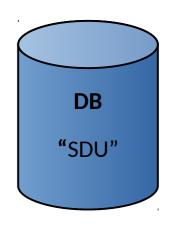
DM534: Introduction to Relational Databases

10/10/2017 Christian Wiwie



What are Databases?

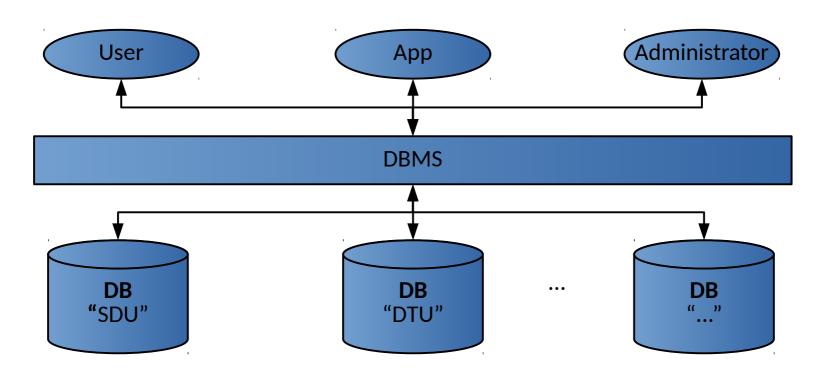
- Repository for large data amounts
- Describes a logical structure of contained data
- Guarantees data integrity by enforcing constraints
- Allows for efficient access
- Consistent and safe storage





Database Management Systems (DBMS)

- Software that manages databases
- Access to database only via DBMS





Where are Databases used?

- Wherever large amounts of data to be managed
- Examples:
 - Corporate data: payrolls, inventory, sales, customers, ...
 - Banking systems, stock exchanges
 - Airline systems
 - Web search: Google, Live, Yahoo, ...
 - Social networks: Facebook, Twitter, ...
 - Blogs, discussion forums
 - Scientific and medical databases
 - **-** ...



Features of a modern DBMS

- Highly efficient access to stored data using Indexes
- Backup/log mechanisms ensure data safety
- Security policies to manage access permissions
- Data consistency: Can enforce complex data constraints, including dependencies
- Flexible searching, sorting, filtering
- Ensures all the above, even with parallel multi-user access



Databases vs. storage in files

- File storage does not provide most of these features
 - Need to be realized for each file storage structure individually
 - Highly sophisticated functionalities, not trivial to do right



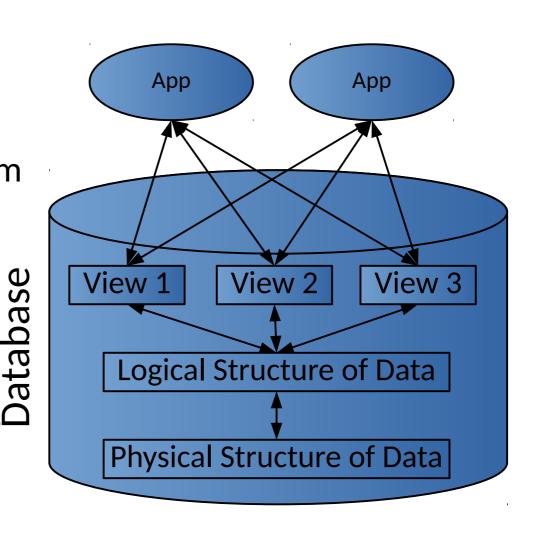
Kinds of DBMS / databases

- Data is modeled and organized differently
- Optimized for specific kinds of operations
- Relational DBMS (RDBMS) / databases the most widespread by far
 - Based on mathematical relations
 - Basically, a database is a collection of relations
 - e.g. MySQL, PostgreSQL, ...
- Graph DBMS / databases
 - Data is a network, with entities and connections between them
 - e.g. neo4j



