

Govt Polytechnic
Darbhanga
Semester IV
DBMS Notes
sub Code (1618403)

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DBMS

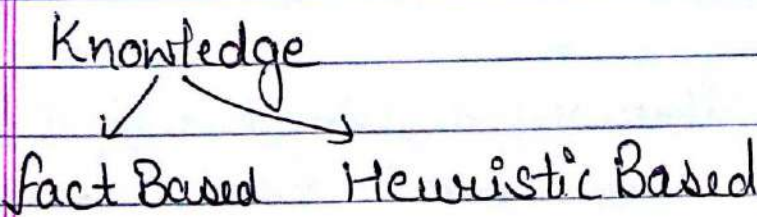
Data ÷ Data is the raw material that can be processed for any computing machine eg ÷ employee name, product name, name of the student, marks of the student, any number, image

Information ÷ It is the data that has been converted into more useful or intelligible form eg report card sheet

Why we need information

- 1) To gain knowledge about the surroundings
- 2) To keep the system upto date
- 3) To know about the rules and regulation of the society

Knowledge ÷ Human mind purposefully organise the information and evaluate it to produce knowledge eg 238 is a data and Marks of student is information and the hardwork require to get mark is knowledge



- 1) Fact Based ÷ The knowledge gain from fundamental & through experiment
- 2) Heuristic Based ÷ It is the knowledge of good practice

and good judgement like hypothesis

Difference between data and information

| Data | Information |
|--|----------------------------------|
| ① Data is the raw fact | It is the processed form of data |
| ② It is not significant to a business | It is significant to a business |
| ③ Data are Atomic level piece of information | It is a collection of data |
| ④ Data doesnot help in decision making | It help in decision making |
| ⑤ eg: product name, name of student | eg report Card Sheet |

Database: The related information when placed in an organised form makes a database or an organised collection of related information is known as database eg Dictionary, Telephone Directory, Mobil Contact

Operation perform on Database

- 1) Insertion
- 2) Updation
- 3) Deletion
- 4) Retrive
- 5) Sorting

Difference between Computerised databases and manual databases

Traditional File System :-

~~aka~~ File System :- A file system is the method of storing and organising the computer files and the data they contain to make it easy to find and access them

Characteristic of files system :-

- 1) It is a group of files for storing the data of an organisation
- 2) Each file is independent from one another
- 3) Each file is called a flat files
- 4) Files are design by using the program written in programming language such as c, c++

Limitation/Disadvantages of File processing system :-

- 1) Separated and isolated data
- 2) Duplication of data :- 1) It cost time and money
- 2) It takes up additional storage space
- 3) It can lead to loss of data integrity
- 3) Data dependencies :- files and record were describe by specific physical format that were code in the application program by the programs
- 4) Difficulty in representing the data from the user point of view
- 5) Data security :- The security of data is low in the file based system because the data is maintain in a flat file is easy accessible

6) Transactional problems:- This system does not satisfy transactional properties called ACID properties A → Atomicity, C → Consistency, I → Isolation, D → Durability

7) Concurrency problems:- When multiple user access a same piece of data at a same interval of time then it is called as concurrency of system. When two or more user read the data simultaneously then there is no problem but when they like to update the file simultaneously it may result in a problem

Building Block of Database :-

- 1) Column / fields
- 2) Rows / tuple / Record
- 3) Tables

DBMS (Data Base Management System) :- It is the software system that allow the user to define, to create and maintain the database and provide control access to the data

Application of Database :-

- 1) Library System
- 2) Banking System
- 3) ATM

Database: Mysql, Oracle, sql server, DB2, Microsoft Access

Components of DBMS :-

- 1) **Hardware :-** The hardware is the actual computer system used for keeping and accessing the database. Conventional DBMS hardware consist of secondary storage devices such as harddisk. Database run on the range of machine from micro computers to main frames.
- 2) **Software :-** Software is the actual DBMS between the physical Database and the users of the system. All the request from the user for accessing the database are handled by DBMS.

3) Data :-

- 4) **Users :-** There are no of users who can access or retrieve the data on demand using the application and the interfaces provided by the DBMS.

The Users of the database can be classified into the following groups.

- 1) Naive Users
- 2) Online Users
- 3) Sophisticated users
- 4) Specialized users
- 5) Application programmers
- 6) DBA - Database Administrator

- ① **Naive Users :-** Those user who need not be aware of the presence of the database system. They are the end users of the database who

Work through a menu driven application programs, where the type and range of response is always indicated to the users

- 2) Online Users: Those users who may communicate with database directly through an online terminal or indirectly through user interface and application program.
- 3) Sophisticated User: They are those users who interact with the system without writing the program. Instead they form their request in database query language.
- 4) Specialized User: Those users who write specialized database application that do not fit into the fractional database processing framework.
- 5) Application Programmer: Those users who are responsible for developing the application programs or user interface. The application programs could be written in high level languages.
- 6) DBA - Database Administrator: It is a person or the group in charge for implementing the database system within the organisation. The DBA has all the privilege allowed by the DBMS and can assign or remove the privileges from the users.

5) Procedure :-

Disadvantages of DBMS :-

- 1) Complexity :-
- 2) Size
- 3) Performance
- 4) Higher impact of failure
- 5) Cost of DBMS

Differentiate between File Management System & DBMS.

* Master file :- Master file are those file which remain static. There is no change.

o Transaction file :- Transaction file are those file which is dynamic in nature. We can make changes.

o Instances :- The situation data in the database at a particular moment of time is called an instance.

o Schema :- The overall design of the database is called Schema OR Description of database.

o SubSchema :- It is the subset of the schema and inherit the same property that a schema has. It gives the users a window through which he/she can view only that part of database which is of interest to him.

Architecture of DBMS :-

There is 3 level

- 1) External level
- 2) Conceptual Level
- 3) Internal Level

Objective of three level Architecture or 3 level Architecture :-

The objective is to separate each users view of the data from the way the database is physically represented.

There are several reasons

- 1) The internal structure of the database should be unaffected while changes to the physical aspects of storage.
- 2) The DBA should be able to change the conceptual structure of the database without affecting all other users.

1) External level / view level :- This level describes that part of the database that is relevant to each user. This level insulates the users from the details of conceptual and the internal level.

2) Conceptual level / logic level :- This level describes what data is stored into the database and the relationship among the data.
It represents :-

- (a) All the entities, attributes and these relationships
- (b) The constraints on the data

2) Security and Integrity information
/Storage Level

3) Internal level: It is the physical representation of the database on the computer. This level describes how the data is stored in the database. It covers the data structure and file organisation used to store the data on storage devices.

Schemas:

- 1) External Schema
- 2) Conceptual Schema
- 3) Internal Schema

1) External Schema: The external view is described by means of a schema called External Schema, that corresponds to different views of the data.

2) Conceptual Schema: The conceptual view is defined by Conceptual Schema, which describes all the entities, attributes and their relationship with the integrity constraints.

3) Internal Schema: Internal level is defined by internal Schema, which is a complete description of the internal model.

There is only 1 Conceptual Schema and 1 internal Schema per database and more than 1 external Schema.

Schema is also known as Intension.

NOTE: Instance / Extension of database

Mapping between the levels:

- 1) External / Conceptual Mapping
- 2) Conceptual / Internal Mapping

1) External / Conceptual Mapping: Each External Schema is related to the Conceptual Schema by external Conceptual Mapping. This Mapping gives the Correspondance among the records and the relationships of the external & Conceptual Views. There is a mapping from a particular logical record in the external View to one or more Conceptual record in the Conceptual View.

2) Conceptual / Internal Mapping: Conceptual Schema is related to Internal Schema by Conceptual Internal Mapping. Mapping between the Conceptual and Internal level Specify the method of deriving the Conceptual Record from physical database

Data Independence:

- 1) Logical data independency.
- 2) Physical data independency.

1) Logical data independency: It indicates that the Conceptual Schema can be changed without effecting the existing external Schema. The changes would be absorbed by the mapping

between external and conceptual level

2) Physical data independency: It indicates that the physical storage structure or devices can be changed without effecting the conceptual schema. The change would be absorbed by the conceptual internal mapping.

→ Logical data independency is much more difficult to achieve than physical data independency as it requires the flexibility in the design of the database and programmer has to see the future requirement or modification in the design.

• Limitation of file processing system:

1) Separated and Isolated Data: To make a decision, a user might need data from two separate files. First the files were evaluated by analysts and programmers to determine the specific data required from each file and the relationship between the data and then application could be written in a programming language to process and extract the needed data.

2) Difficulty in representing data from the user's view: To create useful application for the user, often data from various files must be combined. In file processing it was difficult to determine relationships between isolated data in order to meet user application.

Components of DBMS:

- **Data:** It is the most important component of DBMS environment from the end users point of view.

One of the major features of database is that actual data are separated from the programs that use the data. A database should always be designed, built and populated for a particular audience and for a specific purpose.

- **Procedures:** Procedures refer to the instructions and rules that govern the design and use of the database. The users of the system and the staff that manage the database require documented procedures on how to use or run the system.

Disadvantages of DBMS:

- 1) **Complexity:** The provision of the functionality that is expected of a good DBMS makes the DBMS an extremely complex piece of software. Database designers, developers, database administrators and end-users must understand this functionality to take full advantage of it. Failure to understand the system can lead to bad design decisions, which can have serious consequences for an organization.

