

# Assignment - I

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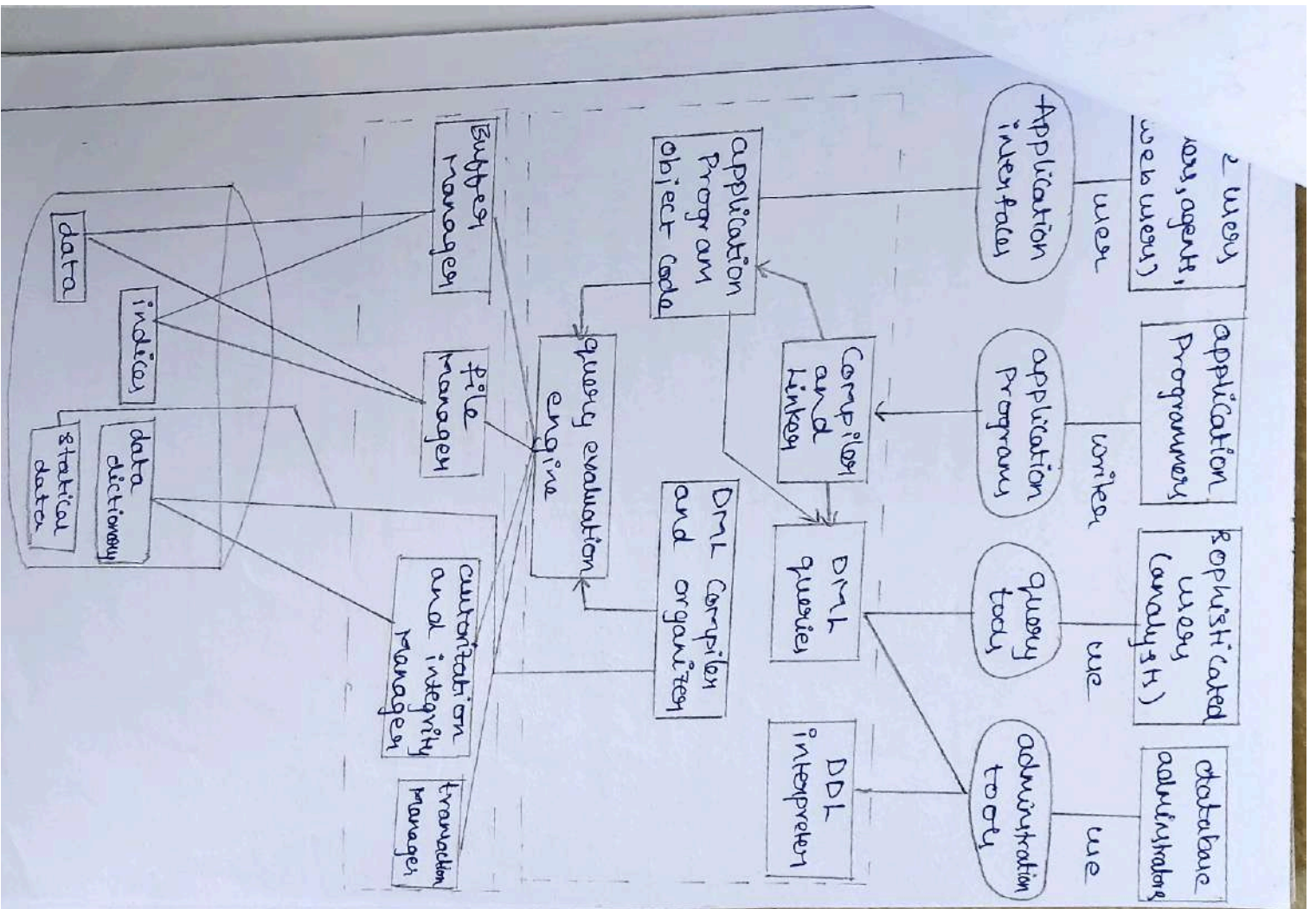
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Subject: DBMS

Section: B C SE (AI-ML)

Signature

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## Join Relations

Join operation take two relations and returns as a result another relation.

There additional operation are typically used as subquery expressions in the from clause.

Join type - defines how tuples in each relation that do not match any tuple in other relation are treated.

