BOB36DBS, BD6B36DBS: Database Systems

http://www.ksi.mff.cuni.cz/~svoboda/courses/172-B0B36DBS/

Lecture 2

Relational Model

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Lecture Outline

- Logical database models
 - Basic overview
- Model-Driven Development
- Relational model
 - Description and features
 - Transformation of ER / UML conceptual schemas

Logical Database Models

Layers of Database Modeling

Abstraction



 Models a part of the structured real world relevant for applications built on top of our database

Logical layer

 Specifies how conceptual components (i.e. entity types, relationship types, and their characteristics) are represented in logical data structures that are interpretable by machines

Physical layer

 Specifies how logical database structures are implemented in a specific technical environment

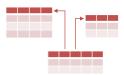


Implementation

Logical Layer

- What are these logical structures?
 - Formally...
 - Sets, relations, functions, graphs, trees, ...
 - I.e. traditional and well-defined mathematical structures
 - Or in a more friendly way...
 - Tables, rows, columns, ...
 - Objects, pointers, ...
 - Collections, ...
 - ..

- Models based on tables
 - Structure
 - Rows for entities
 - Columns for attributes
 - Operations
 - Selection, projection, join, ...
 - Examples
 - Relational model
 - ... and various derived table models introduced by:
 - SQL (as it is standardized)
 - · and particular implementations like Oracle, MySQL, ...



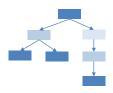
- Models based on objects
 - Structure
 - Objects with attributes
 - Pointers between objects
 - Motivation
 - Object-oriented programming (OOP)
 - Encapsulation, inheritance, ...
 - Operations
 - Navigation



- Models based on graphs
 - Structure
 - Vertices, edges, attributes
 - Operations
 - Traversals, pattern matching, graph algorithms
 - Examples
 - Network model (one of the very first database models)
 - Resource Description Framework (RDF)
 - Neo4j, InfiniteGraph, OrientDB, FlockDB, ...



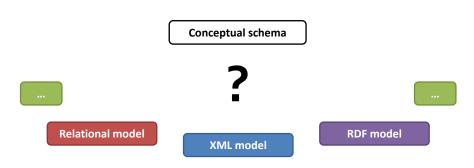
- Models based on trees
 - Structure
 - Vertices with attributes
 - Edges between vertices
 - Motivation
 - Hierarchies, categorization, semi-structured data
 - Examples
 - Hierarchical model (one of the very first database models)
 - XML documents
 - JSON documents



Overview of Logical Models

- There are plenty of (different / similar) models
 - The previous overview was intended just as an insight into some of the basic ideas and models
 - Hierarchical, network, relational, object, objectrelational, XML, key-value, document-oriented, graph, ...
- Why so many of them?
 - Different models are suitable in different situations
 - Not everything is (yet) standardized, proprietary approaches or extensions often exist

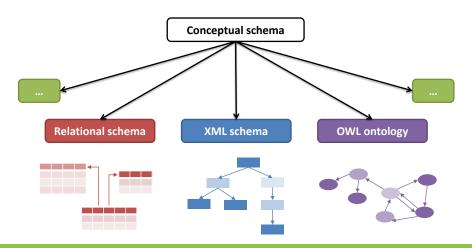
Step 1: Selection of the right logical model



- Note that...
 - Relational model is not always the best solution

- Step 1: Selection of the right logical model
 - According to...
 - Data characteristics
 - True nature of real-world entities and their relationships
 - Query possibilities
 - Available access patterns, expressive power, ...
 - Intended usage
 - Storage (JSON data in document-oriented databases, ...)
 - Exchange (XML documents sent by Web Service, ...)
 - · Publication (RDF triples forming the Web of Data, ...)
 - ..
 - Identified requirements

Step 2: Creation of a logical schema



- Step 2: Creation of a logical schema
 - Goal
 - Transformation of a conceptual schema to a logical one
 - Real-world applications often need multiple schemas
 - Focus on different parts of the real world
 - Serve different components of the system
 - Even expressed in different logical models
 - Challenge: can this be achieved automatically?
 - Or at least semi-automatically?
 - Answer: Model-Driven Development