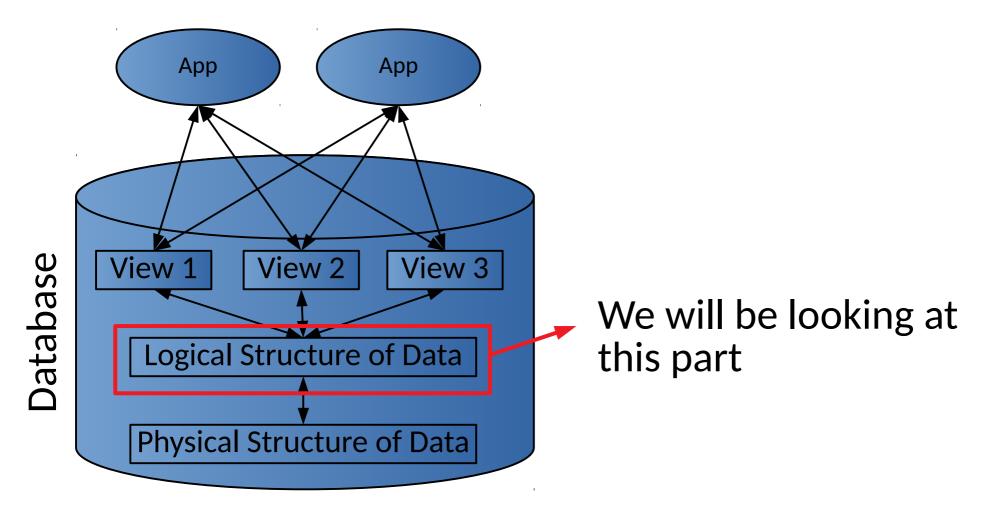
Internal Structure of a Database

- Databases are often tightly integrated with software
- Should be independent from how data is structured and stored
- First level independence
 - Independent of changes in logical structure of data
- Second level independence[□]
 - Independent of changes in physical structure of data





Internal Structure of a Database



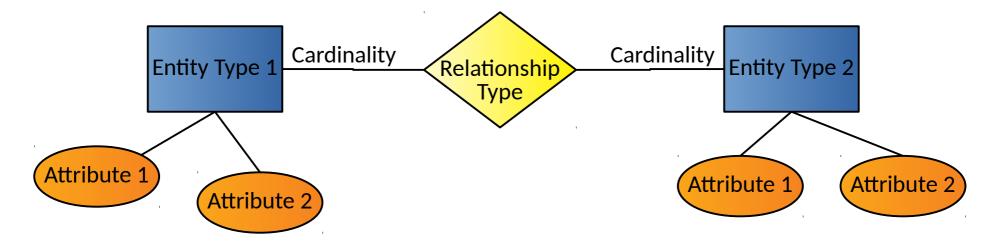


Data Model

- Conceptual description of
 - entity type for which data should be stored
 - relationship types between entity types
- Specific to kind of DBMS
 - Relational databases are based on relational data model
 - For graph databases: the graph itself



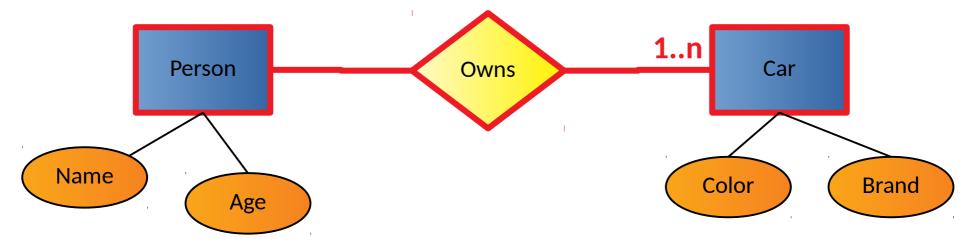
Visualized with Entity-Relationship (ER) diagrams:



 Cardinality: How many entities are involved in a relationship?



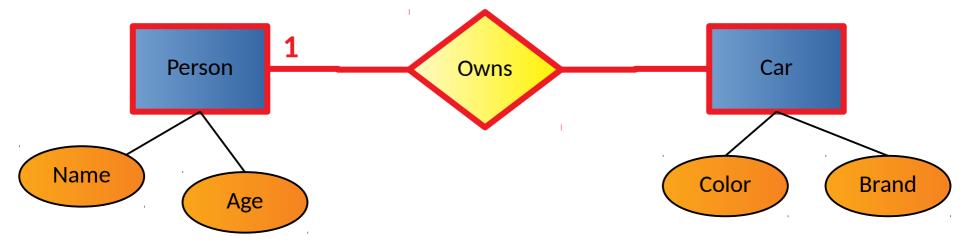
Example Cardinalities



- Read:
 - One person owns one or more cars



Example Cardinalities



- Read:
 - One car is owned by exactly one person
 - → Constraints do not necessarily hold in reality (joint ownership)



