

Today...

- Relational Data Model- Definitions
 - · High level concepts
 - · We discuss how these are implemented in SQL More details when we cover SQL
- Front end tools HTML/CSS/...
- Next class start with formal query languages before moving to SQL

Database "People" - i.e., roles

There are several types of database 'personnel':

- · Database administrator (DBA) responsible for installing, maintaining, and configuring the DBMS software. o gets paid the big bucks !
- Data administrator (DA) responsible for organizational policies on data creation, security, and planning.
 - · Gets to be on the hot seat if data leaks happen ...
- Database designer defines and implements a schema for a database and associated applications.
- Logical/Conceptual database designer interacts with users to YOU determine data requirements, constraints, and business rules. Physical database designer - implements the logical design for a data model on a DBMS. Defines indexes, security, and constraints. DBMS developer - writes the DBMS software code. Application developer - writes code that uses the DBMS.
 - User uses the database directly or through applications.

Some Terminology

Database:

2

- · A collection of related data.
- Data: .
 - · Known facts that can be recorded and have an implicit meaning.
- Mini-world:
 - · Some part of the real world about which data is stored in a database. For example, student grades and transcripts at a university.
- Database Management System (DBMS):
 - · A software package/ system to facilitate the creation and maintenance of a computerized database.
 - Example: MySQL, Oracle, MongoDB
- Database System:
 - · The DBMS software together with the data and (usually) the applications

Recent Developments (Recent in my timeline ©)

- Social Networks started capturing a lot of information about people and their communications (tweets, photos, videos..)
 Facebook, Twitter, Linked-In....
- All of the above constitutes data
- Search Engines: Google, Bing, Yahoo : collect their own repository of web pages for searching purposes
- New Technologies emerging to manage vast amounts of data generated on the web:
 - · Big Data storage systems involving large clusters
 - NOSQL (Not Only SQL) systems
 - A large amount of data now resides on the "cloud" which means it is in huge data centers using thousands of machines.
- 5

Data Models..more definitions

Data Model:

- A formal framework to describe the data and *structure*, **constraints**, of a database, and
- the operations for manipulating these structures
- Constructs used to define the database structure
- Data types, format (table),...ex: name is a char string
- Constraints:
 - Constraints specify some restrictions on valid data; these constraints must be enforced at all times..ex: GWID is unique

Data Model Operations:

 These operations are used for specifying database retrievals and updates by referring to the constructs of the data model.
 Ex: find student name with GWID= abcd

How will your database system be architected: Three-Tier Client-Server Architecture



6

More terminology..Levels of Data Models

- Conceptual (high-level, semantic) data models:
 - Provide concepts that are close to the way many users perceive data.
- Logical level:
 - Provide concepts used by DBMS implementations
 - · *In earlier definition we mixed conceptual and logical
- Physical (low-level, internal) data models:
 - · details of how data is stored in the DBMS/computer.
 - These are usually specified in an ad-hoc manner through DBMS design and administration manuals
- Self-Describing Data Models:
 - Combine the description of data with the data values. Examples include JSON/XML, key-value stores and some NOSQL systems.

8

Conceptual Data Model: The Entity-Relationship (ER) Model

- Provide database design that is easy to interpret by a wide class of users
 - Not just database/CS experts
 - You want to provide a design to a "client" using a representation they can understand
- What's a natural way to provide an easy to interpret representation....
 - Fill in the blanks: A _____ is worth a thousand words
- "Visual" representation of the data, how it interacts, constraints, etc.
 - And can be automatically mapped to a data model (relational)
- ER-Model is one such data model
 We will return to it after we cover the relational model
- 9

Some more terminology..... Schemas versus Instances

- Similar to types and variables in programming languages
- Database Schema: structure of the database
 - The *description* of a database.
 - Includes descriptions of the database structure, data types, and the constraints on the database.
 - Schema Diagram: *illustrative* display of a database schema.
- Database instance/state: actual data (content) stored in a database at a particular moment in time
 - Initial state: when database is loaded
 - Valid state: A state that satisfies the structures and constraints of the database...
 - job of DBMS to ensure valid entries
 - The *database schema* changes very infrequently.

Preferably never

• The database state changes every time the database is updated.