Model-Driven Development

MDD

- Software development approach
 - Executable schemas instead of executable code
 - I.e. schemas that can be automatically (or at least semiautomatically) converted to executable code
 - Unfortunately, just in theory... recent ideas, not yet fully applicable in practice today (lack of suitable tools)

MDD principles can be used for database modeling as well

Terminology

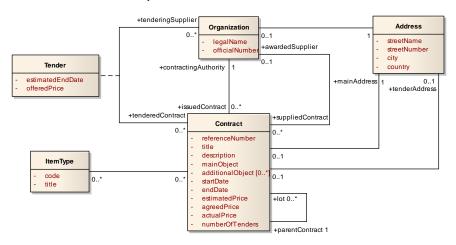
- Levels of abstraction
 - Platform-Independent Level
 - Hides particular platform-specific details
 - Platform-Specific Level
 - Maps the conceptual schema (or its part) to a given logical model
 - Adds platform-specific details
 - Code Level
 - Expresses the schema in a selected machine-interpretable logical language
 - SQL, XML Schema, OWL, ...



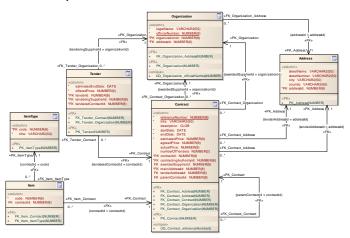


- Information System for Public Procurement
 - http://www.isvzus.cz/
 - There are several logical models used:
 - Relational data model
 - for data storage
 - XML data model
 - for exchanging data with information systems of public authorities which issue public contracts
 - RDF data model
 - for publishing data on the Web of Linked Data in a machinereadable form (at least this is a goal...)

Platform-independent schema



Platform-specific schema: relational model

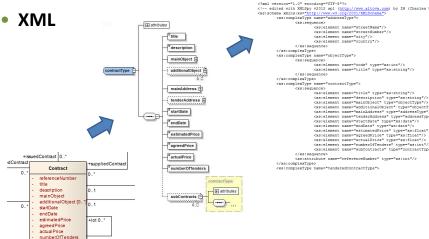


- Platform-specific schema: relational model
 - Notes to the previous UML diagram
 - It is a UML class diagram
 - But enhanced with features for modeling logical schemas in (object-)relational model
 - Stereotypes allow us to add specific semantics to basic constructs (class, attribute, association), e.g.,
 - <<table>> specifies that a class represents a table
 - <<PK>> specifies that an attribute models a primary key
 - <<FK>> specifies that an attribute/association models a foreign key
 - etc.

Code level: SQL (snippet)

```
CREATE TABLE Contract (
  referenceNumber NUMBER(8) NOT NULL,
  title VARCHAR2(50) NOT NULL,
  description CLOB,
  startDate DATE NOT NULL,
  endDate DATE NOT NULL,
  estimatedPrice NUMBER(9) NOT NULL,
);
ALTER TABLE Contract ADD CONSTRAINT PK Contract
  PRIMARY KEY (contractId);
ALTER TABLE Contract ADD CONSTRAINT FK Contract Address
  FOREIGN KEY (mainAddressId) REFERENCES Address (addressId);
CREATE TABLE Organization (...);
```

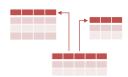
- Code level: SQL (snippet)
 - The previous code was generated fully automatically
 - from a platform-specific diagram
 - It has to contain all the necessary information
 - using a CASE tool (Computer-Aided Software Engineering)
 - · Which can detect errors and
 - · helps with the specification



+parentContract 1

Relational model

 Allows to store entities, relationships, and their attributes in relations



- Founded by E. F. Codd in 1970
- Informally...
 - Table = collection of rows, each row represents one entity, values of attributes are stored in columns
 - Tables are more intuitive, but conceal important mathematical background

- Definitions and terminology
 - Schema of a relation
 - Description of a relational structure (everything except data)
 - $S(A_1:T_1, A_2:T_2, ..., A_n:T_n)$
 - S is a schema name
 - A_i are attribute names and T_i their types (attribute domains)
 - · Specification of types is often omitted
 - Example:
 - Person (personalId, firstName, lastName)
 - Schema of a relational database
 - Set of relation schemas (+ integrity constraints, ...)