- Main concept: relation schemas
- relation != relationship
 - Relations derived from entities and relationships
- A relation schema is defined by
 - a name
 - and a set of attribute names
 - Optionally: attribute types

```
relation_name(attribute<sub>1</sub>, attribute<sub>2</sub>, ...) or relation_name(attribute<sub>1</sub>: type<sub>1</sub>, attribute<sub>2</sub>: type<sub>2</sub>, ...)
```



Relation Schemas

- A relation schema usually corresponds to
 - Real world entity types (e.g. car, person, ...)
 - Real world relationship types (e.g. person owns car)
- Example relation schemas:
 - Car(color, brand)
 - Person(name: CHAR(20),age: INTEGER)
 - Owns(name, age, color, brand)



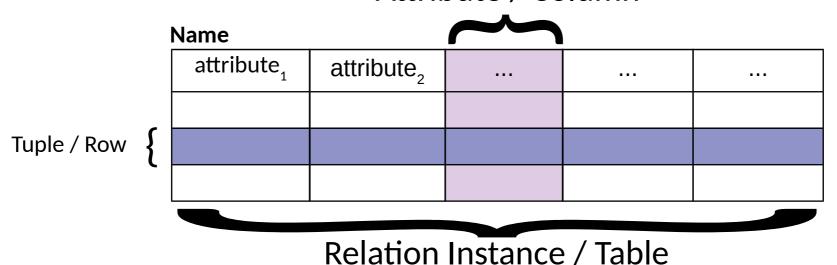
Tuples

- A tuple is a realization of a relation schema
 - Assigns values to the attributes of the relation
- Example tuples of the relation Car(color, brand):
 - ('red', 'Ford')
 - ('blue', 'Mercedes')
- Example tuples of the relation Person(name, age):
 - ('Henry', 36)
 - ('Thomas', 22)



Relation Instance

- A relation instance consists of
 - relation schema
 - all its tuples
- Can be nicely visualized with a table:
 Attribute / Column



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Relation Instance

• Example **relation instance** of the person relation

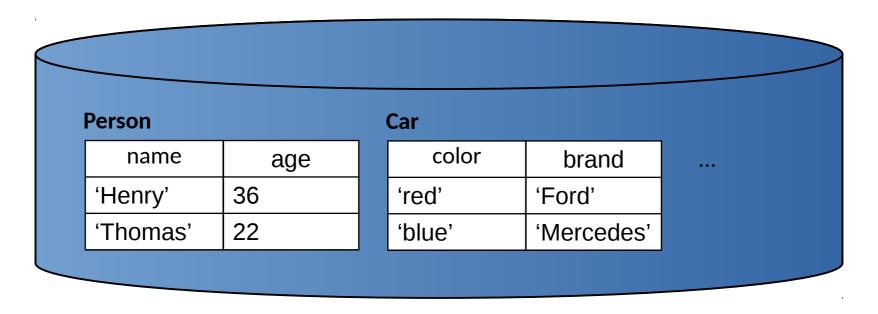
Person

name	age
'Henry'	36
'Thomas'	22



Database Instance

- A database instance is the collection of all its relation instances
 - i.e. all relation schemas and their corresponding tuples





Integrity Constraints (ICs)



Integrity Constraints (ICs)

- Condition that must be true for any database instance
- Specified when schemas are defined
- Checked whenever relations are modified
 - i.e., when tuple is added, deleted, or modified



Domain constraints

- Domain of valid values for an attribute
 - e.g., INTEGER, FLOAT, CHAR(20), ...
 - correspond to data types in programming languages
- Example relation schema:

Person(name: CHAR(20),age: INTEGER)

name	age	
'Henry'	36	Domain constraint violation
'Mads'	'Doe'	Domain Constraint Violation

→ Database will not allow insertion of this tuple



Semantic integrity constraints

- Restrictions on the data
 - e.g., age >= 18
- Example relation schema:

Person(name: CHAR(20),age: INTEGER)

name	age	
'Henry'	36	
'Mads'	16	



→ Database will not allow insertion of this tuple



Primary Keys

- Set of relation attributes
 - that uniquely identifies tuples of relation
 - all tuples need to have unique values for these attributes
- Example: CPR is primary key of relation Person
 - → There cannot be two tuples with same CPR number

<u>CPR</u>	Name	Birthday	Address	
				N. J. II
1904651243	Svensson	19.04.1965		Not allow
1904651243				



Primary Keys

- Primary key "points" to exactly one tuple
 - → can be used to lookup corresponding tuple
 - → e.g., person can be looked up using CPR

What is the name of the person with CPR=1904651243?

