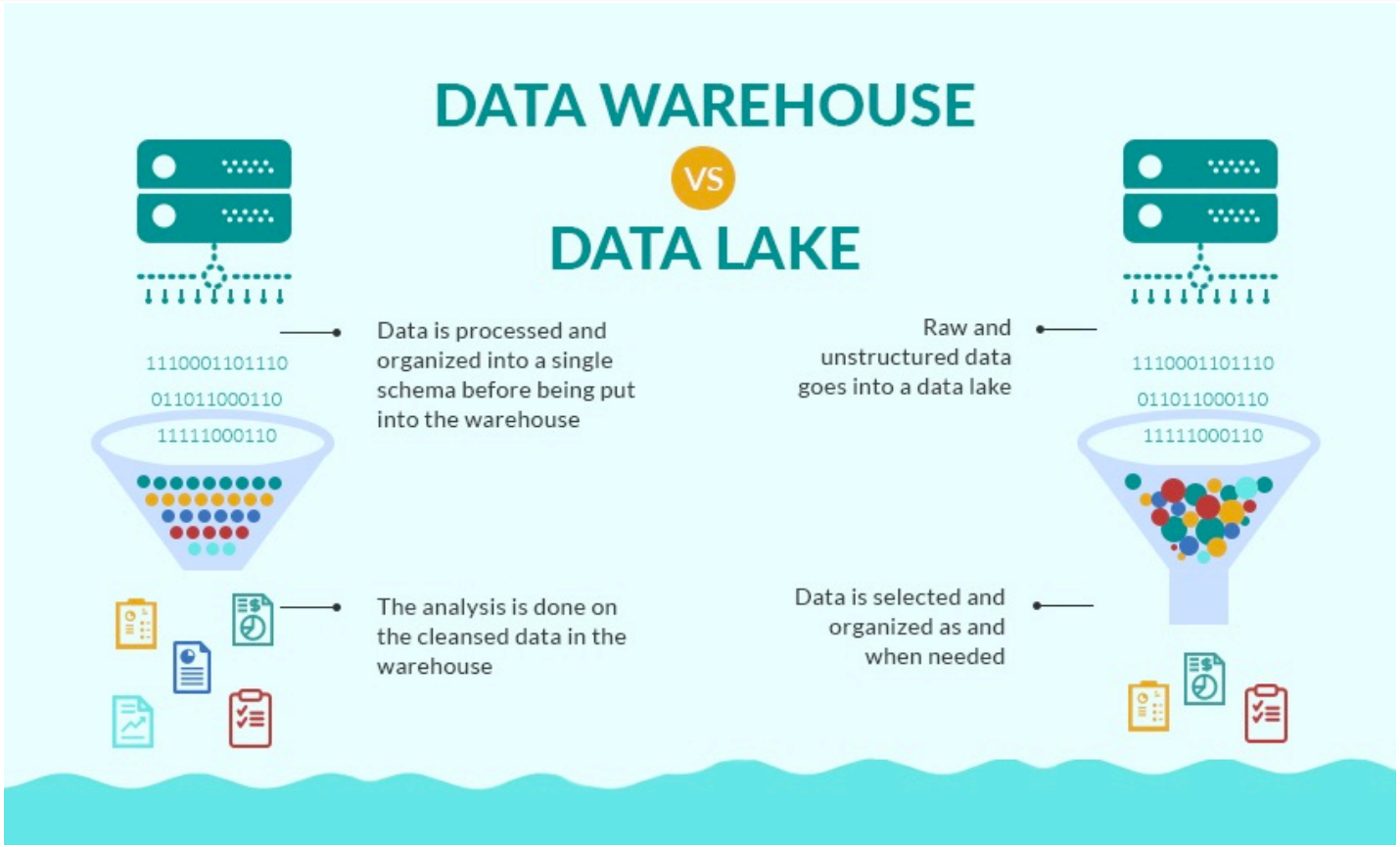
- Focus is on the Analysis Data System (Primary Focus):
  - Data Lake is source data, imported and added to common database/model. (e.g. Lahman Baseball DB)
  - Analysis data is transformed data suitable for analysis, and analysis results. (e.g. Transformed Lahman's Data)
- Various analysis and processing tools use the data for insight, visualization, etc. (e.g. Jupyter, Pandas)