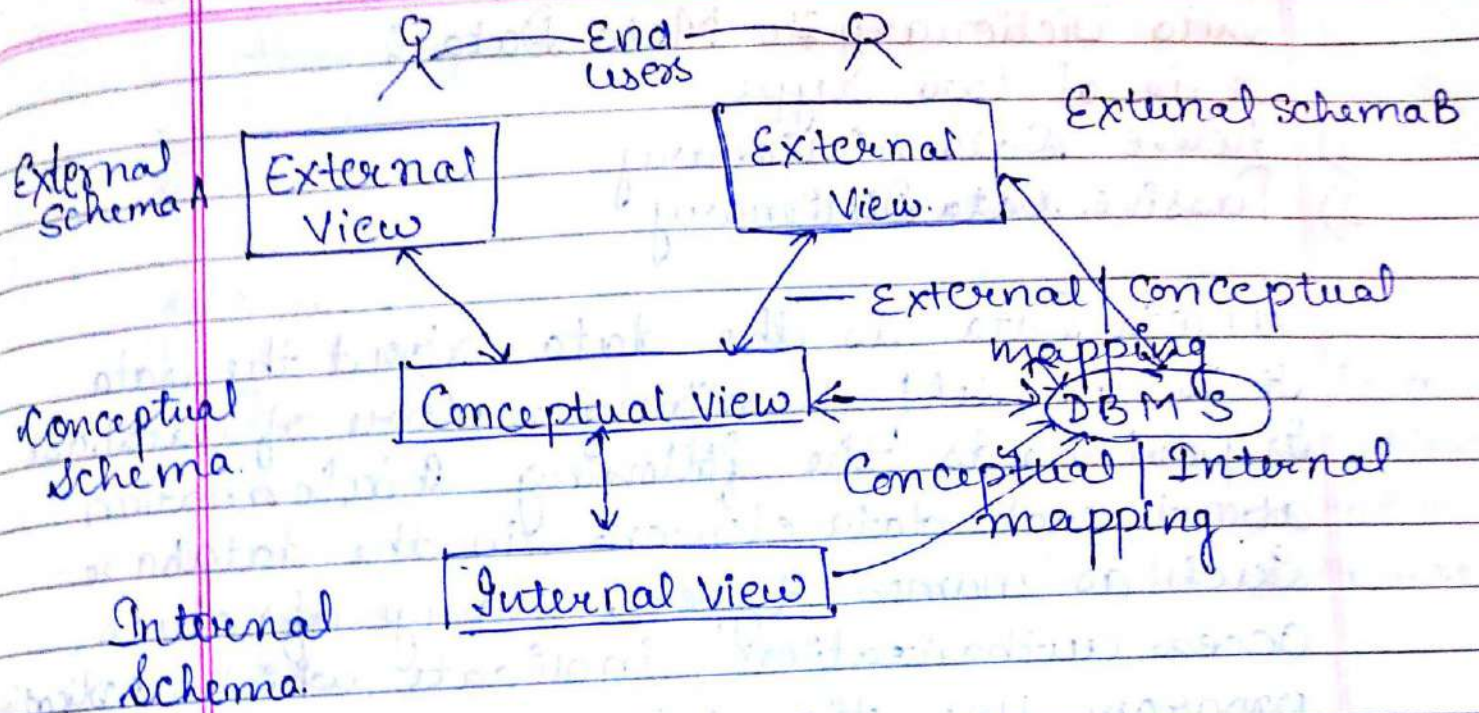
- 2) Size: The complexity and breadth of functionality makes the DBMS an extremely large piece of software, occupying megabytes of disk space and requiring substantial amount of memory to run efficiently.
- 3) Performance: A File Based System is written for a specific application such as invoicing. A result performance is generally very good. However, the DBMS is written to be more general to cater for many application rather than just one.
- 4) Higher impact of a failure: The centralization of resource increases the vulnerability of the system. Since all user and applications rely on the availability of the DBMS, the failure of any component can bring operation to a halt.
- 5) Cost of DBMS: The cost of DBMS varies significantly depending on the environment and functionality provided. There is also the recurrent annual maintenance cost.

File Management eg C++ or COBOL Program

- 1) Small System
- 2) Relatively cheap
- 3) few files
- 4) files are files
- 5) Simple Structure
- 6) little preliminary design
- 7) integrity left to application programmer
- 8) no security
- 9) Simple, primitive backup/recovery
- 10) often single user

Database Management eg oracle or Sybase

- 1) Large System
- 2) Relatively expensive
- 3) many files
- 4) files not necessarily files
- 5) Complex Structure
- 6) Vast preliminary design.
- 7) rigorous inbuilt integrity checking
- 8) rigorous security
- 9) Complex & sophisticated backup/recovery
- 10) multiple users



Role of DBA (Database Administrator.) :- It is a person or group in charge for implementing DBMS in an organisation. The DBA job requires high degree of technical expertise. DBA consist of a team of people rather than just one person.

Responsibilities of DBA :-

- 1) Makes the decision concerning the content of the database.
- 2) Plans the storage structure and access strategy.
- 3) Provides the support to the users.
- 4) Defines the security and integrity checks.
- 5) Interprets backup and recovery strategies.
- 6) Monitoring the performance and responding to the changes in the requirements.

Data Dictionary or Meta Data :-

It is of two type

- 1) Active Data Dictionary.
- 2) Passive Data Dictionary.

A Meta Data is the data about the data. It is the self describing nature of database. It part holds the following information about each data element in the database. Such as names, types, range of values, access authorization, indicate which application program uses the data.

Meta Data is used by the developers to develop the program, queries to manage and manipulate the data.

Dictionary:-

1) Active Data Dictionary: It is manage automatically by the data management software. It is always consistent with the current structure of the Data base.

2) Passive Data Dictionary: It is the one use for documentation purposes. It is managed by the user of the system and is modified manually by the users.

Database Languages :-

① Data Definition Language (DDL) :- It is a language that allows the user to define the data and their relationship to

Other type of data Command are

- 1) Create
- 2) Alter
- 3) Rename
- 4) Drop.

2) Data Manipulation language (DML) : It is a language that provides a set of operation to support the basic data manipulation operation on the data held in the database.
Command used are :

- 1) Insert
- 2) Delete
- 3) Select
- 4) Update

3) Data Control languages (DCL) : Command are:

- 1) GRANT
- 2) REVOKE

Data Models : There are three type of data Models

- 1) Object based
- 2) Record based logical models
- 3) Physical Based

It can be define as an integrated collection of concepts for describing and manipulating the data, relationships between the data and constraint on the data in an organisation.

It comprises of three component

- 1) Structural part : There are rule which help in designing model

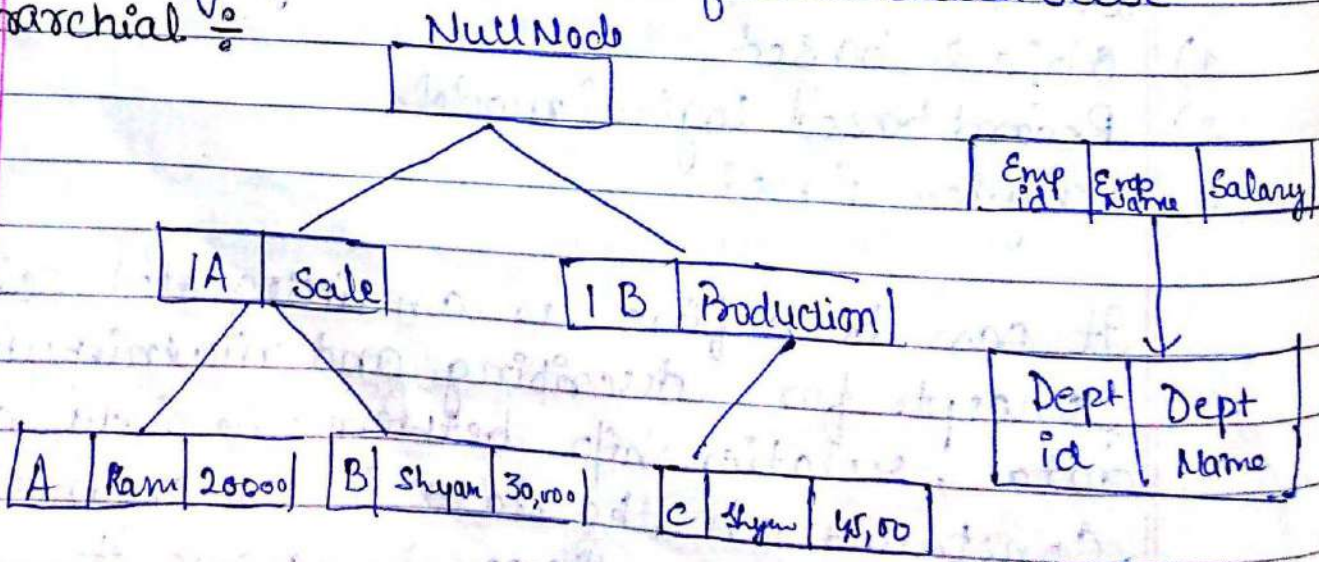
- 2) Manipulative part: which type of operation is apply on model
- 3) Integrity Rules :

Data model are divided into three category
 1) object based : It uses a concept such as entities, attribute and there relationship. This model can be used to describe the data at the Conceptual and External level
 Eg E-R models

2) Physical based : These model describe how the data is stored in the Computer. This model is used to describe the data at the internal level.

3) Record based logical models : These models are used in describing the data at the logical and the view level. These models are used to Specify the over all logical structure of the database

Eg of Hierarchical :



1) Hierarchical model:

It is based on tree structure. It consists of collection of records that are connected to each other by links. The tree structure used in a hierarchical model is known as rooted tree. The root node of that tree is an empty node. So hierarchical model is a collection of rooted trees and the relationship exists in the hierarchical model is one to many and ^{one} many to one.

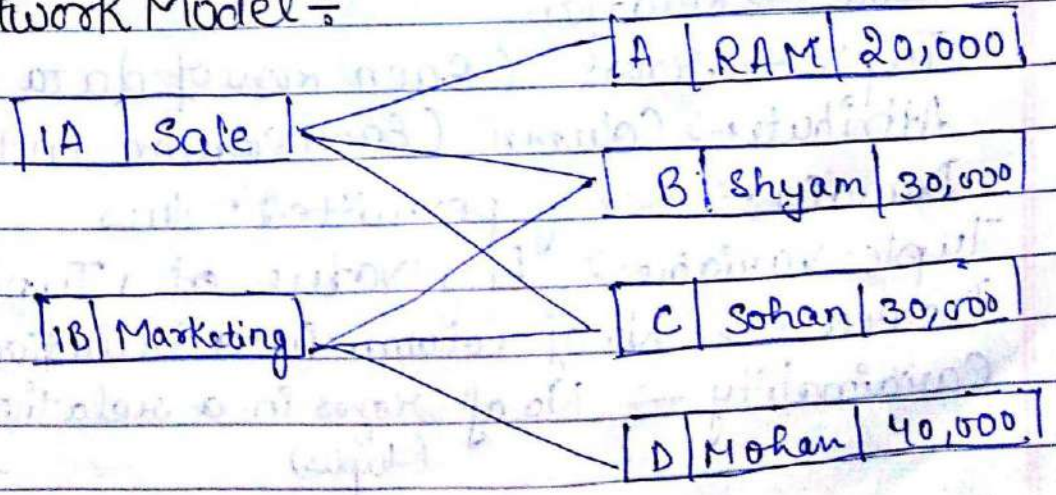
Advantages:

- 1) It is easy to understand.
- 2) More efficient than ER model

Disadvantage:

- 1) Data inconsistency occurs when the parent node is deleted that results in the deletion of the child node.
- 2) Wastage of storage space
- 3) Complex to design
- 4) Absence of structural independency

2) Network Model:



for one to many →
one to one ↔
many to many →

It is based on Graph Structure. It consists of collection of records, which are connected to each other by links.

