Database Systems
CSE 414

Lecture 29: Final Review
Announcements

• HW8 due tonight 11pm

• Please complete course evaluations!
Final Exam

- Next Thursday, Dec. 14th, 2:30-4:20
- This room
- Closed books, no phones, no computers
- Allow 2 pages of notes (both sides, 8+pt font)
  - but focus of the test will not be memorization
Course Topics

1. Relational Data
2. DB Applications: Design & Implementation
3. Semi-structured Data
4. DBMS Implementation
5. Big Data Systems
Relational Data
1a. Relational Data Model

- tables with schemas
  - types for attributes
  - primary, secondary, and foreign keys
  - other constraints

- set semantics
  - each tuple is either in the table or not
1b. Relational Queries

- relational query = expressible in standard RA
  - RA = Datalog+neg, also expressible with SQL
- simple SELECT-FROM-WHERE is a subset
  - includes joins, but not subqueries
  - always monotone, while RA isn’t (e.g. set difference)
- extended RA adds grouping & aggregation
  - (also uses bag semantics)
- Datalog adds recursion
relational queries

simple SFW

standard RA

Datalog + neg

extended RA

Datalog + neg + recursion

adds grouping & aggregation
1c. Datalog

- data comes from **facts** and **rules**
  - \( P(a_1, ..., a_n) \).
  - \( Q(a_1, ..., a_n) :- R1(a_i, b_k, ...), R2(a_j, b_l, ...), ... \).

- head is a fact iff there is *some* way to set \( b_k \)'s so that all terms in the body are facts
  - variables only appearing in body (\( b_k \)'s) are *existential*

- can be translated to SQL
  - must be possible, as Datalog is equivalent to RA
  - but we didn’t discuss the details...
DB Applications:
Design & Implementation
2a. DB Design Process

Conceptual Model:

Relational Model:
Tables + constraints
And also functional dep.

Normalization:
Eliminates anomalies

Conceptual Schema

Physical storage details
Physical Schema
2a. DB Design Process

- E/R Diagrams
  - (weak) entity sets, relations, & subclasses
  - map each to relations
    - multiple ways to do this…
      only need to know the approach from class
  - design principles:
    - model accurately
    - neither too few nor too many entities
2a. DB Design Process

• Constraints
  – key, single-value, referential & other constraints
    • other includes, e.g., positivity and non-null constraints

• Normalization
  – eliminates anomalies
    • redundancy, update, and deletion anomalies
  – are indicated by “bad” functional dependencies
  – apply BCNF decomposition to remove them
    • these decompositions are never lossy (others can be)
2b. DB Application Implementation

- **JDBC**
  - connect to DB from Java
  - send SQL statements
  - use transactions

- 3-tiered architecture for web applications
3-Tiered Architecture

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DB Server

File 1
File 2
File 3

Connection (e.g., JDBC)

App+Web Server

HTTP/SSL
2b. DB Application Implementation

- **JDBC**
  - connect to DB from Java
  - send SQL statements
  - use transactions

- **3-tiered architecture for web applications**
  - usually JSON data between web server & browser/phone
  - why not use JSON to the DB too?
    - otherwise, we need to translate JSON to relational
Semi-structured Data
3a. Semi-structured Data Model

- tree structured data: JSON, XML, etc.
- data is self-describing
  - so schema is not necessary
- can choose amount of structure (in AsterixDB)
  - partial constraints on shape of data
  - open vs. closed types
- NFNF data
  - could put entire data in one row (mondial)
- easy to map relation to JSON, but not opposite
3b. Semi-structured Queries

• new concepts
  – **unnesting**: join with contents of list-valued column
  – **nesting**: make list from results of subquery
  – each is a new operator for logical query plans

• dealing with heterogeneous data needs work
  – often CASE WHEN … for different types
  – requiring more structure makes queries easier, but adding data becomes harder
    • (this work has to be done somewhere)
DBMS Implementation
4a. Storage & Indexing

• B+ tree & hash indexes
  – B+ tree index allows searching by key prefixes also

• understand when an index can be used
  – (separate question from whether it improves performance)

• clustered vs. unclustered
  – clustered always speeds up query, but only one index per table can be clustered
  – unclustered only speeds up if <1% tuples match
Query Evaluation Steps

1. **Parse & Check Query**
   - Check syntax, access control, table names, etc.
   - Logical plans, Physical plans

2. **Decide how best to answer query: query optimization**

3. **Query Execution**

4. **Return Results**
4b. Query Optimization

- main cost is disk access
- many logical plans, many physical plans
  - logical plans are RA expressions with desired result
  - physical plans include, e.g., choice of join algorithm
    - hash, sorted merge, and (block refined) nested loop joins
- cost of many operations depends on selectivity
- optimization problem is hard
  - saw SQL Server does poorly in homework problems
- realistic goal is to avoid really bad plans
4c. Transactions