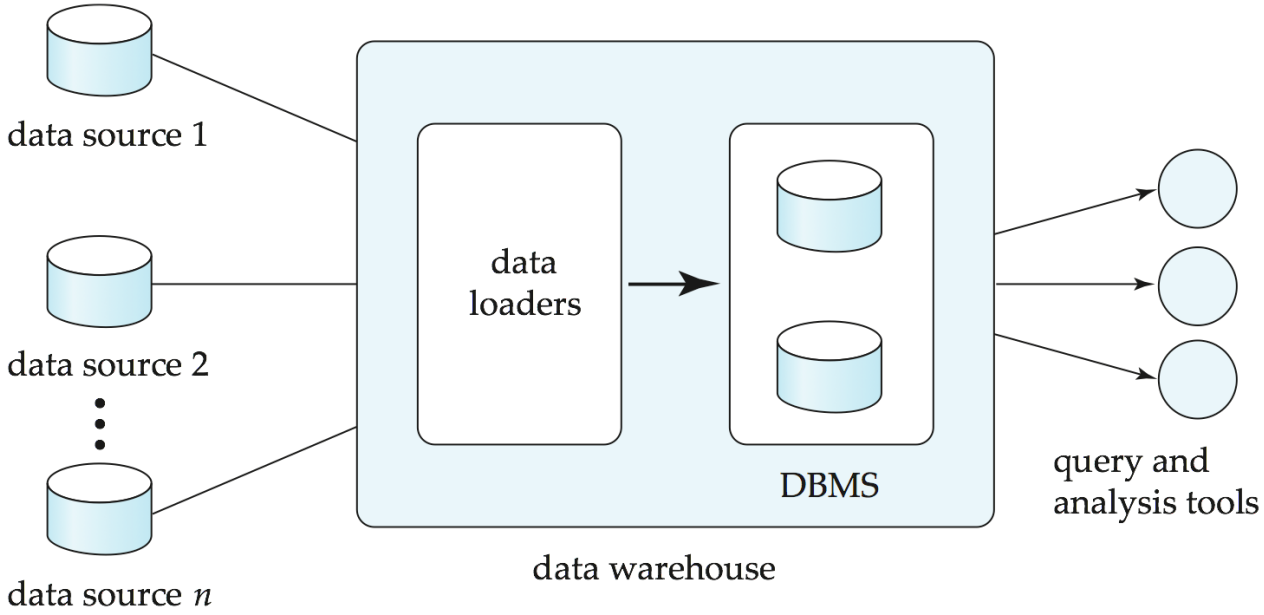
Enterprise Information Integration



Data Warehouse and Data Lake



Data Warehousing

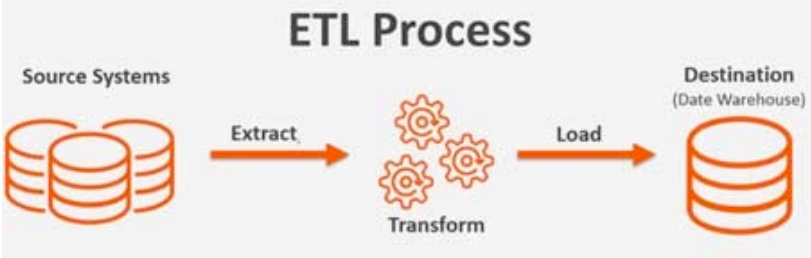


Overview (Cont.)

- Common steps in data analytics
  - Gather data from multiple sources into one location
    - Data warehouses also integrated data into common schema
    - Data often needs to be **extracted** from source formats, **transformed** to common schema, and **loaded** into the data warehouse
      - Can be done as **ETL (extract-transform-load)**, or **ELT (extract-load-transform)**
  - Generate aggregates and reports summarizing data
    - Dashboards showing graphical charts/reports
    - **Online analytical processing (OLAP) systems** allow interactive querying
    - Statistical analysis using tools such as R/SAS/SPSS
      - Including extensions for parallel processing of big data
  - Build **predictive models** and use the models for decision making