Advantages:

- 1) It is easy to design than the Hierarchical model
- 2) Data access is easy in the network model

Disadvantages:

- 1) It is complex to design than a relational model
- 2) Efficiency are less than the relational model
- 3) Absence of structural independency

3) Relational Model: Relational model stores data in form of tables.

Employee

| Emp id | Name | Salary |
|--------|------|--------|
| 1 | A | 20,000 |
| 2 | B | 30,000 |
| 3 | C | 40,000 |
| 4 | D | 50,000 |

Department

| Dep id | Name |
|--------|-----------|
| A | Sales |
| B | Marketing |

Tuple Variable

Table → Relation

Tuple → rows (Each Row of data)

Attributes → Column. (Each Column in the tuple)

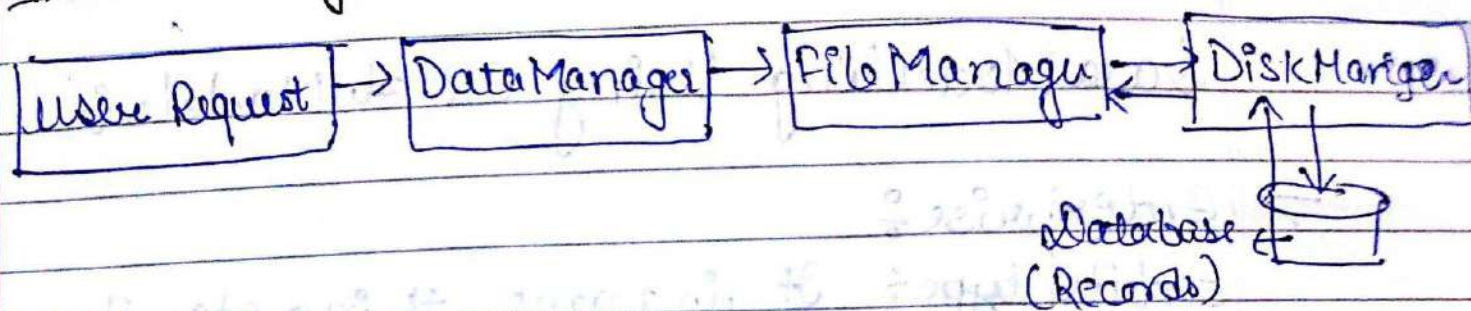
Domain → Set of permitted values

Tuples variable → Any value of a Tuple

Degree → No of Column in a relation. → 3 in emp.

Cardinality → No of rows in a relation. (Tuples)

Data Manager ०



UNIT-2

- In Relational model many to many relationship can be easily implemented.
- It is useful for representing most of the real world object and relationship among them.
- Relational model does not maintain physical connection among records. Data is organized logically in the forms of rows and columns and stored in table.

UNIT-2

Data Modelling Using ER Models

→ Enterprise

Entity type: It is name, thing etc. These are the data

Object about which information is to be collected

Attributes: ~~prop~~ characteristic of entity OR Data elements & Data fields.

Type of Attributes

1) Single Value Attributes: Those attribute which contain a single value. for eg: Age, Salary etc

2) Multivalued Attribute: That contain more than one value ^{of a single entity} for eg Phone no.

3) Composite Attributes: Those attribute which can be further divided. for eg name → First name Last name, Date of Birth etc.

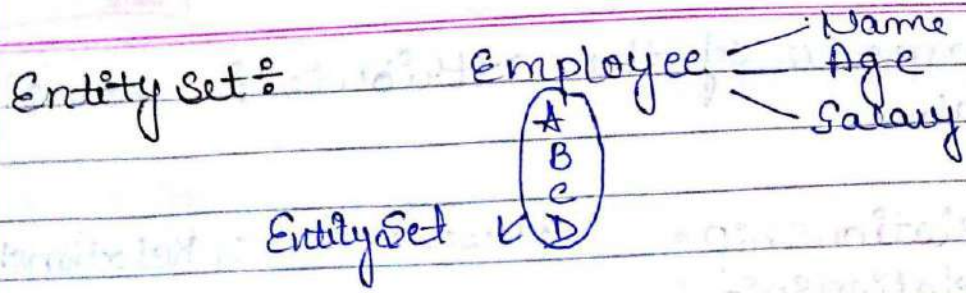
4) Simple or Atomic attributes: Those attributes which can not be further divided for eg Age.

5) Stored Attributes: Attributes which can ^{not} be derived from another attribute Date of Birth.

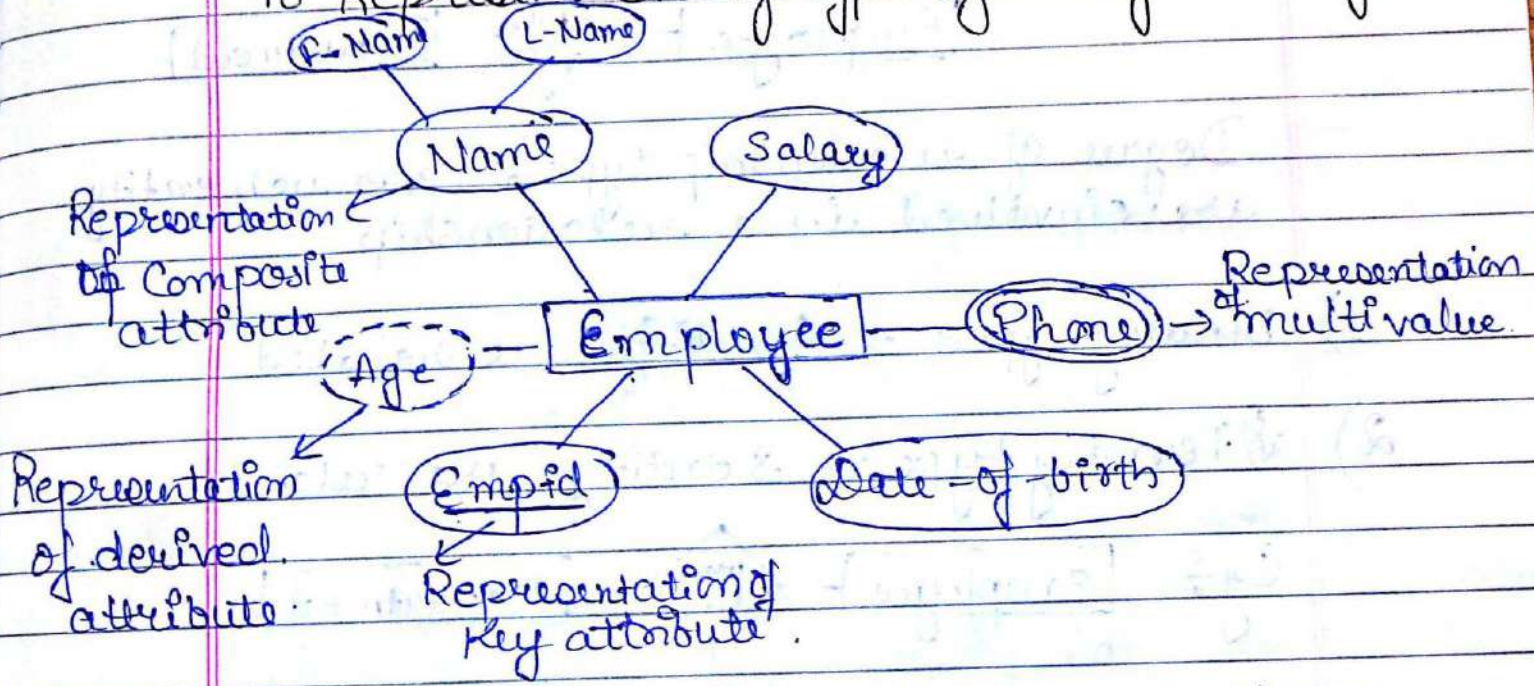
6) Null value: Empty.

Entity Types: Collection of Entity that share the same attribute.





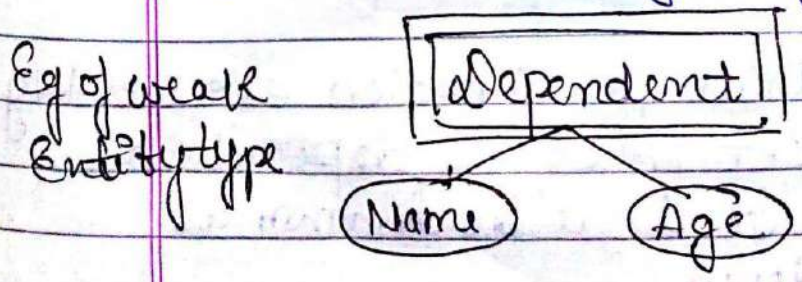
To Represent Entity Type by using ER diagram.




Key attribute :- Key attribute are those attribute which is uniquely identify the record.

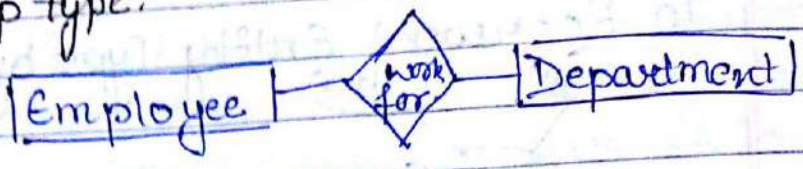
Weak Entity type :- In Those entity type in which in which no key attributes is present

Strong Entity type :- Those strong Entity type which consist of key attributes



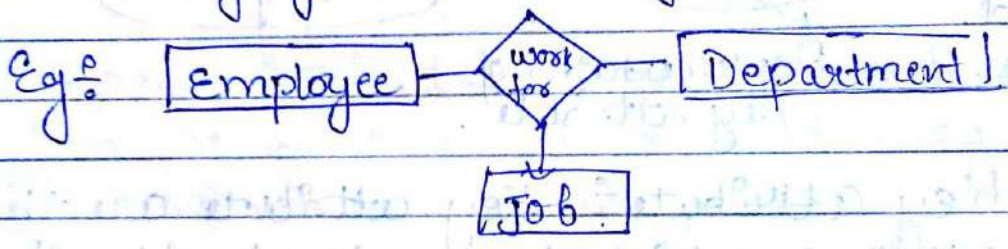
Domain of the attributes: Set of possible values.