Example: ER Design for mini-banner:



10

Database Schema for a COMPANY

Database

Fname Minit Lname <u>Ssn</u> Bdate Address Sex Salary Super_ssn Dno

DEPARTMENT

EMPLOYEE

Dname Dnumber Mgr_ssn Mgr_start_date

DEPT_LOCATIONS
Dnumber Dlocation

PROJECT
Pname Pnumber Plocation Dnum

WORKS_ON

 Essn
 Pno
 Hours

 DEPENDENT

 Essn
 Dependent_name
 Sex
 Bdate
 Relationship

Example of a Database Schema

STUDENT

Name Student_number Class Major

COURSE Course_name Course_number Credit_hours Department

PREREQUISITE
Course_number Prerequisite_number

SECTION Section_identifier Course_number Semester Year Instructor

GRADE_REPORT

Student_number Section_identifier Grade

13

STUDENT			Takes				COURSE			
sid	name	ΙΓ	sid	exp-grade	cid		cid		subj	sem
1	Ross	ΙĪ	1	А	550-0103		550-0103	3	DB	S13
2	Lee	[1	А	700-1003		700-1003		AI	S13
		1 E					500-0103			T40
3	Emily		3	С	500-0103		500-0103	3	Arch	F12
3	Emily		3	С	PROF	ES n	SOC-010:	Tea fid	Arch aches	F12
3	Emily Our fo		3 s no	C W:	PROF fid 1	ES n	SOR ame Vood	Tea	Arch aches I cid 550-0)103
3	 Emily Our for relation of table)))) na	3 s no l sch	C w: nema – se	PROF fid 1 2	ES n F	SOR ame Vood Heller	Tea fid	Arch aches I cid 550-0 700-1)103 1003



14

16

History of Data Models

- Network Model
- Hierarchical Model
- Relational Model
- Object-oriented Data Models
 Object-Relational Models
- NoSQL/ Big Data technologies
 - Schema-less designs

15

Slide 2-16

History of Data Models

Network Model:

- · Network of records
- The first network DBMS implemented by Honeywell in 1964-65
- Can model complex relationships between records i.e., graphs!
- Hierarchical Model:
 - First implemented by IBM and Rockwell Intl. 1965 (?)
 - · Hierarchical network of records (trees like)
 - Abstract view of an Org Chart models hierarchy in the data
- Query language: COBOL
 - Hear about the Y2K bug/problem ?
- Disadvantages:
 - Database contains complex set of *pointers* that thread through sets of records
 - Little scope for "query optimization", Procedural nature of processing Do you like working with pointers ?

17

Relational Model Concepts

 The model was introduced by Dr. E.F. Codd of IBM Research in 1970

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

Describes the data minimally and mathematically

 $-\,A$ relation describes an association between data items – tuples with attributes

Uses standard mathematical (logical) operations over the data – relational algebra or relational calculus

- It contributed: data independence, query languages, query optimization
- The above paper caused a major revolution in the field of database management and earned Dr. Codd the coveted ACM Turing Award

Next: 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*
- start with review of essentials of the *formal relational model*
- In practice, there is a standard model based on SQL
- <u>Note</u>: There are several important differences between the formal model and the practical model
- And, there are variations in SQL features provided on different DBMS systems

Oracle SQL, MySQL, MS-SQL,...

18

Why Did It Take So Many Years to Implement Relational Databases?

- Codd's original work: 1969-70
- Earliest relational database research: ~1976
- Commercial Relational DBMSs: ~mid 1980s
- Widespread deployment" mid-1990's
- Why the gap? Top 10 reasons...
 - 1. "You could do the same thing in other ways"
 - 2. "Nobody wants to write math formulas"
 - 3. "Why would I turn my data into tables?"
 - 4. "It won't perform well"
 - 5. ...
- What do you think?

Relational Model Definitions

- A relation is a table with columns and rows.
- An attribute is a named column of a relation.
- A *tuple* is a row of a relation.
- A *domain* is a set of allowable values for one or more attributes.
- The *degree* of a relation is the number of attributes it contains.
- The *cardinality* of a relation is the number of tuples it contains.
- A relational database is a collection of normalized relations with distinct relation names.