Join Types
inner join
left outer join
right outer join
full outer join

Join Condition
Natural On $\leq$ predicates using $(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n)$

### Database Example - Join

ID	Name	dept - name
10101	Srinivasan	comp-sci
12121	Mu	finance
15151	Mozart	music

### Teachers

ID	Course_id
10101	CS-101
12121	fin-201
15151	10-101



## JOIN

Join the Cartesian product of two tables - every row from the first table joined with every row from second tables

SELECT columns  
FROM table 1

CROSS JOIN table 2;

Ex:

SELECT Name, Course\_id  
FROM instructor  
CROSS JOIN teachers;

Name	Course_id
Srinivasan	CS-101
Crinivasan	FIN-201
Srinivasan	BIO-101
Wu	CS-101
Wu	FIN-201
Wu	BIO-101
Notzart	CS-101
Notzart	FIN-101
Notzart	BIO-101

## Natural JOIN

A type of join that automatically join tables using columns with the same name and compatible data

Syntax:

SELECT  
FROM table 1

NATURAL JOIN table 2;

Ex: SELECT \*

FROM instructor

NATURAL JOIN teachers;

ID	Name	dept	Name	Course_id
10101	Srinivasan	Comp-sci		CS-101
12121	Wu	finance		FIN-201

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## Join

is only the matching rows from both tables based on a given condition.

### SQL Syntax:

SELECT column  
FROM table1

INNER JOIN table2  
ON table1.column

FROM table1

INNER JOIN table2  
ON table1.column = table2.column

Example: Display instructors who are teaching at least one course  
SELECT instructor\_id, name, course\_id  
FROM instructor  
INNER JOIN teaches  
ON instructor\_id = teacher\_id;

ID	Name	Course - id
10101	Srinivasan	CS-101
12121	Mu	FIN-201

### Left Outer Join:

Returns all rows from the left table and the matching rows from the right table.

### Basic Syntax:

SELECT column  
FROM table1  
LEFT JOIN table2



table 1. Common - Column = table 2.  
Common - Column;

Example: ~~table~~

SELECT instructor. ID, name, course\_id  
FROM instructor  
RIGHT JOIN teachers  
ON instructor. ID = teachers. ID;

ID	Name	Course - id
10101	Erinoroun	CS-101
12121	WU	FIN-201
#6766	NULL	810-101

### Full Outer Join

Returns all rows from both tables,  
Matching rows where available,  
and filling NULLs.

Basic Syntax:

SELECT Column  
FROM table 1

~~full table~~  
FULL OUTER JOIN table 2

ON table 1. Common - Column =  
table 2. Common - Column;

Example: Display all instructors and all  
Courses, even if there's no matching  
entry in either table.  
Left join:

SELECT instructor. ID, name, course\_id  
FROM instructor  
LEFT JOIN teachers ON instructor. ID  
= teachers. ID

CT instructor. ID, name, course\_id  
or instructor

AND JOIN teacher ON instructor.ID  
= teacher.ID,

ID	Name	Course_id
10101	Srinivasan	CS-101
12121	Wu	FN-201
15151	Mostaf	NULL
76766	NULL	BIO-101

Equi JOIN : A type of INNER JOIN that uses an equality (=) operator to match rows.

Basic Syntax:

SELECT Column  
FROM table 1, table 2  
WHERE table 1.  
Common - Column = table 2.

Example:

SELECT instructor.ID, name, course\_id  
FROM instructor, teacher  
WHERE instructor.ID = teacher.ID,

ID	Name	Course_id
10101	Srinivasan	CS-101
12121	Wu	FN-201



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about RAID storage  
its types.

An acronym for Redundant  
Array of Independent Disks is a  
storage virtualization  
technology that combines  
multiple physical hard disk  
drives (HDDs) or solid-state  
drives (SSDs) into a single  
logical unit.

Primary goal of using RAID  
is to increase data redundancy  
and performance, or a combina-  
tion of both. Core RAID  
techniques.

There are three techniques.

1. Striping (RAID 0): Data is split  
into blocks and written  
sequentially across multiple  
disks. This significantly increases  
performance but offers no  
fault tolerance.

2. Mirroring (RAID 1): Data is  
simultaneously and identically  
written to two or more  
disks. This provides excellent  
fault tolerance but halves  
the effective storage capacity.

