### Programmerade system **TDA143** Lecture on Databases

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### Material in course textbook

"Computer Science: An Overview" 9th /10th/11th Edition, J. Glenn Brookshear

Chapter 9

### Why study databases?

Banking, ticket reservations, customer records, sales records, product records, inventories, employee records, address

Databases are

tables, news archives, sports results, ecommerce, user authentication systems, web forums, www.imdb.com, the world wide web, ...

### **Examples**

- Banking
- Drove the development of DBMS
- Industry
  - Inventories, personnel records, sales ...
  - Production Control
  - Test data
- Research
  - Sensor data
  - Geographical data
  - Laboratory information management systems
  - Biological data (e.g. genome data)

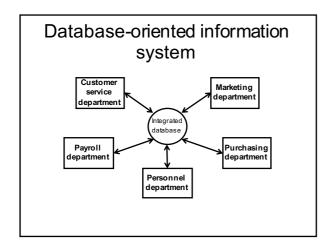
## File-oriented information system records Purchasing Payroll departmen Personnel department Marketing

department

department

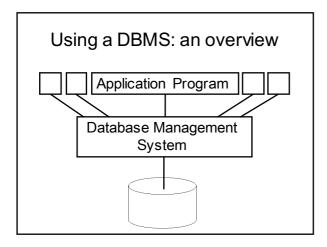
### Problems with working with files

- Redundancy
  - Updates
  - Wasted space
- · Changing a data format will require all application programs that read/write these files to be changed.
- · Sharing information between departments can be difficult.



### A database is ...

- · a collection of data
- · managed by specialised software called a database management system (DBMS) (or, informally, a "database system")
- · needed for large amounts of persistent, structured, reliable and shared data



### Centralised control of data

- · amount of redundancy can be reduced
- less inconsistency in the stored data
- · stored data can be shared
- · standards can be enforced
- security restrictions can be applied
- data integrity can be maintained
  - validation done in one place
- · conflicting requirements can be balanced
- provides data independence
  - can change storage structure without affecting applications

### Motivation for database systems

Needed for large amounts of persistent, structured, reliable and shared data (Ted Codd, 1973)

- Large amounts:
  - needs indexing for fastaccess
    needs a load utility
- Persistent:
- needs schema definition of types which evolves
- Structured:
   storage schema heldwith data
   query language (eg. SQL) independent of storage
  Shared:

- Shared:

   locking mechanism for concurrent update

   access control via DBMS

   centralised integrity checking

  Reiliable:

   changes to disc pages are logged

   commitprotects against program of disc crash

   can undo (rollback) uncommitted updates

### Traditional File Structures

A short digression ...

# UNIX file management direct 1 direct 2 direct 2 direct 2 direct 4 direct 6 direct 6 direct 6 direct 7 direct 1 direct 1

### Actual organisation is hidden

- Just as the file management system in an operating system gives the users the illusion that a text file is stored on disc as a long consecutive sequence of characters
- ... a database management system gives the users the illusion that their data are stored on disc in accordance with a data model.

### Data models

- Storing data in a computer system requires describing the data according to some data model, in a form which can be represented directly within the computer.
- A data model specifies the rules according to which data are structured and also the associated operations that are permitted.

### Data models: brief overview

- "No data model"
  - Flat files
- · "Classical" data models
  - Hierarchical
  - Network (e.g. CODASYL)
- (tree) (graph) (tables)
- Relational (Codd, 1970)
- Semantic data models, e.g.
   Entity-Relationship model (Chen, 1976)
  - Functional Data Model (Shipman, 1981)
  - SDM (Hammer and McLeod, 1981)

### Relational DBMSs

- · Very simple model
- Familiar tabular structure
- Has a good theoretical foundation from mathematics (set theory)
- · Industrial strength implementations, e.g.
  - Oracle, Sybase, MySQL, PostgreSQL, Microsoft SQL Server, DB2 (IBM mainframes)
- Large user community

### **Relation Schemas**

- In the relational data model, a design consists of a set of relation schemas.
- · A relation schema has
  - a name, and
  - a set of attributes (+ types):

Courses(code, name, teacher)





### Schema vs Instance

- Schema (or intension or a relation)
  - name and attributes of a relation

Courses (code, name, teacher)

- Instances (or extension of a relation)
  - the actual data
  - a set of tuples:



### From schema to database

 The relations of the database schema become the tables when we implement the database in a DBMS. The tuples become the rows:







code	name	teacher	
'TDA357'	'Databases'	'Niklas Broberg'	
'TIN090'	'Algorithms'	'Devatt Dubhashi'	

### Keys

 Relations have keys – attributes whose values uniquely determine the values of all other attributes in the relation.

### Composite keys

· Keys can consist of several attributes

```
Courses(code, period, name, teacher)

{('TDA357', 2, 'Databases', 'Graham Kemp'),
('TDA357', 3, 'Databases', 'Niklas Broberg')}
```

### Schemas and subschemas

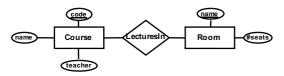
- A <u>schema</u> is a description of the entire database structure.
- A <u>subschema</u> is a description of only a part of the database structure.
  - Tailored to the needs of a user group  $\,$
  - Controls access to data

### Database design

- We design the conceptual model for our database using a high-level data model like the Enitity-Relationship model ...
- ... then we translate this design to the relational model (for implementation in an RDBMS).