21

Relational Model: Formal Definition

- Formally, a table is a relation over K sets (domains)
 - $R \subset A_1 \times A_2 \dots \times A_K$ Subset of the cartesian product of the K domains
 - Tuple= (t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_K) , where $t_i \in A_i$
- A database is a collection of relations
- Theoretically: a relation is a set of tuples; no tuple can occur more than once
 - Real systems may allow duplicates for efficiency or other reasons we'll ignore this for now

Relation Schemas and Instances

- A *relation schema* is a definition of a single relation.
- A database schema is a set of relation schemas (modeling) a particular domain).
- A relation instance denoted r(R) over a relation schema R(A₁, A₂, ..., A_n) is subset of the *Cartesian product* of the *domains* of all *attributes* in the relation schema
 - $\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(A_1) \times \operatorname{dom}(A_2) \times \ldots \times \operatorname{dom}(A_n)$
 - i.e., a set of n-tuples <d1, d2, ..., dn> where each di is an element of $dom(A_i)$ or is **null**.
 - A value of **null** represents a missing or unknown value.

24

22

Definition Summary	
Informal Terms	Formal Terms
Table	Relation
Column Header	Attribute
All possible Column Values	Domain
Row	Tuple
Cardinality	Number of rows
Table Definition	Schema of a Relation
Populated Table	State of the Relation

25

Properties and constraints of the data

- Data represented as a relation/table
- Schema specifies the attributes/columns and their type
- Any other properties we need to define to capture the "application"
- Need to capture the 'business' rules:
 - How do we uniquely identify a student ?
 - Can their letter grade be any alphabet ?
 - Can a student take a course that is not in the course schedule/bulletin
 ?
 -
- Concept of Constraints

Properties of relations

- Each relation name is unique
 - · No two relations have the same name
- Each cell of the relation (value of a domain) contains exactly one atomic (single) value
- Each attribute of a relation has a distinct name
- values of an attribute are all from the same domain
- Each tuple is distinct. There are no duplicate tuples
 Properties of a relation; in SQL can be bags (allow duplicates)
- order of attributes is not really important
 - Note difference from mathematical def of relations Tuple (x,y) is not the same as (y,x) in def of relation
 - Reason: attribute names represent domain and can be reordered
- Order of tuples is not important

26

CONSTRAINTS

Constraints determine which values are permissible (or not) in the database. three main types:

- Inherent or Implicit Constraints:
 - These are based on the data model itself. (E.g., relational model does not allow a list as a value for any attribute)
- Schema-based or Explicit Constraints Integrity Constraints: are rules or restrictions that apply to the database and limit the data values it may store
 - They are expressed in the schema by using the facilities provided by the model.
- Application based or semantic constraints:
 - These are beyond the expressive power of the model and must be specified and enforced by the application programs.

28

Integrity Constraints (ICs)

- IC: condition that must be true for any instance of the database; e.g., <u>domain constraints.</u>
- ICs are specified when schema is defined.
- · ICs are checked when relations are modified.
- A *legal* instance of a relation is one that satisfies all specified ICs.
 - DBMS should not allow illegal instances.
- Why is this useful
 - If the DBMS checks ICs, stored data is more faithful to realworld meaning.
- Think of the constraints as the business rules derived from the application
- Carefully analyze the semantics of the real world app before defining the constraints
- 29

 \mathbf{X}

Definition: Relational Model Integrity Constraints

- Integrity rules are used to ensure the data is accurate.
- Types of constraints:
 - *Domain constraint* Every value for an attribute must be an element of the attribute's domain or be null.
 - null represents a value that is currently unknown or not applicable. null is not the same as zero or an empty string.
 - Entity integrity constraint In a base relation, no attribute of a primary key can be null.
 - Key constraint every relation must have a key
 - **Referential integrity constraint** If a foreign key exists in a relation, then the foreign key value must match a primary key value of a tuple in the referenced relation or be null.

Where do ICs Come From?