ETL Concepts

https://databricks.com/glossary/extract-transform-load



Extract

The first step of this process is extracting data from the target sources that could include an ERP, CRM, Streaming sources, and other enterprise systems as well as data from third-party sources. There are different ways to perform the extraction: **Three Data Extraction methods:**

1. Partial Extraction – The easiest way to obtain the data is if the if the source system notifies you when a record has been changed
2. Partial Extraction- with update notification - Not all systems can provide a notification in case an update has taken place; however, they can point those records that have been changed and provide an extract of such records.
3. Full extract – There are certain systems that cannot identify which data has been changed at all. In this case, a full extract is the only possibility to extract the data out of the system. This method requires having a copy of the last extract in the same format so you can identify the changes that have been made.

Transform

Next, the transform function converts the raw data that has been extracted from the source server. As it cannot be used in its original form in this stage it gets cleansed, mapped and transformed, often to a specific data schema, so it will meet operational needs. This process entails several transformation types that ensure the quality and integrity of data; below are the most common as well as advanced transformation types that prepare data for analysis:

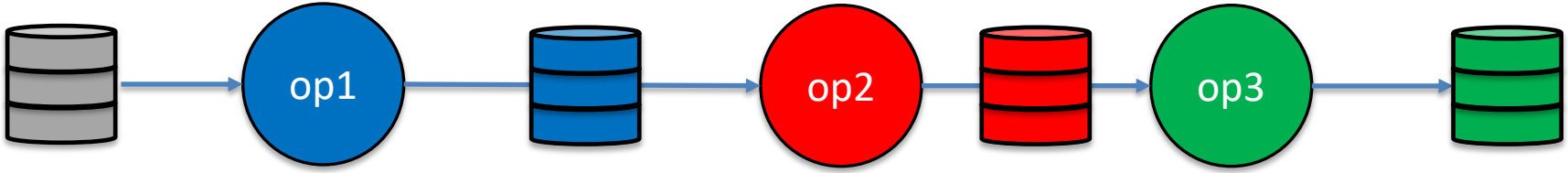
- Basic transformations:
- Cleaning
- Format revision
- Data threshold validation checks
- Restructuring
- Deduplication
- Advanced transformations:
- Filtering
- Merging
- Splitting
- Derivation
- Summarization
- Integration
- Aggregation
- Complex data validation

Load

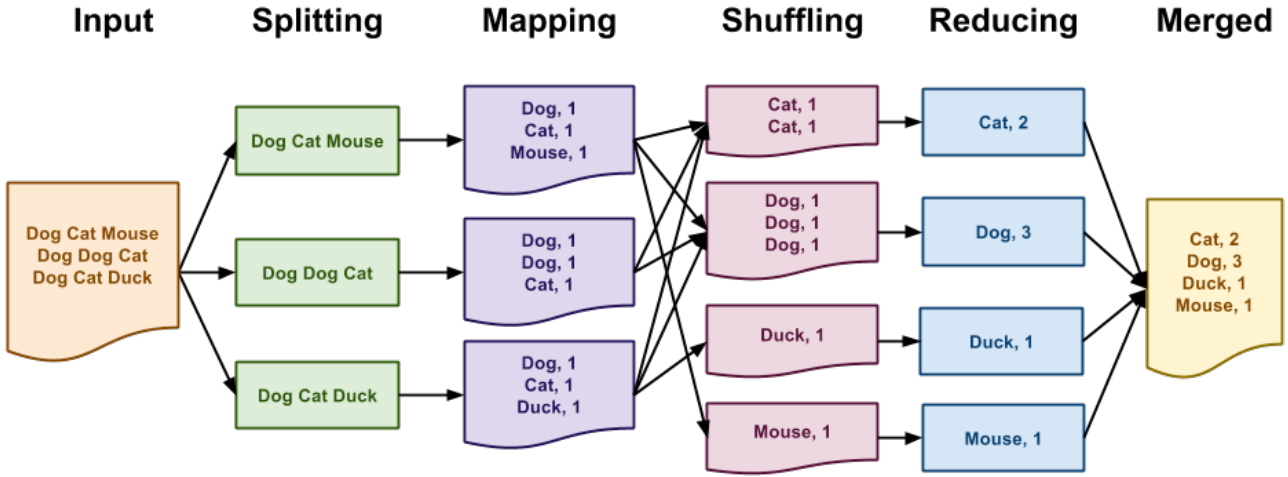
Finally, the load function s is the process of writing converted data from a staging area to a target database, which may or may not have previously existed. Depending on the requirements of the application, this process may be either quite simple or intricate.