To join two entities → Relationship * Representation of Relationship 
Relationship type:

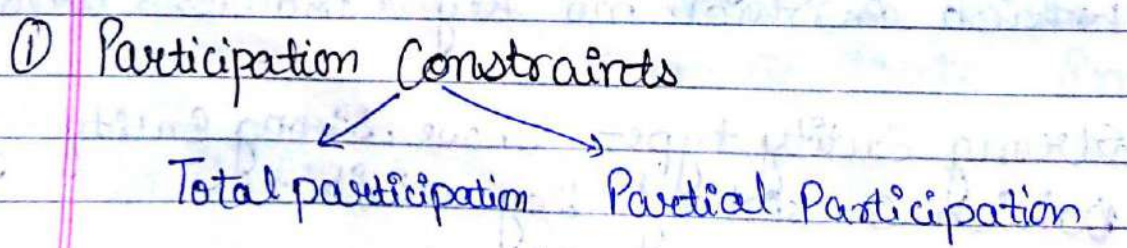


Degree of relationship type: How much entity are involved in a relationship.

- 1) Binary type → 2 entity are related
- 2) Ternary type → 3 entity are related.



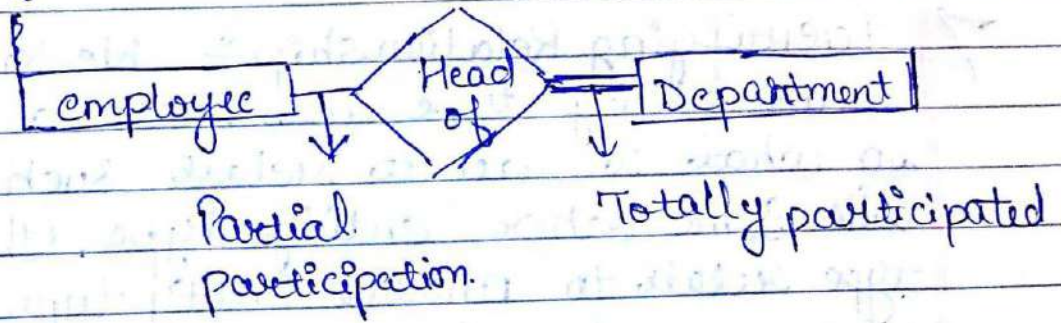
Relationship Constraints:
→ Participation constraints
→ Cardinality ratio



① Total Participation: In total participation every entity in the empty set must be depend on another entity. It is also known as existence dependency.

In E-R diagram it is represented as a double line connecting the participating Entity type to the relationship.

① Partial participation: In partial participation some entities in the entity set are dependent upon another entity.



② Cardinality section: Cardinality section for binary relationship specifies the no. of relationship instance that an entity can participate in a relation set.

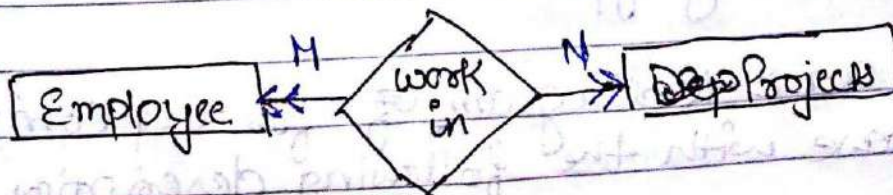
Relationship exists are:

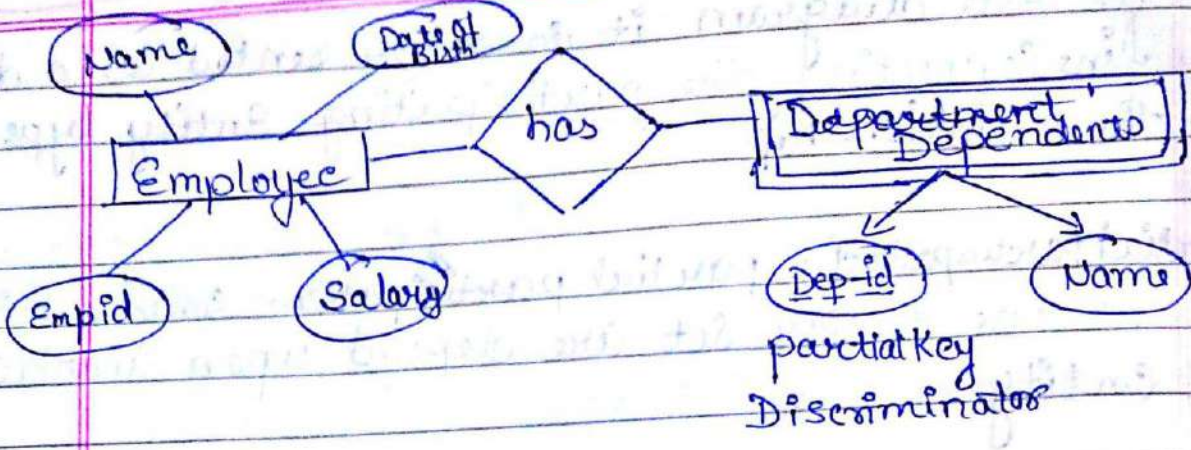
one to one $\rightarrow (1:1)$

one to many $\rightarrow (1:N)$

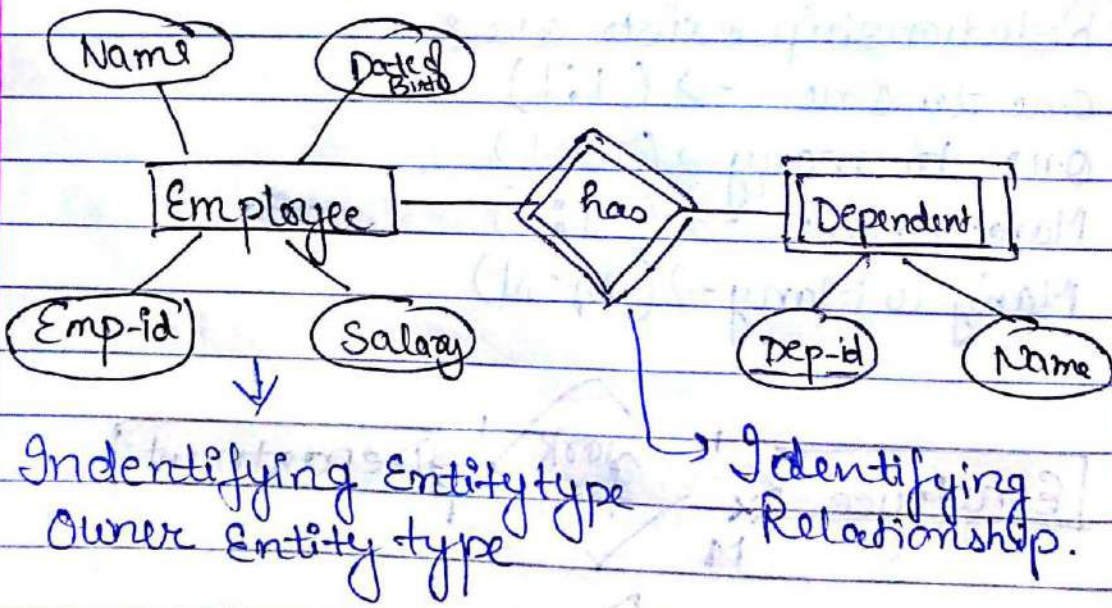
Many to one $\rightarrow (N:1)$

Many to Many $\rightarrow (M:N)$





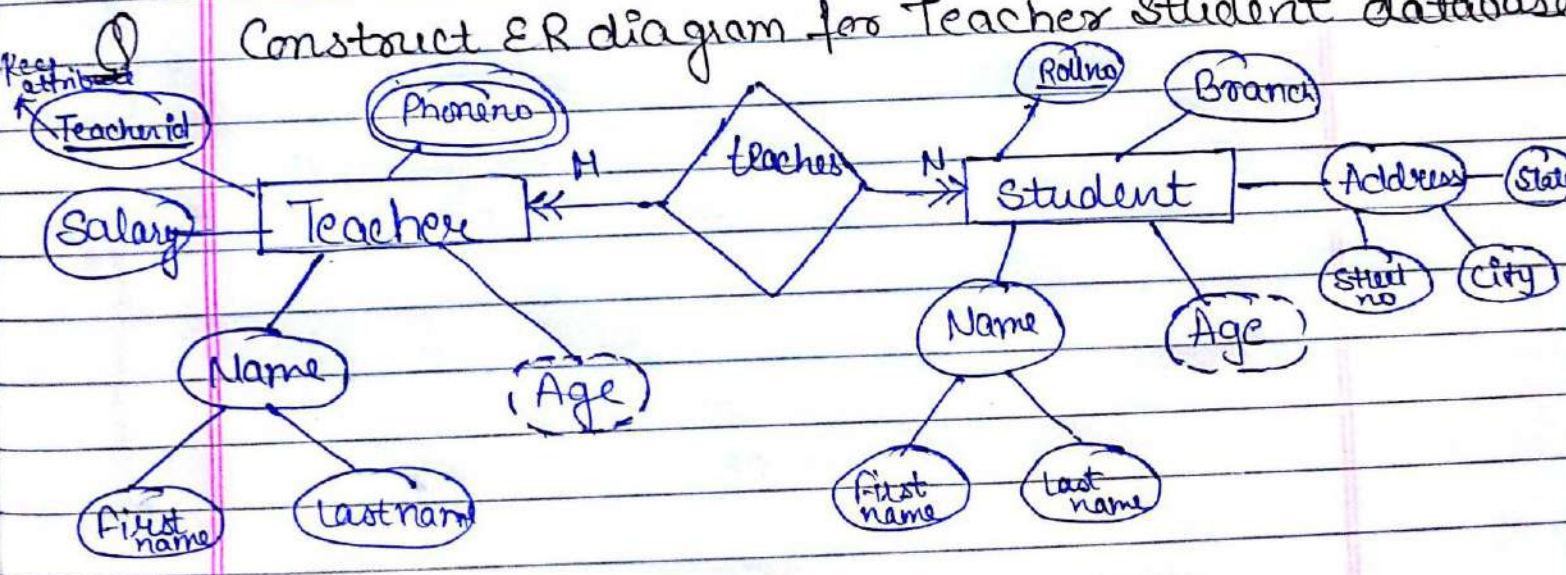
→ Identifying Relationship :- We know that a weak entity type does have a key attribute, so what we do to relate such entity type with some other entity type. The weak entity type relate to another entity type in combination with some of their attributes value. We call this other entity type the identifying or the owner entity type and we call the relationship type that relates to its owner the identifying relationship.