### Enitity-Relationship Diagram

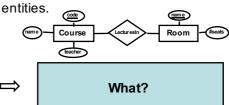
### Example:



- · A course has lectures in a room.
- A course is related to a room by the fact that the course has lectures in that room.
- · A relationship is often named with a verb (e.g. HasLecturesIn)

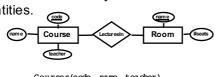
### Translation to relations

 A relationship between two entities is translated into a relation, where the attributes are the keys of the related entities



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Rooms(name, #seats)
LecturesIn(code, name)

### Relational operators (1)

- Selection
  - Choose rows from a relation
  - State condition that rows must satisfy

 $\sigma_{condition}(T)$ 

Examples:

 $\sigma_{\text{seats}>100}(\text{Rooms})$ 

σ(code="TDA143" AND day="Friday")(Lectures)

### Relational operators (2)

- Projection
  - Choose columns from a relation
  - State which columns (attributes)

Examples:

 $\pi_A(T)$ 

 $\pi_{code}(Courses)$ 

 $\pi_{\text{name, seats}}(\text{Rooms})$ 

### Relational operators (3)

 $R_1 \times R_2$ 

- Cartesian product
- Combine each row of  $R_1$  with each row of  $R_2$

R<sub>1</sub> M<sub>condition</sub> R<sub>2</sub>

- join operator
- Combine row of  $R_1$  with each row of  $R_2$  if the condition is true

 $R_1 \bowtie_{condition} R_2 = \sigma_{condition}(R_1 \times R_2)$ 

### **SQL**

- SQL = Structured Query Language
- A very high-level declarative language.
  - Specify what information you want, not how to get that information (like you would in e.g. Java).
- · Based on Relational Algebra

### SELECT-FROM-WHERE

· Basic structure of an SQL query:

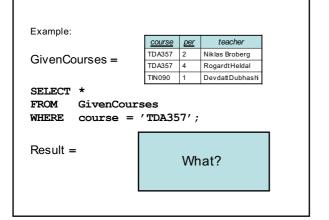
SELECT attributes
FROM tables
WHERE tests over rows

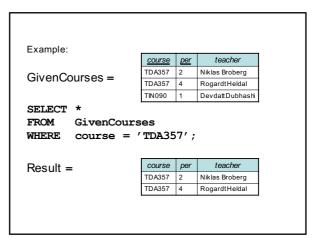
nere tests over rows

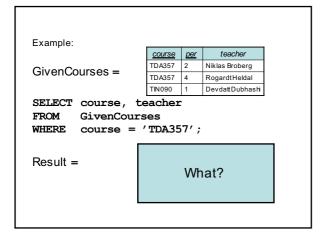
FROM T WHERE C

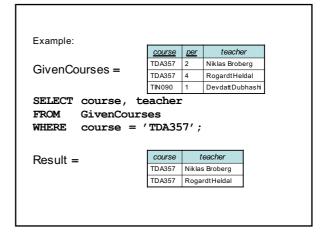
SELECT A

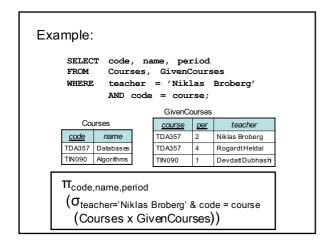
 $\pi_A(\sigma_C(T))$ 

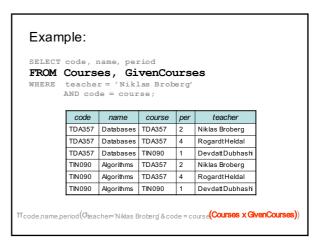


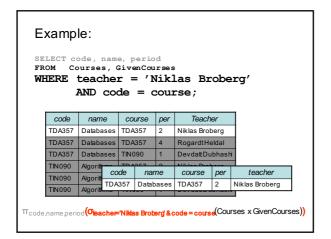


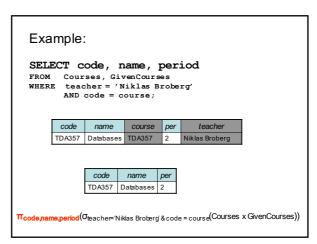












## Inserting data INSERT INTO tablename VALUES (values for attributes); INSERT INTO Courses VALUES ('TDA357', 'Databases'); code name TDA357 Databases

# Deletions Deletions Delete FROM tablename WHERE test over rows; Delete FROM Courses WHERE code = 'TDA357'; Delete FROM Courses;

## Updates

UPDATE tablename

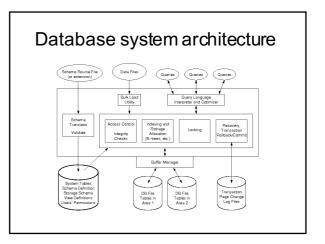
SET attribute = ... WHERE test over rows

UPDATE GivenCourses

SET teacher = 'Rogardt Heldal'

WHERE code = 'TDA357'

AND period = 4;



### More about Databases

TDA357 - Databases

- 7,5 Higher education credits
- Runs twice each year, periods 2 and 3