- Definitions and terminology for data
 - Relation
 - Subset of the Cartesian product of attribute domains T_i
 - I.e. relation is a set
 - Items are called tuples
 - Relational database
 - Set of relations

- Basic requirements (or consequences?)
 - Atomicity of attributes
 - Only simple types can be used for domains of attributes
 - Uniqueness of tuples
 - Relation is a set, and so two identical tuples cannot exist
 - Undefined order
 - Relation is a set, and so tuples are not mutually ordered
 - Completeness of values
 - There are no holes in tuples, i.e. all values are specified
 - However, special NULL values (well-known from relational databases) can be added to attribute domains

Integrity Constraints

Identification

- Every tuple is identified by one or more attributes
- Superkey = set of such attributes
 - Trivial and special example: all the relation attributes
- Key = superkey with a minimal number of attributes
 - I.e. no attribute can be removed so that the identification ability would still be preserved
 - Multiple keys may exist in one relation
 - They even do not need to have the same number of attributes
 - Notation: keys are underlined
 - Relation(Key, CompositeKeyPart1, CompositeKeyPart2, ...)
 - Note the difference between simple and composite keys

Integrity Constraints

Referential integrity

- Foreign key = set of attributes of the referencing relation which corresponds to a (super)key of the referenced relation
 - It is usually not a (super)key in the referencing relation
 - Notation
 - ReferencingTable.foreignKey ⊆ ReferencedTable.Key
 - foreignKey ⊆ ReferencedTable.Key

Sample Relational Database

Schema

```
Course(Code, Name, ...)
Schedule(Id, Event, Day, Time, ...), Event ⊆ Course.Code
```

Data

		1				
Id	Event	Day	Time			
1	A7B36DBS	THU	11:00			
2	A7B36DBS	THU	12:45		Code	
3	A7B36DBS	THU	14:30		Code	l
4	A7B36XML	FRI	09:15		A7B36DBS	
					A7B36XML	
					A7B36PSI	
						'

Code	Name			
A7B36DBS	Database systems			
A7B36XML	XML technologies			
A7B36PSI	Computer networks			
A				

Relations vs. Tables

- Tables
 - Table header ~ relation schema
 - Row ~ tuple
 - Column ~ attribute
- However...
 - Tables are not sets, and so...
 - there can be duplicate rows in tables
 - rows in tables can be ordered
 - I.e. SQL and existing RDBMS do not (always) follow the formal relational model strictly

Object vs. (Object-)Relational Model

Relational model

- Data stored in flat tables
- Suitable for data-intensive batch operations

Object model

- Data stored as graphs of objects
- Suitable for individual navigational access to entities

Object-Relational model

- Relational model enriched by object elements
 - Attributes may be of complex data types
 - Methods can be defined on data types as well



Conceptual Schema Transformation

Basic idea

- What we have
 - ER: entity types, attributes, identifiers, relationship types,
 ISA hierarchies
 - UML: classes, attributes, associations
- What we need
 - Schemas of relations with attributes, keys, and foreign keys
- How to do it
 - Classes with attributes → relation schemas
 - Associations → separate relation schemas or together with classes (depending on cardinalities...)

Classes

- Class →
 - Separate table
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)

Person - personalNumber - address - age

- Artificial keys
 - Artificially added integer identifiers
 - with no correspondence in the real world
 - but with several efficiency and also design advantages
 - usually automatically generated and assigned
 - Person(personId, personNumber, address, age)

Attributes

Multivalued attribute →



- Separate table
 - Person(personalNumber)
 Phone(personalNumber, phone)
 Phone.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber

Attributes

Composite attribute →



- Separate table
 - Person(personalNumber)
 Address(personalNumber, street, city, country)
 Address.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
- Sub-attributes can also be inlined
 - But only in case of (1,1) cardinality
 - Person(personNumber, street, city, country)