- ICs are based upon the semantics of the real-world enterprise that is being described in the database relations.
 - Need to carefully analyze the application before reaching a conclusion on the Integrity Constraints!
- We can check a database instance to see if an IC is violated, but we can NEVER infer that an IC is true by looking at an instance.
 - An IC is a statement about all possible instances!
 - From example, we know *name* is not a key, but the **assertion** that *sid* is a key is given to us.
- Key and foreign key ICs are the most common; more general ICs supported too.
 - · Shall return to these after we cover DML aspect of SQL

30

Key Constraints

• Superkey of R:

 Is a set of attributes SK of R with the following condition: No two tuples in any valid relation state r(R) will have the same value for SK

That is, for any distinct tuples t1 and t2 in r(R), t1[SK] \neq t2[SK] This condition must hold in *any valid state* r(R)

- Candidate Key of R:
 - A "minimal" superkey
 - That is, a key is a superkey K such that removal of any attribute from K results in a set of attributes that is not a superkey (does not possess the superkey uniqueness property)
 - A Key is a Superkey but not vice versa
- **Primary Key**: a DBA chosen key for the relation/table

Primary Key Constraints

- Every relation must have a key
- A set of fields is a <u>key</u> for a relation if :
 - 1. No two distinct tuples can have same values in all key fields, and 2. This is not true for any subset of the key.
 - Part 2 false? A superkey.
 - If there's >1 key for a relation, one of the keys is chosen (by DBA) to be the *primary key*.
- E.g., what is a key for Students relation ?
- sid is a key for Students. (What about name?) The set {sid, gpa} is a superkey.

33

Key Constraints (continued)

- If a relation has several candidate keys, one is chosen arbitrarily to be the primary key.
 - The primary key attributes are <u>underlined</u>.
- Example: Consider the CAR relation schema:
 - CAR(State, Reg#, <u>SerialNo</u>, Make, Model, Year)
 - We chose SerialNo as the primary key
- The primary key value is used to *uniquely identify* each tuple in a relation
- Provides the tuple identity
- Also used to *reference* the tuple from another tuple
- General rule: Choose as primary key the smallest of the candidate keys (in terms of size)
- · Not always applicable choice is sometimes subjective

Key Constraints (continued)

- Example: Consider the CAR relation schema:
 - CAR(State, Reg#, SerialNo, Make, Model, Year)
 - CAR has two keys:
 Key1 = {State, Reg#}
 Key2 = {SerialNo}
- Both are also superkeys of CAR
- {SerialNo, Make} is a superkey but not a key.
- In general:
 - Any key is a superkey (but not vice versa)
 - Any set of attributes that *includes a key* is a *superkey*
 - A minimal superkey is also a key
 - Can have many candidate keys, one of them chosen as primary key

34

Referential Integrity

- A constraint involving two relations
 - The previous constraints involve a single relation.
- Used to specify a relationship among tuples in two relations:
 - The referencing relation and the referenced relation.
- Examples:
- Student enrolled in a course
- Employee working on a project: in Works_On table



37

Referential Integrity (or foreign key) Constraint – more general definition

- Statement of the constraint
 - The value in the foreign key column (or columns) FK of the referencing relation R1 can be either:

(1) a value of an existing primary key value of a corresponding primary key PK in the referenced relation R2, <u>or</u>
 (2) a null.

 In case (2), the FK in R1 should **not** be a part of its own primary key.



- <u>refer</u> to a tuple in another relation. (Must correspond to primary key of the second relation.)
 - · Like a `logical pointer'.
- In Enrolled table sid is a student, what can we say about the students table ?
 - Enrolled(sid: string, cid: string, grade: string)
- *sid* in enrolled is a foreign key referring to Students:
- The student with this ID MUST exist in the Students table
- If all foreign key constraints are enforced, <u>referential integrity</u> is achieved, i.e., no dangling references.

38

Other Types of Constraints

- Semantic Integrity Constraints:
 - based on application semantics and cannot be expressed by the model per se
 - Example:
 - "the max. no. of hours per employee for all projects he or she works on is 40 hrs per week";
 - Grade cannot be any alphabet; ...
- A constraint specification language may have to be used to express these
- SQL-99 allows CREATE TRIGGER and CREATE ASSERTION to express some of these semantic constraints
- Keys, Permissibility of Null values, Candidate Keys (Unique in SQL), Foreign Keys, Referential Integrity etc. are expressed by the CREATE TABLE statement in SQL.



41

Populated database state

- Whenever the database is changed, a new state arises
- Basic operations for changing the database:
 - INSERT a new tuple in a relation
- DELETE an existing tuple from a relation
- MODIFY an attribute of an existing tuple
- Next slide shows an example state for the COMPANY database schema
- The update operations must keep the database in a consistent state – i.e. all instances must satisfy integrity constraints
- Updates may propagate to cause other updates automatically. This may be necessary to maintain integrity constraints.