	CPR	Name	Birthday	Address
	1904651243	Svensson	19.04.1965	•••



Foreign Keys

- Allow to associate tuples in different relations
- Tuple of source relation → tuple of target relation
 - Source and target relation can be the same
 - Can only point to a primary key in the target relation



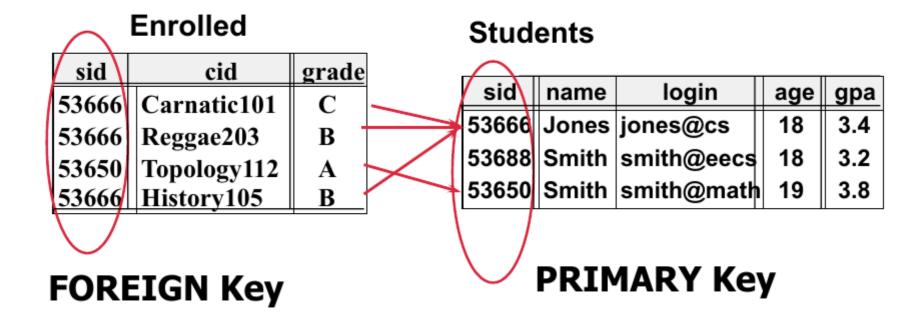
Example: University Database



- Conceptual schema:
 - Students(<u>sid</u>: string, name: string, login: string, age: integer, gpa:real)
 - Courses(<u>cid</u>: string, cname:string, credits:integer)
 - Enrolled(sid:string, cid:string, grade:string)



Example: Foreign Keys





Query Languages



Query Languages

- Allow manipulation and retrieval of data from a database
- Query languages != programming languages
- not expected to be "turing complete"
 - \rightarrow i.e., not every operation can be expressed
- not intended to be used for complex calculations
- support easy, efficient access to large data sets



Relational Query Languages

- Based on relational algebra
- For relational databases, i.e. relational data model
- Relational model supports simple, powerful QLs:
 - Strong formal foundation based on logic
 - Allows for much optimization
- SQL: Most widely used relational query language
 - → Understanding Relational Algebra is key to understanding SQL, query processing!



What is an "Algebra"?

- Mathematical system consisting of
 - Operands: Variables or values from which new values can be constructed
 - Operators: Symbols denoting procedures that construct new values from given values
- Example:
 - Integers [..., -1, 0, 1, ...] as operands
 - Arithmetic operations +/- as operators



What is Relational Algebra?

- An algebra where
 - operands are relations
 - operators are designed to query relations in a database
- Can be used as a query language for relations



Relational Algebra: 5 Basic Operations

- Selection: $\sigma_c(\mathbf{R})$
 - Selects a subset of tuples from relation R, for which condition C holds (horizontal)
 - Projection: $\pi_{A_1,...,A_k}(R)$ Retains attributes $A_1,...,A_k$ from relation R (vertical)
 - Cross-product: R1 x R2
 Pairwise combination of tuples of relations R1 and R2
 - Set-difference: R1 R2
 Tuples in relation R1, but not in relation R2
 - Union: R1 U R2
 Tuples in relation R1 and/or in relation R2
 - Since each operation returns a relation, operations can be composed (Algebra is "closed")



Relational Algebra: Example Instances

Example Instances

Sailing Database: Sailors, Boats, Reserves

Boats:

bid	bname	color
101	Interlake	blue
102	Interlake	red
103		green
104	Marine	red

Reserves1:

:	<u>sid</u>	<u>bid</u>	<u>day</u>
	22	101	10/10/96
	58	103	11/12/96

Sailers1:

<u>sid</u>	sname	rating	age
22	dustin	7	45.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
58	rusty	10	35.0

Sailers 2:

sid	sname	rating	age
28	yuppy	9	35.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
44	guppy	5	35.0
58	rusty	10	35.0

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Selection (σ)

Selects rows that satisfy *selection condition*. Result is a relation.

Schema of result is same as that of the input relation.

<u>sid</u>	sname	rating	age
28	yuppy	9	35.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
44	guppy	5	35.0
58	rusty	10	35.0

S2

<u>sid</u>	sname	rating	age
28	yuppy	9	35.0
58	rusty	10	35.0

$$\sigma_{rating>8}(S2)$$



Projection (π)

Examples: $\pi_{age}(S2)$; $\pi_{sname,rating}(S2)$

Retains only attributes that are in the "projection list".