## Plain about Dead lock and

### its handling:

A deadlock in an operating system is a situation where a set of processes are permanently blocked because each process is waiting for a resource that is being held by another process in the set, leading to a circular chain of dependencies. It is essentially a standstill that halts the progress of the involved process.

\* Mutual Exclusion: At least one resource must be non-shareable meaning only one process can use it at a time.

\* Hold and wait: A process is currently holding at least one resource and is waiting to acquire additional resources held by other processes.

\* No preemption: A resource cannot be forcibly taken from the process holding it; it can only be released voluntarily by that process.



Mutual wait: A set of processes  $(P-0, P-1, P-2, \dots, P-n)$  wish such that  $P-0$  is waiting for a resource held by  $P-1$ ,  $P-1$  is waiting for a resource held by  $P-2, \dots$  and  $P-n$  is waiting for a resource held by  $P-0$ .

### Dead lock handling strategies:

Operating systems use three main strategies to deal with dead locks:

#### 1. Dead lock prevention:

This strategy involves ensuring that at least one of the four necessary conditions can never hold. hold and wait.

#### 2. Dead lock avoidance:

This approach requires prior knowledge of resource needs. The OS then grants a resource request only if the resulting system.

#### 3. Deadlock detection & Recovery:

If prevention or avoidance is not used, deadlocks can occur.

#### 4. The OS/Unix Approach: many non-critical operating systems choose to ignore the problem.

## Normalization and its various types:

Normalization is the process of organizing the data in a database, primarily a relational database, to reduce data redundancy and improve data integrity.

This is achieved by breaking down a large table into smaller, simpler, and related tables, which follow a set of rules called normal forms. The normal forms are 1NF, 2NF, 3NF, and BCNF.

Types of Normalization (Normal forms) Normalization is a progressive process, meaning a higher Normal form cannot be achieved unless the preceding normal form has been satisfied.

### 1st Normal Form (1NF):

A table is in 1NF if:  
Atomic values: every column contains atomic values. There are no multi-valued attributes in a single cell.  
no repeating group: there are no repeating groups of columns.



2nd Normal form 2NF it is on the entire table is in 2NF if on the table is no partial dependency rule in primary key. This is the primary key. Significant only when key.

key is a composite key.  
3. Third Normal form (3NF)  
A table is in 3NF if it is in 2NF. No transitive dependency of a non-key attribute on the primary attribute. This means a non-key attribute cannot depend on another non-key attribute.

4. Boyce - Codd Normal form (BCNF)  
BCNF is considered a stricter version of 3NF. For every non-trivial functional dependency, X must be superkey (a set of attributes that uniquely identifies a tuple).

5. Fourth Normal form (4NF)  
Deals with multi-valued dependencies. The table must be in BCNF.

6. Fifth Normal form (5NF)  
Deals with join dependencies and aims to decompose a table into the smallest possible tables without loss of information. The table must be in 4NF.



## Database system Architecture

The database system architecture can be divided into three main parts: Query processor, and Storage Manager, with the disk storage at the bottom.

### 1. Users:

Different types of users interact with the database:

- Naive users (clerk, agents, web user) → use application interface.
- Application programmers → write application programs.
- sophisticated users → use query tools.
- Database Administrators (DBAs) → use administration tools.

### 2. Query processor:

This is responsible for interpreting and executing queries.

- Application program object code: Generated by compiler and linker.
- DML queries: Data manipulation language (eg: select, insert, update).
- DDL interpreter: Interprets schema definitions (tables, constraints).
- DDL compiler and organizer: Check syntax and optimizes queries.
- Query evaluation engine: Executes optimized queries.

### Storage Manager:

The storage manager controls how data is stored and retrieved.

- Buffer manager: minimizes disk I/O by storing frequently accessed data in memory.

- File manager: manages allocation of space and file structures.

- Authorization and integrity manager: ensures data security and integrity constraints.

- Transaction manager: ensures consistency, concurrency control, and recovery.

### 4. Disk Storage:

This is the physical layer where actual data resides.

- Data: Tables and records

- Indices: used for fast searching.

- Data Dictionary: stores meta data

(Information about tables, schemas, users).

- Statistical Data: used for query optimization.