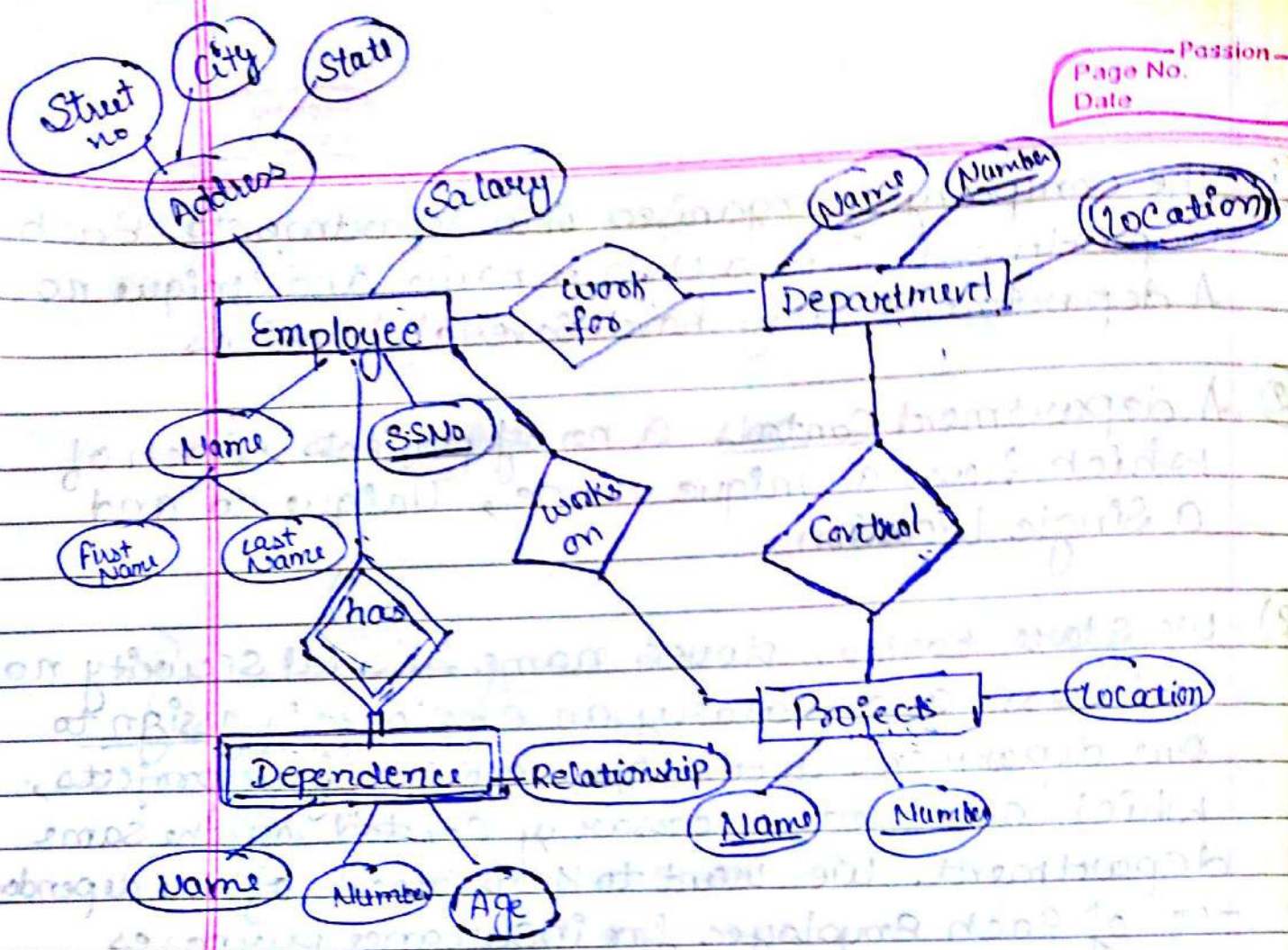


Q Make an E-R diagram of for the company data base with the following description

- ① The Company is organised into departments. Each department has a Unique name and Unique no. A department may have several locations
- ② A department Controls a no of projects, Each of which has a Unique name, Unique no and a Single location.
- ③ We store Each employee name, Social Security no, address and Salary an employee is assign to one department but may work on several projects, which are not necessarily control by the same department. We want to keep track of the dependence of Each Employee for insurance purposes.

Construct ER diagram for Teacher Student database

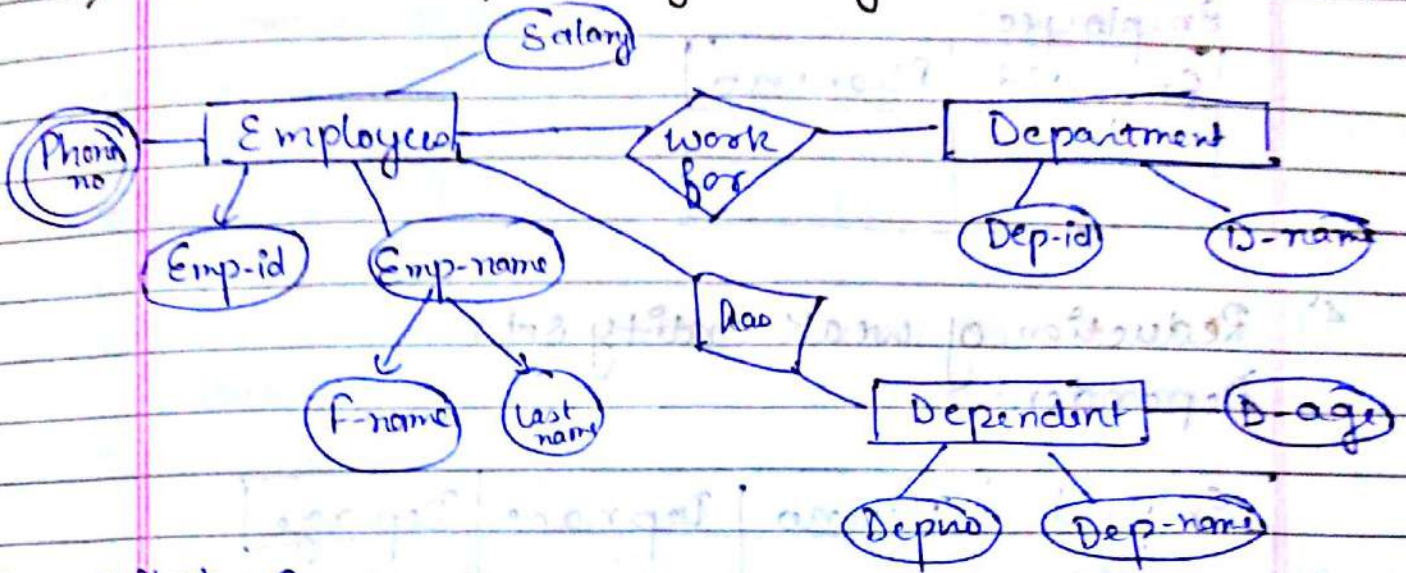




Ques Construct an E-R diagram of university system

Reduction of E-R diagram into table

1) Reduction of Strong entity set into table



Key attributes of Employee

| Emp id | E-name | Salary |
|--------|--------|--------|
| | | |

Department

| Dep-id | Dept name |
|--------|-----------|
| | |

Reduction of Composite attribute into table Employee

| Emp-id | f-name | l-name | Salary |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | | |

3) Reduction of multivalued attributes
Phoneno

Employee

| Emp-id | Phoneno |
|--------|---------|
| | |

4) Reduction of weak entity set
Dependent

| Emp-id | Depno | Depname | Depage |
|--------|-------|---------|--------|
| | | | |

5) Reduction of relationship sets
work for

| Emp-id | Department id |
|--------|---------------|
| | |

RDBMS :-

- 3 Components :-
 - Data Structure
 - Data integrity
 - Data Manipulation

Candidate key is a subset of Superkey

Key :- It is a set of one or more columns whose combined values are unique among all the

① Candidate Key ÷
Occurrences in a given table

Types of keys ÷

- 1) Candidate key
- 2) Super key
- 3) Primary key
- 4) foreign key
- 5) Alternate key
- 6) Artificial key
- 7) Composite key

1) Candidate Key ÷ They are those attributes of the relational, which have the properties of uniqueness and irreducibility.

- a) Uniqueness ÷ No legal value of R ever contain two distinct tuples with same values for K.
- b) Irreducibility ÷ No proper subset of K has the uniqueness property.

For example if the combination of (Name, Class) is unique, then it can be identified as the candidate key if and only if Name and class individually are not unique.

2) Super Key ÷ Super key follow the property of uniqueness, but not irreducibility.
A Super key has a uniqueness property but not necessarily the irreducibility property.
A candidate key is a special case of a Super key.

eg: If Roll-no is unique in relation STUDENT then, the set of attribute (Roll-no, Name, Class) is a super key for a relation STUDENT, these set of attributes are also unique, but this combination of key is not having the property of irreducibility.

→ Relation of patient in which Patient-number is unique. The patient-number is a candidate key and (Patient-number, Patient name) is a superkey.

A superset of a candidate key is a superkey.