Schema of result:

- exactly the fields in the projection list,
- with the same names that they had in the input relation.

Projection operator has to eliminate duplicates (How do they arise? Why remove them?)

 Note: real systems typically don't do duplicate elimination unless the user explicitly asks for it. (Why not?)



Projection (π)

Projection

sid	sname	rating	age
28	yuppy	9	35.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
44	guppy	5	35.0
58	rusty	10	35.0

S2

	*
sname	rating DENMAR
yuppy	9
lubber	8
guppy	5
rusty	10

 $\pi_{sname,rating}(S2)$

age	
35.0	1
55.5	I

$$\pi_{age}$$
(S2)



Cross Product

S1 x R1: Each row of S1 paired with each row of R1.

Q: How many rows in the result?

Result schema has one field per field of S1 and R1, with field names `inherited' if possible.

- May have a naming conflict: Both S1 and R1 have a field with the same name.
- In this case, can use the *renaming operator*: $\rho(C(1 \rightarrow sid1, 5 \rightarrow sid2), S1 \times R1)$



Cross Product

R1

sid rating age sname **S1** 22 dustin

rusty

45.0 31 8 lubber 55.5 58 10 35.0 sid bid day 22 101 10/10/96 58 11/12/96 103

$$\rho(C(1\rightarrow sid1,5\rightarrow sid2),S1\times R1)=$$

sid1	sname	rating	age	sid2	bid	day
22	dustin	7	45.0	22	101	10/10/96
22	dustin	7	45.0	58	103	11/12/96
31	lubber	8	55.5	22	101	10/10/96
31	lubber	8	55.5	58	103	11/12/96
58	rusty	10	35.0	22	101	10/10/96
58	rusty	10	35.0	58	103	11/12/96

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Union and Set Difference

All of these operations take two input relations, which must be <u>union-compatible</u>:

- Same number of fields.
- Corresponding' fields have the same type.

For which, if any, is duplicate elimination required?



Union

sid	sname	rating	age
22	dustin	7	45.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
58	rusty	10	35.0

sid	sname	rating	age
22	dustin	7	45.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
58	rusty	10	35.0
44	guppy	5	35.0
28	yuppy	9	35.0

S1

sid	sname	rating	age
28	yuppy	9	35.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
44	guppy	5	35.0
58	rusty	10	35.0

 $S1 \cup S2$

S2



Set Difference

<u>sid</u>	sname	rating	age
22	dustin	7	45.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
58	rusty	10	35.0

sid	sname	rating	age
22	dustin	7	45.0

S1 - S2

S1

sid	sname	rating	age
28	yuppy	9	35.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
44	guppy	5	35.0
58	rusty	10	35.0

<u>sid</u>	sname	rating	age
28	yuppy	9	35.0
44	guppy	5	35.0

S2 - S1

S2



Nesting Operators

- Result of a relational algebra operator is a relation
- It can be used as input to another relational algebra operator

si	d	sname	rating	aş	ge
28	3	yuppy	9	3	5.0
3	<u> </u>	lubber	-8	5	5.5
4	1	guppy	5	3	5.0
5	8	rusty	10	3	5.0
			•		

sname	rating
yuppy	9
rusty	10

$$\pi_{sname,rating}(\sigma_{rating>8}(S2))$$



Compound Operator: Intersection

- In addition to the 5 basic operators, there are several additional "Compound Operators"
 - Do not add computational power to the language
 - Useful shorthands
 - Can be expressed with basic operations
- Example: Intersection
 - Takes two input relations that are union-compatible

$$R \cap S = R - (R - S)$$



Compound Operator: Intersection

sid	sname	rating	age
22	dustin	7	45.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
58	rusty	10	35.0
S 1			

sid	sname	rating	age
31	lubber	8	55.5
58	rusty	10	35.0

<u>sid</u>	sname	rating	age
28	yuppy	9	35.0
31	lubber	8	55.5
44	guppy	5	35.0
58	rusty	10	35.0

S1 ∩ **S2**

S2



SQL - A language for Relational DBs



SQL - A language for Relational DBs

- Say: "ess-cue-ell" or "sequel"
 - But spelled "SQL"
- Data Definition Language (DDL)
 - create, modify, delete relations
 - specify constraints
 - administer users, security, etc.
- Data Manipulation Language (DML)
 - Specify queries to find tuples that satisfy criteria
 - add, modify, remove tuples
- The DBMS is responsible for efficient evaluation