Multiplicity (1,1):(1,1) →



- Three tables (basic approach)
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 Ownership(personalNumber, serialNumber)
 Ownership.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Ownership.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber

Multiplicity (1,1):(1,1) →



- Single table
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age, serialNumber, color)

Multiplicity (1,1):(0,1) →



- Two tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age, serialNumber)
 Person.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 - Why not just 1 table?
 - Because a mobile phone can exist independently of a person

Multiplicity (0,1):(0,1) →



- Three tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 Ownership(personalNumber, serialNumber)
 Ownership.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Ownership.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber
 - Note that a personal number and serial number are both independent keys in the Ownership table

Multiplicity (1,n)/(0,n):(1,1) →



- Two tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color, personalNumber)
 Mobile.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 - Why a personal number is not a key in the Mobile table?
 - Because a person can own more mobile phones

Multiplicity (1,n)/(0,n):(0,1) →



- Three tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 Ownership(personalNumber, serialNumber)
 Ownership.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Ownership.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber
 - Why a personal number is not a key in the Ownership table?
 - Because a person can own more mobile phones

Multiplicity (1,n)/(0,n):(1,n)/(0,n) →

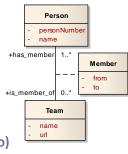


- Three tables
 - Person(personalNumber, address, age)
 Mobile(serialNumber, color)
 Ownership(personalNumber, serialNumber)
 Ownership.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Ownership.serialNumber ⊆ Mobile.serialNumber
 - Note that there is a composite key in the Ownership table

Attributes of Associations

Attribute of an association →

- Stored together with a given association table
 - Person(personNumber, name)
 Team(name, url)
 Member(personNumber, name, from, to)
 Member.personNumber ⊆ Person.personNumber
 Member.name ⊆ Team.name
- Multivalued and composite attributes are transformed analogously to attributes of ordinary classes

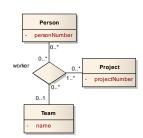


General Associations

- N-ary association →
 - Universal solution:
 N tables for classes +
 1 association table
 - Person(<u>personNumber</u>)
 Project(<u>projectNumber</u>)
 Team(<u>name</u>)

Worker(personNumber, projectNumber, name)
Worker.personNumber ⊆ Person.personNumber
Worker.projectNumber ⊆ Project.projectNumber
Worker.name ⊆ Team.name

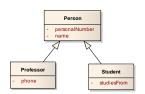
Less tables? Yes, in case of nice (1,1) cardinalities...



Hierarchies

ISA hierarchy →

- Universal solution: separate table for each type with specific attributes only
 - Person(personalNumber, name)
 Professor(personalNumber, phone)
 Student(personalNumber, studiesFrom)
 Professor.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 Student.personalNumber ⊆ Person.personalNumber
 - Applicable in any case (w.r.t. covering / overlap constraints)
 - Pros: flexibility (when attributes are altered)
 - Cons: joins (when full data is reconstructed)



Hierarchies

ISA hierarchy →

- Only one table for a hierarchy source
 - Person(personalNumber, name, phone, studiesFrom, type)
 - Universal once again, but not always suitable
 - Types of instances are distinguished by an artificial attribute
 - » Enumeration or event a set depending on the overlap constraint
 - Pros: no joins
 - Cons: NULL values required (and so it is not a nice solution)

Hierarchies

- ISA hierarchy →
 - Separate table for each leaf type
 - Professor(<u>personalNumber</u>, <u>name</u>, phone)
 Student(<u>personalNumber</u>, <u>name</u>, studiesFrom)
 - This solution is **not always applicable**
 - In particular when the covering constraint is false
 - Pros: no joins
 - Cons:
 - Redundancies (when the overlap constraint is false)
 - Integrity considerations (uniqueness of a personal number)

Weak Entity Types

Weak entity type →

- Separate table
 - Institution(<u>name</u>)
 Team(<u>code</u>, <u>name</u>)
 - Team.name ⊆ Institution.name
 - Recall that the cardinality must always be (1,1)
 - Key of the weak entity type involves also a key (any when more available) from the entity type it depends on