3) Primary Key: The primary key is an attribute or a set of attributes that uniquely identify a specific instance of an entity. Primary key cannot contain any null value because we cannot uniquely identify multiple null values. ~~A primary~~ primary key is a candidate which promote by database designer as primary key.

4) Alternate Key: Exactly one of those candidate keys is chosen as the primary key and the remainder, if any, are then called Alternate keys. An alternate key is a function of all candidate key, minus primary key.

5) Composite keys: A primary key that is made up of more than one attribute is known as Composite key.

Ex: WORK

| Employee ID | Project ID | Hours-Worked |
|-------------|------------|--------------|
| 01 | 01 | 200 |
| 01 | 02 | 120 |
| 02 | 01 | 50 |
| 02 | 03 | 120 |
| 03 | 03 | 100 |
| 03 | 04 | 200 |

It is subset of superkey

- 6) Artificial keys: An artificial key is one that has no meaning to the business or organization and perform function of a primary key in relation. Artificial key are permitted when
- no attribute has all the primary key properties
 - the primary key is large and complex

eg:

| Enrollment | | |
|------------|-------|--------|
| Student | Class | row-id |
| AK | | PK |

- 7) Foreign key: Foreign key are the attributes of the table which refers to primary key of some another table. foreign key are used to link together two or more different tables which have some form of relationship with each other. These foreign keys is a reference to the tuple of a table from which it was taken, this tuple being called as Referenced or target tuple.

eg: Employee

Foreign key
Department → Target table

| Emp-id | Name | Salary | Dep-id |
|--------|------|--------|--------|
| 1 | Abc | 30000 | 10 |
| 2 | Xyz | 40000 | 20 |
| 3 | Pqr | 50000 | 30 |

| Dep-id | Dep-Name |
|--------|----------|
| 10 | Sales |
| 20 | Market |
| 30 | Product |

eg: Student

class

| Rno | Name | Class-Code |
|-----|------|------------|
| 1 | A | 2 |
| 2 | B | 1 |
| 3 | C | - |

| Classcode | Name |
|-----------|--------|
| 1 | B.Tech |
| 2 | B.TECH |
| 3 | BBA |

- (2) Data Integrity ÷ Basically it consist of two rules
- 1) Entity Integrity Rule
 - 2) Referential Integrity Rule

(1) Entity Integrity Rule ÷ This rules states that in a relation, the value of the attribute of a primary key cannot be null.

(2) Referential Integrity ÷ It states that if a foreign key exists in a relation, either the foreign key value must match the primary key value of some tuple in its home relation or the foreign key value must be completely null.

| Employee | | | | Department | |
|----------|------|--------|--------|------------|-----------|
| Emp-id | Name | Salary | Dep-id | Dep-id | Dept name |
| 1 | A | 3000 | 10 | 10 | Sales |
| 2 | B | 4000 | 20 | 20 | Market |
| 3 | C | 5000 | 30 | 30 | Product |
| 4 | D | 6000 | 40 | | |

either should match or null.

Enterprise Constraints :- These are the additional rules which are given by the user & DBA of a database. eg $<$, $>$.

Codd's Rule: Founder of RDBMS is Dr. E. F. Codd
There are 12 rule are as following:

- ① Information rule: All information represented in form of tables
- ② Guaranteed Access rule: To Access any info we use key
- ③ Comprehensive data Sublanguage rule: There should be a particular language to support RDBMS rule.
- ④ View updating rule: If we change any data in Database then it should be ^{automatically} updated in all records or tables
- ⑤ High level Insert, update & Delete: The language we used it should contain these rule insert, update & Delete and perform all function.
- ⑥ Physical data independency: Change in lower level not effect higher level and this rule support
- ⑦ Logical Data independency: Change in conceptual level and does not effect external level.
- ⑧ Integrity Independency: RDBMS support all Integrity rule.
- ⑨ Non Subversion rule: Any language we use to access the database rule, that language will support our Integrity independency.
- ⑩ Systematic treatment of null value: There should be special treatment of null value.
- ⑪ Data Description rule: Data we describe it should be in form of table

⑫ Distribution Independence :- It should be platform independent

Data Manipulation :-

- ① Relational Algebra
- ② Relational Calculus.

Q Difference b/w Relational Algebra & Relational Calculus.

Relational Algebra

Relational Calculus.

① It is procedural language
In this we follow the procedure & step

① It is a non procedural language
In this we automatically get output

② We can combine 2 or more table to get an another table
Both are non user friendly.

Relation Algebra :- $A \oplus B$

Relational operator :- Type of Relational operator

- ① Traditional Set operators
- ② Special operators

① Traditional Set operators :- Union

- > Intersection
- > Difference
- > Cartesian Product

Union :-

Combine two table

| Employee | |
|----------|------|
| Emp-id | Name |
| | |
| | |

| Dep-id | |
|--------|------|
| Dep-id | Name |
| | |
| | |

→ Intersection: Common element

→ Difference: The Difference between two set S_1 & S_2 produces a set, which contain all the members of one set, which are not in the other

| R | | S | |
|-----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|
| Cust-name | Cust-Status | Cust-name | Cust-Status |
| Ram | Good | Karan | Average |
| Shyam | Excellent | Ram | Good |

① RUS

| Cust-name | Cust-Status |
|-----------|-------------|
| Ram | Good |
| Shyam | Excellent |
| Karan | Average |

② RNS

| Cust-name | Cust-Status |
|-----------|-------------|
| Shyam | |
| Ram | Good |

③ $R - S \Rightarrow$ Shyam

④ $R \times S = \{ (Ram, Karan), (R, R), (S, K), (S, R) \}$

| Name | Rollno |
|------|--------|
| Ram | 10 |
| Mika | 8 |

| Name | Roll |
|-------|------|
| My | 11 |
| Shyam | 12 |

$R \times S = \{ \text{All pairs} \}$

ii) Special operators:

- Selection
- Projection
- Joins
- Division

① Selection operation: It yields a horizontal subset of a given relation that is the subset of rows should be selected within the given relation for which a particular

Condition is satisfied. Sign of Selection is (σ)

Employee:

| Emp-id | Name | Salary |
|--------|------|--------|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Projection: $\sigma_{\text{salary} > 10,000}(\text{Employee})$

② Projection: The projection operation on a table, simply from another table by copying specified columns from the original table. Symbol of projection is (π)

To select name of employee:

$\pi_{\text{name}}(\text{Employee})$

for salary:

$\pi_{\text{salary}}(\text{Employee})$

We want the name of all the employee having salary less than 70000

$\sigma_{\text{salary} > 70000}[\pi_{\text{name}}(\text{Employee})]$

Roll
11
12

Codd's Rules :-

① Information Rule :- All information in a relational database including tables names, Column names is represented in the form of tables. This simple view of data speeds up design and learning process. User productivity is improved since knowledge of only one language is necessary to access all data such as description of the table and attribute definitions, integrity constraints. Action are taken when constraint are violated. Access of

data is restricted
All info also stored in table

② Guaranteed Access Rule :- Every piece of data in relational database, can be accessed by using a primary key value that identifies the row name and column name. User productivity is improved since there is no need to resort to using physical pointers or address. It provide data independence possible to retrieve each piece of data in a relational database

or make it

③ Comprehensive Data Sub-language Rule :- The RDBMS may support several languages. But at least one of them should allow the user to do all following define table^{view}, query & update data, set integrity constraints, set authorizations & define transaction. User productivity is improved since there is just one approach that can be used for all database operations

④ View Updating Rule :- Any view that can be updated theoretically can be updated using the RDBMS. Data consistency is ensured since the changes made in the view are

transmitted to base table and vice-versa

- ⑤ High Level Insert, update & Delete: The RDBMS support insertion, updating and deletion at a table level. The performance is improved since the commands acts on a set of records rather than one record at a time.
- ⑥ Physical Data Independence: ^{Application program is not effected by changes in the physical access or storage method} The Database administrators can make changes to the physical access and storage method, which improve performance and donot require changes in the application programs or request.
- ⑦ Logical Data Independence: Logical changes in tables and views such as adding/deleting columns or changing field lengths need not necessitate modifications in the programs ~~or in~~.
- ⑧ Integrity Independence: ^{like table & view definition,} Integrity constraints are stored in the metadata ^{integrity independence} catalog or data dictionary and can therefore be changed without necessitating changes in the application programs.
- ⑨ Non Subversion Rule: If the RDBMS has a language that accesses the information of records at a time, this language should not be used to bypass the integrity constraints. This is necessary for data integrity.

(10) Systematic Treatment of Null values:- In RDBMS null values should be supported for the representation of missing information and in applicable information. The database management must have a consistent method for representing null values.

(11) Database Description Rule:- The description of database is stored and maintained in the form of tables. It allows the user with appropriate authority to query information in a similar way or language.

(12) Distribution Independence:- The RDBMS package must have distribution independence. Thus RDBMS Packet must Comparison make it possible for the database to be distributed across multiple

Relation Algebra

(1) It is a procedural method for solving queries

(2) The solution to the database access problem using relational algebra is obtained by stating what is required and what are the steps to obtain that information

It is used as vehicle for implementation of Relational Calculus

Relational Calculus

(1) It is non-procedural method of solving the queries

The solution to the database access problem using a relational calculus is obtained simply by stating what is required and letting the system find the answer

Relation Calculus Queries are converted into equivalent relational algebra format by using Codd's reduction algorithm and then it is implemented

④ Relational algebra operators are used as a yardstick for measuring the expressive power of any given language.

with the help of relational algebra operators

A lang. is said to be complete if it is at least powerful as the Calculus that is, if any relation definable by some expression of the Calculus is also definable by some expression of the language in question.

Difference :-

Computers ① even they are having heterogeneous platform for both the operating system & hardware

• Relational Algebra is a procedural language that can be used to tell the DBMS how to build a new relation from one or more relations in the database.

• Relational Calculus is non-procedural language that can be used to formulate the definition of relation in terms of one or more database relations.

② Relation Algebra: user has to specify what is required and what are the procedure or steps to obtain output.

Relational Calculus: user just specifies what is required and need not to specify how to obtain it.