SQL - A language for Relational DBs

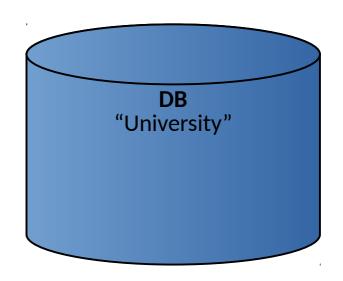
- Query language to retrieve data from database
- Includes a data-definition component to define database schemas
- SQL commands have to be terminated with ';'
- SQL is standardized
 - some DBMS include their own SQL commands



Creating Databases in SQL

Create a new, empty database 'University':
 CREATE DATABASE University;

 Does not contain any relations upon creation



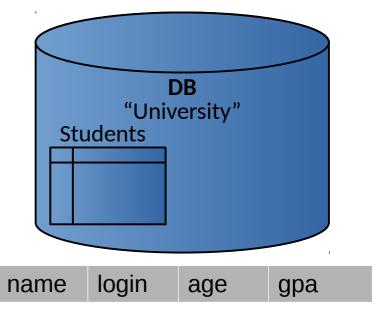


Creating Relations in SQL

• Create a new, empty relation 'Students':

CREATE TABLE Students (sid CHAR(20) PRIMARY KEY, name CHAR(20), login CHAR(10), age INTEGER, gpa FLOAT);

- Does not contain any tuples upon creation
- Note: the type (domain) of each field is specified, and enforced by the DBMS whenever tuples are added or modified.



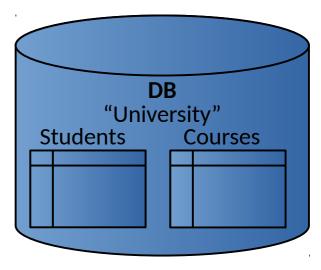


sid

Creating Relations in SQL

• Similarly:

CREATE TABLE Courses (cid CHAR(20) PRIMARY KEY, cname CHAR(20), credits INTEGER);





Adding and Deleting Tuples

Insert a single tuple:

INSERT INTO Students (sid, name, login, age, gpa) VALUES ('53688', 'Smith', 'smith@ee', 18, 3.2);

sid	name	login	age	gpa
53688	Smith	smith@ee	18	3.2

 Delete all tuples satisfying some condition (e.g., name = Smith):

DELETE FROM Students S WHERE S.name = 'Smith';



Selecting Tuples in SQL

 Find tuples for all 18 year old students with gpa's above 2.0:

SELECT * FROM Students S WHERE S.age=18 AND S.gpa > 2.0;

sid	name	login	age	gpa
53688	Smith	smith@ee	18	3.2

To get just names and logins:

SELECT S.name, S.login FROM Students S WHERE S.age=18 AND S.gpa > 2.0;

name	login
Smith	smith@ee



Relational Algebra Operators in SQL

- Relational algebra operators can be expressed with SQL
- Selection operator (σ):

```
SELECT * FROM Students S
WHERE S.age=18 AND S.gpa > 2.0;
```

Projection operator (π):

```
SELECT S.age, S.gpa FROM Students S;
```

Union:

```
SELECT * FROM Students S
WHERE S.age=18 AND S.gpa > 2.0
UNION
SELECT * FROM Students S
WHERE S.age=20 AND S.gpa > 2.3;
```



Relational Algebra Operators in SQL

Set Difference:

```
SELECT * FROM Students S
WHERE S.gpa > 2.0
EXCEPT
SELECT * FROM Students S
WHERE S.age=19;
```

• Cross Product:

SELECT * FROM Students S, Enrolled E;



Primary Keys in SQL

Single attribute key:

CREATE TABLE Students (sid CHAR(20) PRIMARY KEY, name CHAR(20), login CHAR(10), age INTEGER, gpa FLOAT)

Multi-attribute key:

CREATE TABLE Enrolled (sid CHAR(20) cid CHAR(20), grade CHAR(2), PRIMARY KEY (sid,cid))



Foreign Keys in SQL

- Only students listed in the Students relation should be allowed to enroll for courses
 - → sid is a foreign key referring to Students
- Students can only enroll for registered courses
 - → cid is a foreign key referring to Courses

CREATE TABLE Enrolled (sid CHAR(20),cid CHAR(20),grade CHAR(2), PRIMARY KEY (sid,cid), FOREIGN KEY (sid) REFERENCES Students, FOREIGN KEY (cid) REFERENCES Courses);



Thank you for your attention!