MapReduce

MapReduce is a data flow program with relatively simple operators on the data set.



With each operator implemented in parallel on multiple nodes for performance.

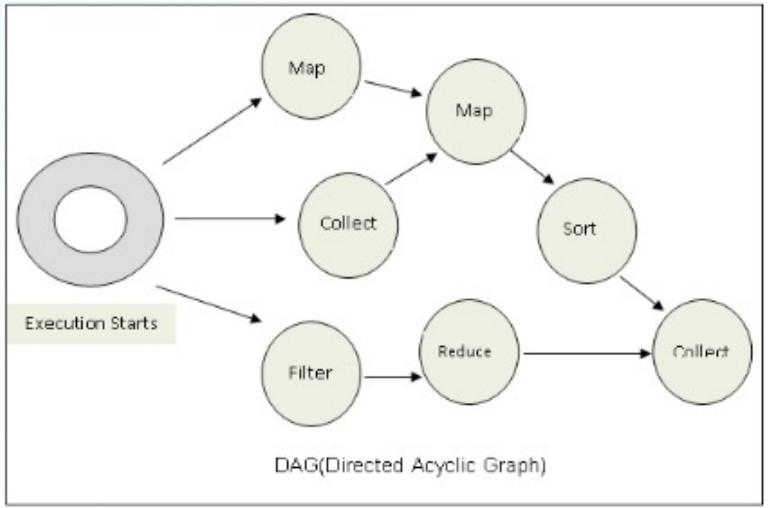


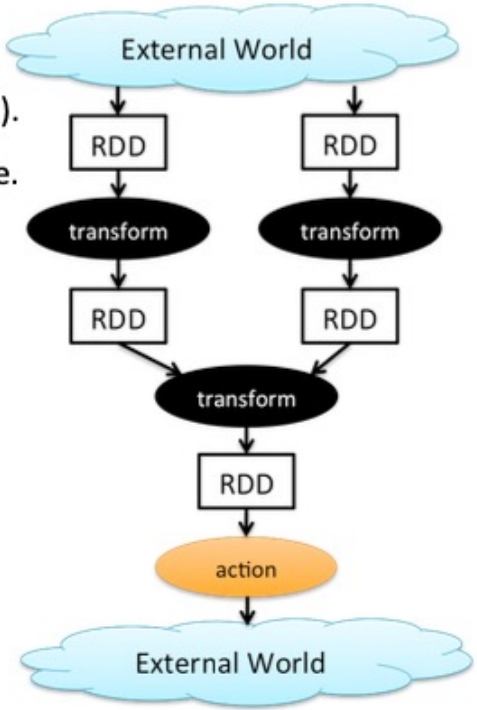
What is we want more complex “operators?”

Algebraic Operations

- Current generation execution engines
  - natively support algebraic operations such as joins, aggregation, etc. natively.
  - Allow users to create their own algebraic operators
  - Support trees of algebraic operators that can be executed on multiple nodes in parallel
- E.g. Apache Tez, Spark
  - Tex provides low level API; Hive on Tez compiles SQL to Tez
  - Spark provides more user-friendly API

- All jobs in spark comprise a series of operators and run on a set of data.
- All the operators in a job are used to construct a DAG (Directed Acyclic Graph).
- The DAG is optimized by rearranging and combining operators where possible.





www.edureka.co/apache-spark-scala-training

Mapping to HW3a

- Installing, setting up, configuring, … the software can be very, very complex.

- We are going to understand the concepts using MongoDB Aggregation Pipeline, which is simpler and more restricted.
  - Not graphical/DAG
  - Parallelism unclear

- Explain and demonstrate the concept of parallelism.

- MongoDB
  - >mongoimport --db HW3 --collection name_basics --type tsv --file name_basics.tsv --headerline