Strong Entity Set

- ① It has its own primary key
- ② It is represented by rectangle
- ③ It contains primary key represented by an underline
- ④ The member of strong entity set is called dominant entity set
- ⑤ The relationship between two strong entity set is represented by diamond system
- ⑥ The line connecting strong entity set with the relationship is single
- ⑦ Total participation in the relationship may or may not exist

Weak Entity Set

- It does not have sufficient attribute to form a primary key ^{on} its own.
- It is represented by double rectangle.
- It contains partial key represented by dashed underline.
- The member of weak entity set is called subordinate entity set.
- The relationship b/w one strong and ~~one~~ weak entity set is represented by a double diamond sign. i.e. identifying relationship.
- The line connecting weak entity set with identifying relationship is double.
- Total participation in the identifying relationship always exist.

Relational Algebra :-

Joins :- General form
 ↳ Theta Join.

Theta Join :- It is a Cartesian product operation on the two tables followed by a restriction operation on the resultant tables

eg :-

| Employee | Name | Product |
|----------|-------|---------|
| Product | Raja | Pen |
| | Spash | Pen |
| | Raja | Pencil |
| | Spash | Rubber |

| Product Customer | |
|------------------|----------|
| C-Product | Customer |
| Pen | Karan |
| Pen | Suneet |
| Pencil | Suneet |

↳ Raja Pen

| Name | Product | Customer |
|-----------------|----------------|------------------|
| Raja | Pen | Karan |

Operation

- ↳ Comparison operator
- equal =
- Not equal to ≠
- Greater than >

| | Name | Product | C-Product | Customer |
|---------------|-------|---------|-----------|----------|
| Equal = ✓ | Raja | Pen | Pen | Karan |
| ✓ | " | " | Pen | Suneet |
| Not equal ≠ → | " | " | Pencil | Suneet |
| ✓ | Spash | Pen | Pen | Karan |
| ✓ | " | Pen | Pen | Suneet |
| | " | " | Pencil | Suneet |

Equi Joins :

Natural Joins : The projection operation which eliminates one of the duplicated columns resulting from the equi join, the natural join is obtained.

| Name | Product | Customer |
|------|---------|----------|
| Raja | Pen | Karan |
| " | " | Suneet |

→ Inner Joins :

→ Outer Joins : If it requires that the value exist in only one table must appear in the output then the solution is outer joins.

Name Product

These are of two type

- 1) Left outer joins
- 2) Right outer joins

Relational Calculus :

Difference b/w Algebra and Relational Calculus

Relational Calculus

- Tuple
- Domain

Normalisation

- 1) **Functional Dependency** - In Relation R, X & Y are the two subset are the set of attributes, Y is said to be function dependent on X if a given value of X uniquely determine the value of Y
 It is denoted by $X \rightarrow Y$ to
 where X is called determinant
 Y is called Determined

Employee

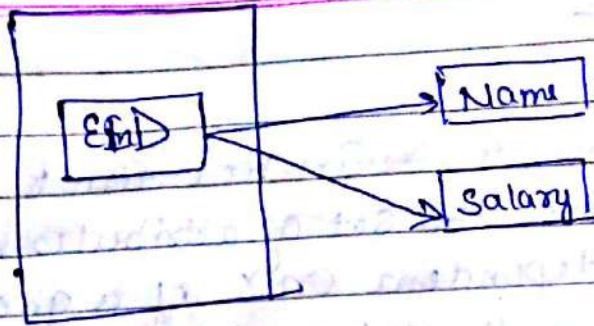
| EID | Name | Salary |
|-----|------|--------|
| 1 | XYZ | 30,000 |
| 2 | Abc | 20,000 |
| 3 | Pq.s | 10,000 |

$X(\text{EID}) \rightarrow Y(\text{Name, Salary})$

Functional Dependency chart - It is the graphical representation of functional dependencies among the attributes in any relation

Steps:-

- 1) find out the primary key attribute
- 2) Make a rectangle & write all the primary key attributes inside it
- 3) write all the non primary key attribute outside the rectangle
- 4) Use the arrows to show the functional dependencies among the attributes

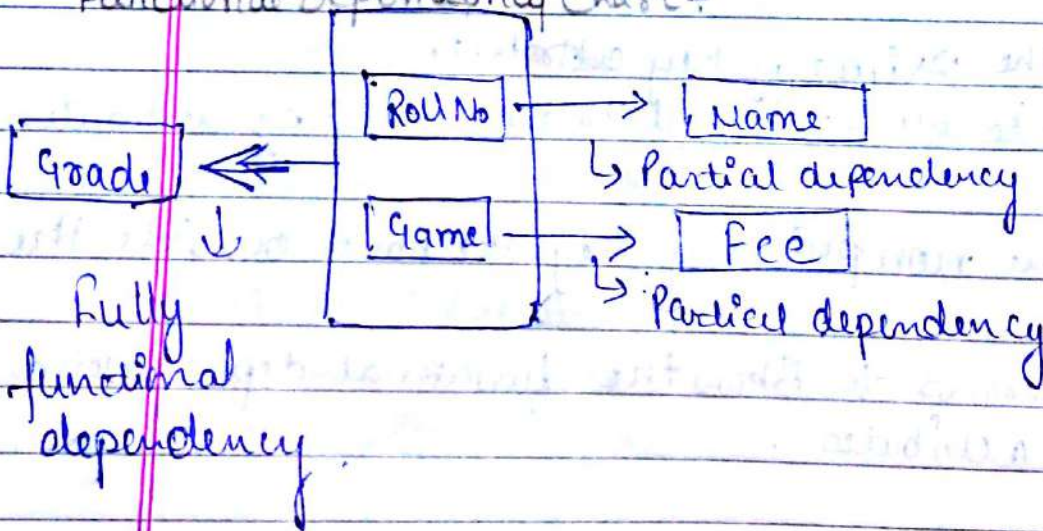


→ Types of functional Dependency :-

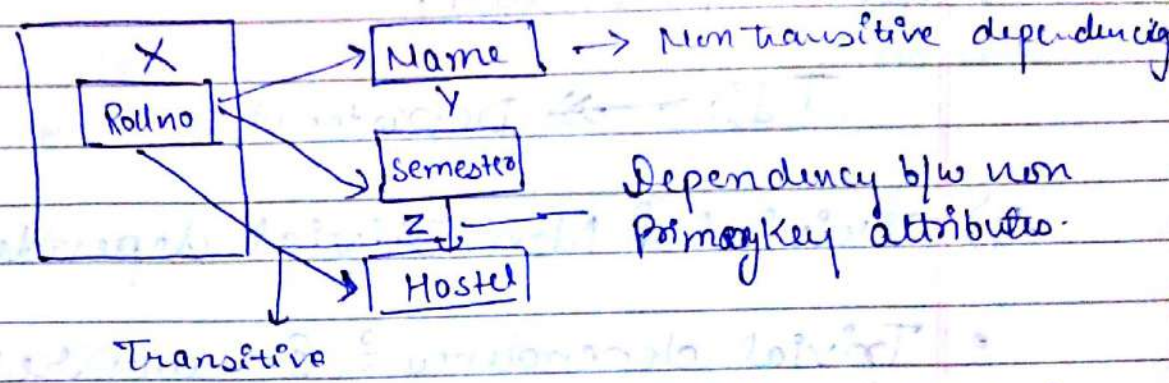
① Partial ^{fully} Dependency

- Partial Dependency :- Suppose we have more than one attribute in primary key. Let A be the non primary key ~~attribute~~ attribute. If A is not dependent upon all the primary key attribute then partial dependency exists.
- Fully functional Dependency :- Let A be the non primary key attribute & value of A is dependent upon all the primary key attributes then A is said to be fully functional dependency.

Functional Dependency Chart :-



② Transitive & Non-Transitive dependency :-
 • Transitive dependency is due to dependency between the ~~known~~^{non} primary key attributes.
 Suppose in a relation R, $X \rightarrow Y$, $Y \rightarrow Z$ then $X \rightarrow Z$



• Non Transitive :- Any functional dependency which is not transitive is known as Non Transitive dependency.

NOTE :- Non transitive dependency exist if there is no dependency b/w the ~~known~~^{non} primary key attributes

③ Single valued & multiple valued dependency :-

• Single valued :- In any relation R, if for a particular value of X, Y has single value then it is known as single valued dependency.

| Teacher ID | Name | Department |
|------------|------|------------|
| 1 | Abc | CSE |
| 1 | Abc | ME |
| 2 | XYZ | Civil |
| 2 | XYZ | ECE |
| 3 | Pqr | E.CE |
| 3 | Pqr | CSE |

→ for single value

TeacherID → T Name

→ for Multiple valued

TID → Department

4) Trivial & Non Trivial dependency

- Trivial dependency: In any relation R, $X \rightarrow Y$ is trivial if $Y \subseteq X$
- Non Trivial dependency: In any relation R, $X \rightarrow Y$ if $Y \not\subseteq X$

Anomalies: undesired result

- Insertion
- Deletion
- Update

| EID | Name | Salary | DeptNo | Department |
|-----|-------|--------|--------|------------|
| 4 | Pq, r | 39,000 | 34 | Marketing |
| 5 | ABC | 20,000 | 3 | Marketing |

→ Normalization: It is a process by which we can decompose or divide any relation into more than one relation to remove the anomalies in the relational database.

Normal forms: It is a step by step process and each step is known as Normal form.