COMPANY Database Schema

EMPLOYEE

 Fname
 Minit
 Lname
 Ssn
 Bdate
 Address
 Sex
 Salary
 Super_ssn
 Dno

DEPARTMENT
Dname Dnumber Mgr_ssn Mgr_start_date

DEPT_LOCATIONS

 Dnumber
 Dlocation

 PROJECT

 Pname
 Pnumber
 Plocation
 Dnum

 WORKS_ON

 Essn
 Pno
 Hours

ssn Pno Hours

 DEPENDENT

 Essn
 Dependent_name
 Sex
 Bdate
 Relationship

Figure 5.5 Schema diagram for

the COMPANY relational database schema. Slide 5- 42

42



Update Operations on Relations

- In case of integrity violation, several actions can be taken:
- Cancel the operation that causes the violation (RESTRICT or REJECT option)
- Perform the operation but inform the user of the violation
- Trigger additional updates so the violation is corrected (CASCADE option, SET NULL option)
- Execute a user-specified error-correction routine

45

Possible violations for each operation

- DELETE may violate only referential integrity:
 - If the primary key value of the tuple being deleted is referenced from other tuples in the database
 - Can be remedied by several actions: RESTRICT, CASCADE, SET NULL (see Chapter 6 for more details)
 - RESTRICT option: reject the deletion
 - CASCADE option: propagate the new primary key value into the foreign keys of the referencing tuples
 - $-\operatorname{SET}$ NULL option: set the foreign keys of the referencing tuples to NULL
 - One of the above options must be specified during database design for each foreign key constraint

Possible violations for each operation

- INSERT may violate any of the constraints:
 - Domain constraint:

if one of the attribute values provided for the new tuple is not of the specified attribute domain

- Key constraint: if the value of a key attribute in the new tuple already exists in another tuple in the relation
- Referential integrity:

if a foreign key value in the new tuple references a primary key value that does not exist in the referenced relation

• Entity integrity: if the primary key value is null in the new tuple

46

Possible violations for each operation

- UPDATE may violate domain constraint and NOT NULL constraint on an attribute being modified
- Any of the other constraints may also be violated, depending on the attribute being updated:
 - Updating the primary key (PK): Similar to a DELETE followed by an INSERT Need to specify similar options to DELETE
 - Updating a foreign key (FK): May violate referential integrity
 - Updating an ordinary attribute (neither PK nor FK): Can only violate domain constraints

Relational Query Languages

• A major strength of the relational model: supports simple, powerful *querying* of data.

Queries can be written intuitively, and the DBMS is responsible for efficient evaluation.

- The key: precise semantics for relational queries.
- Allows the optimizer to extensively re-order operations, and still ensure that the answer does not change.

49

Formal Query Languages

- Formal query languages are defined as mathematical operators over the set
 - advantage of a formal language ?
 - Relational algebra, Relational calculus are examples
- Procedural vs Non-procedural languages
 - Procedural: what data to fetch from DB and how/where to get the data
 - Non-procedural: what data to fetch from DB
 - System/DBMS needs to figure out the "how"
 - Can have a mix in practice
 - Relational algebra: procedural language
 - Relational calculus: non-procedural (declarative)

Relational Query Languages

Query languages:

- · Allow specification of schemas and constraints
- Allow manipulation and retrieval of data from a database.
- Relational model supports simple, powerful QLs:
 Strong formal foundation based on logic.
 - Allows for much optimization.
- Query Languages != programming languages!
 - · QLs not expected to be "Turing complete".
 - + QLs not intended to be used for complex calculations.
- QLs support easy, efficient access to large data sets.

50

SQL: Structured Query Language

The standard language for relational data

- · Invented by folks at IBM, esp. Don Chamberlin
- Actually not a great language...

 Beat a more elegant competing standard, QUEL, from Berkeley Separated into a DML & DDL

SQL DML component based on relational algebra & calculus

SQL

components

- Data definition (DDL) to define schema/tables
 Define Schema
 - Define Constraints
- Manipulation/query (DML) for queries
- · Transaction control to specify a transaction
- Index to specify storage and indexing schemes
- Authorization- for access control/security We will cover the DDL and query part of SQL first Shall return to the other components after we cover those topics



53