• Goal: to allow many clients to run simultaneously
  – OLTP workload: lots of clients with small read/writes

• need to provide ACID properties
  – atomic: execute all SQL statements or none
  – consistent: finish with all constraints satisfied
  – isolation: behavior same as if one-at-a-time use
  – durable: committed result are permanent (‘til changed)

• consistency maintained by checking constraints
• durability maintained by writing to disk(s)
4c. Transactions II

• isolation achieved through serializable schedules
  – serializable means same behavior as a serial schedule
  – conflict serializable means non-conflicting read/writes
    can be swapped to make schedule serial
    • stronger than (so implies) serializable

• locks ensure conflict serializability if 2PL used
  – multiple read locks, only one write lock
    • becomes 4 types in SQLite (a good design)
  – lock granularity from (parts of) rows to tables to DB
  – ...

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4c. Transactions III

- strict 2PL: no unlocks before commit/rollback
  - needed for isolation if txns can roll back
- can produce deadlocks (as seen in homework)
- need more to prevent phantom rows
  - phantom is a new row that shows up in a table
  - predicate locks are one solution (but expensive)

- multi-version concurrency control is alternative
- default isolation level is usually not serializable
  - faster perf but harder to write app (i.e., bugs likely)
Systems for Big Data
5a. NoSQL Systems

- goal to support heavy OLTP workloads
- provides simplified data model
  - key-value pairs, documents, or extensible records
- limited support for transactions
  - usually pair/document/record level
  - (some support for record groups… all on one node)
- partition data across nodes for scale
- replicate data to survive node failures
5b. Parallel Processing Systems

• for OLAP workloads (big reads, no txns)

• MapReduce
  – programming model is one-to-many *map* function, shuffle sort (grouping), one-to-many *reduce* function
  – no built-in RA operators
    • but easy to implement, as shuffle sort is provided
  – stores intermediate data on disk
    • reasonable if input/output is also to disk (otherwise too slow)
  – deals with stragglers by running backup map tasks
5b. Parallel Processing Systems II

- **Spark/Scala**
  - executes a dataflow pipeline using many nodes
  - Google Dataflow & Hyracks (AsterixDB) do same
    - each provides extended RA operators
  - Spark handles failure by re-computing, not replicating

- **Spark SQL**
  - map SQL ~> extended RA ~> dataflow pipeline
  - same approach can be used on any dataflow engine
5b. Parallel Processing Systems III

- existing systems do not optimize well
  - none does real cost-based optimization
  - Spark only performs small, syntactic optimizations
    - one exception: choice of parallel vs. broadcast join
  - Spark has no indexes
  - AsterixDB has indexes, but no statistics
  - all require manual tuning
    - saw this with AsterixDB on homework
5c. Parallel Databases

• support both OLTP and OLAP

• goal: more nodes => faster or allow more data
  – speed up or scale up

• different architectures
  – shared memory (SQL Server etc.): limited scale
  – shared disk (mostly Oracle): limited scale
  – shared nothing: really scales (so our focus)
    • won out in academic research (started in 1980s)
    • basis for parallel processing systems (see previous slides)
5c. Parallel Databases II

- Partition data across nodes (hash, range, etc.)

- Query evaluation
  - only one new element: reshuffle
    - move tuples to nodes based on values in certain columns
    - basically same as shuffle sort of MapReduce
    - use to implement all extended RA operations
  - linear speed up or scale up in principle
  - in practice, stragglers are a problem (MapReduce tries to discover and redo the tasks the stragglers are working on)
  - new problem: skewed data
    - may not all fit in memory of one node
5c. Parallel Databases III

- AsterixDB is the closest we have seen to this
  - came out of parallel DB community
  - executes OLAP queries as in parallel processing
  - but only has record-level transactions as in NoSQL
    - (more OLTP than parallel processing systems though)

- More complete systems in the near future
  - see also Google Spanner, Microsoft Cloud DB
SQL (Everywhere)
5. SQL

• CREATE TABLE …
  – PRIMARY KEY, UNIQUE, FOREIGN KEY
  – CHECK (constraints) on columns or tuples

• CREATE [CLUSTERED] INDEX … ON …

• INSERT INTO …

• UPDATE … SET … WHERE …

• DELETE FROM … WHERE …
5. SQL (cont.)

- SELECT …
  - JOINs: inner vs. outer, natural
  - GROUP BY, sum, count, avg, etc.
  - ORDER BY

- SET ISOLATION LEVEL …
- BEGIN TRANSACTION
- COMMIT / ROLLBACK