→ Properties of Normalisation:

- ① Remove different anomalies
- ② Decomposition must be lossless
- ③ Preserves the necessary dependency
- ④ Reduce Redundancy

In Normalisation there are 5 Normal form

① First Normal form:

- ↳ Composite attributes.
- ↳ Flattening the table
- ↳ Decomposition of table

| Teacher ID | Name | Subject |
|------------|------|------------------------|
| 1 | XYZ | ADA DBMS C, C++ |
| 2 | PQR | Java, Automate ADCP |

① Composite attribute

| Teacher ID | First Name | Last Name | Subject |
|------------|------------|-----------|---------|
| | | | |

② Flattering the table

| TeacherID | Name | Subject |
|-----------|------|----------|
| 1 | XYZ | ADA |
| 1 | XYZ | DBMS |
| 1 | XYZ | C |
| 1 | XYZ | C++ |
| 2 | Pqr | Java |
| 2 | Pqr | Automata |
| 2 | Pqr | ADCP |

③ Decomposition of table ÷

| TeacherID | Name | TeacherID | Subject |
|-----------|------|-----------|---------|
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |

A relation is in the first normal form if the domain of each attribute contains only atomic values it means atomicity must be present in the relation

④

Second Normal form ÷ A relation is in the second normal form if it is in the first normal form and all the non primary key attribute must be fully functionally dependent upon the primary key attribute



| Roll No | Name | Game | Fee | Grade |
|---------|------|------|-----|-------|
| | | | | |
| | | | | |
| | | | | |

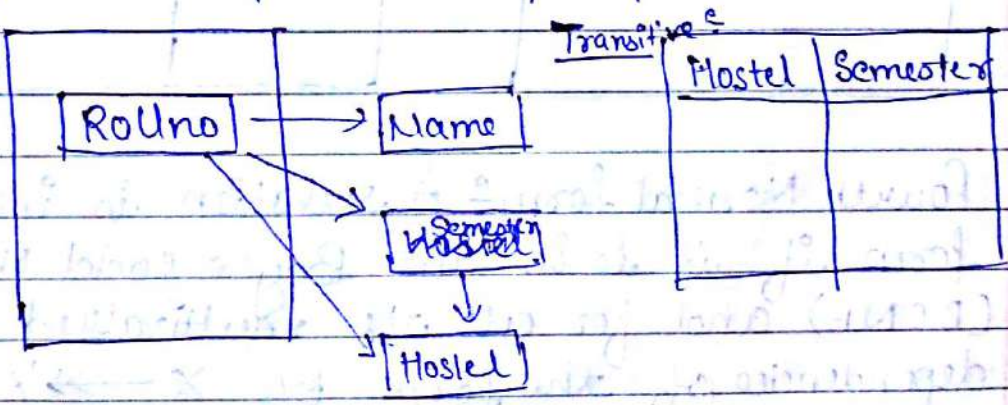
Partial dependency

| Roll no | Name | Game | Fee |
|---------|------|------|-----|
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |

Full dependency

| Roll No | Game | Grade |
|---------|------|-------|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

III) Third Normal form : A relation is in the third normal form if it is in the second normal form and non primary key attributes must be non transitively dependent upon primary key attributes.



Nontransitive

| Rollno | Name | Semester |
|--------|------|----------|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

BCNF (Boyce Codd Normal form) :-

A relation is in BCNF if and only if ^{all} the determinants are ^{the} Candidate Key.

$X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow$ determined
 \downarrow
 determinant

| Roll no. | Teacher | Subject |
|----------|---------|---------|
| | | |

↳ Roll no.

→ (Roll no, Teacher)

→ (Roll no, Subject)

| Roll no | Teacher ID |
|---------|------------|
| | |

| Teacher ID | Subject |
|------------|---------|
| | |

IV :- Fourth Normal form :- A relation is in fourth form if it is in the Boyce Codd Normal form (BCNF) and for all the multivalued functional dependencies of the form $X \twoheadrightarrow Y$

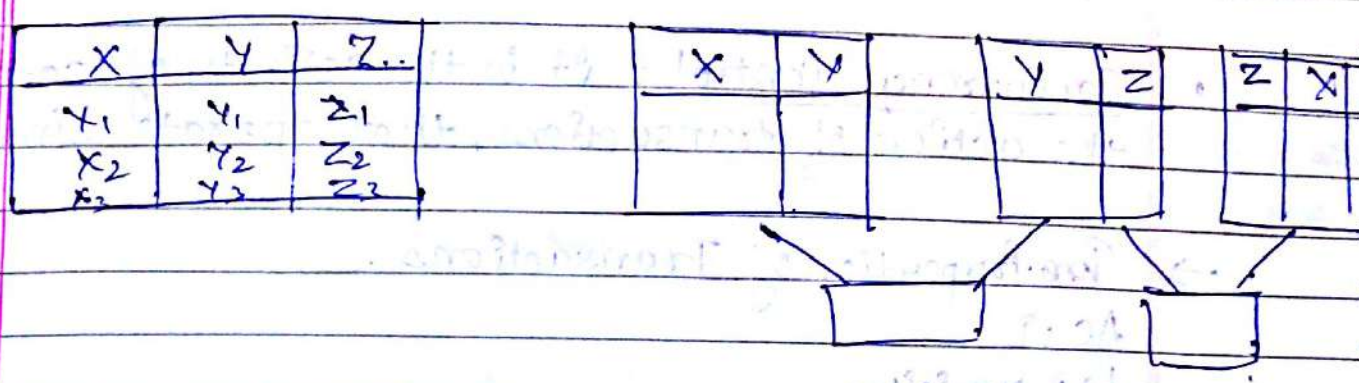
| Programmer | Project | Module |
|------------|---------|--------|
| | | |

| Programmer | Project |
|------------|---------|
| | |

| Project | Module |
|---------|--------|
| | |

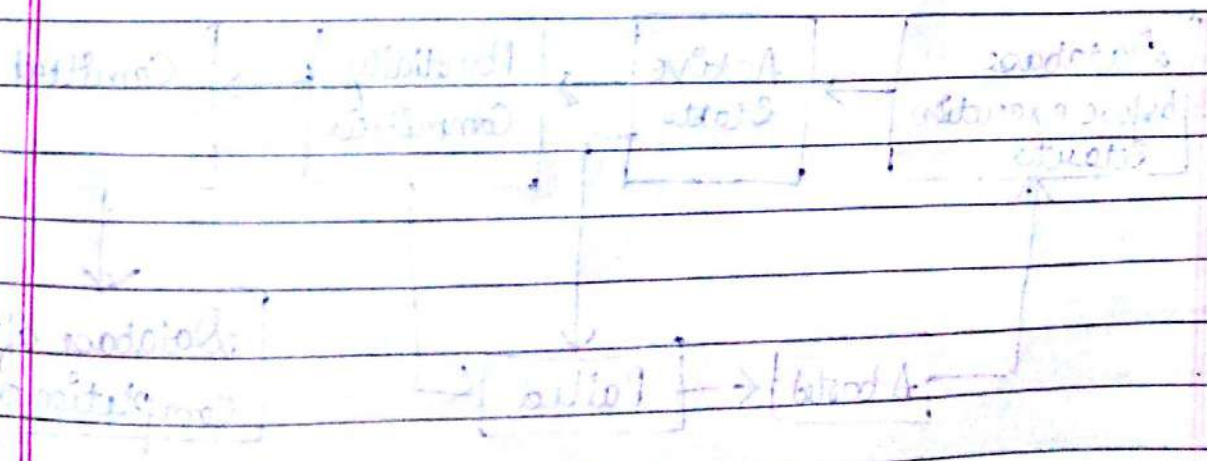
V

Fifth Normal Form (Join dependency)
 Let R be the given relation upto fourth Normal form (4NF). Let R be decomposed into $(R_1, R_2, R_3, \dots, R_n)$. The Relation R satisfy the join dependencies if and only if joining R_1 to $R_n = R$.



Faint handwritten notes in blue ink, possibly discussing database concepts like functional dependencies or normalization.

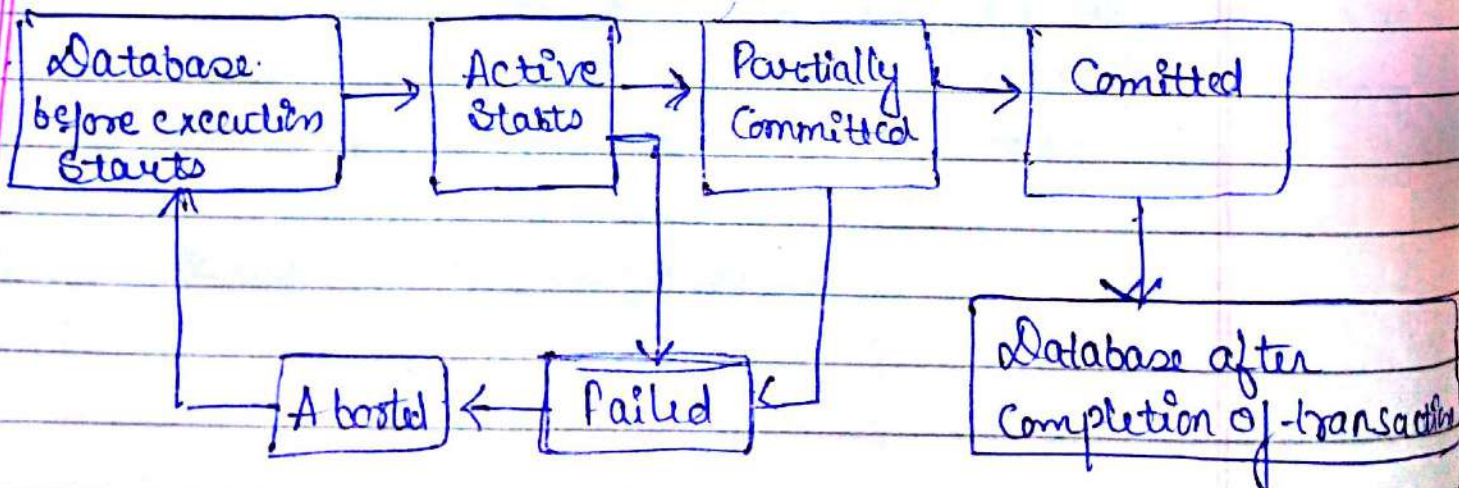
Functional dependencies ←



Transaction & Concurrency Control

- Transaction: It can be defined as a unit or any part of any program at the time of its execution. During transaction the data items can be read or updated or both.
 - Concurrency Control: It is the activity of co-ordinating the action of transactions, that operate simultaneously.
- Properties of Transactions
- ACID
- ↳ Atomicity
 - ↳ Consistency
 - ↳ Isolation
 - ↳ Durability
- Durability: Changes are made permanent to the database after successful completion of the transaction.

→ Transaction states:



- Serializability: Considered the set of transactions $T_1, T_2, T_3 \dots T_i$. S_1 is the state of database after they are concurrently executed and successfully completed and S_2 is the state of database after they are executed in any serial manner and successfully completed. If S_1 and S_2 are same then the database maintain the serializability.
- Concurrent Execution: If more than one transaction are executed at the same time then they are said to be executed concurrently.
- Recoverability: To maintain the Atomicity of the database, undo effects of any transaction has to be performed in case of failure of that transaction. If undo effects successful then that database maintains the recoverability. This process is also known as roll back.

→ Construct an ER diagram for Banking System

Construct an ER diagram for Hospital Management System

Hospital management =

