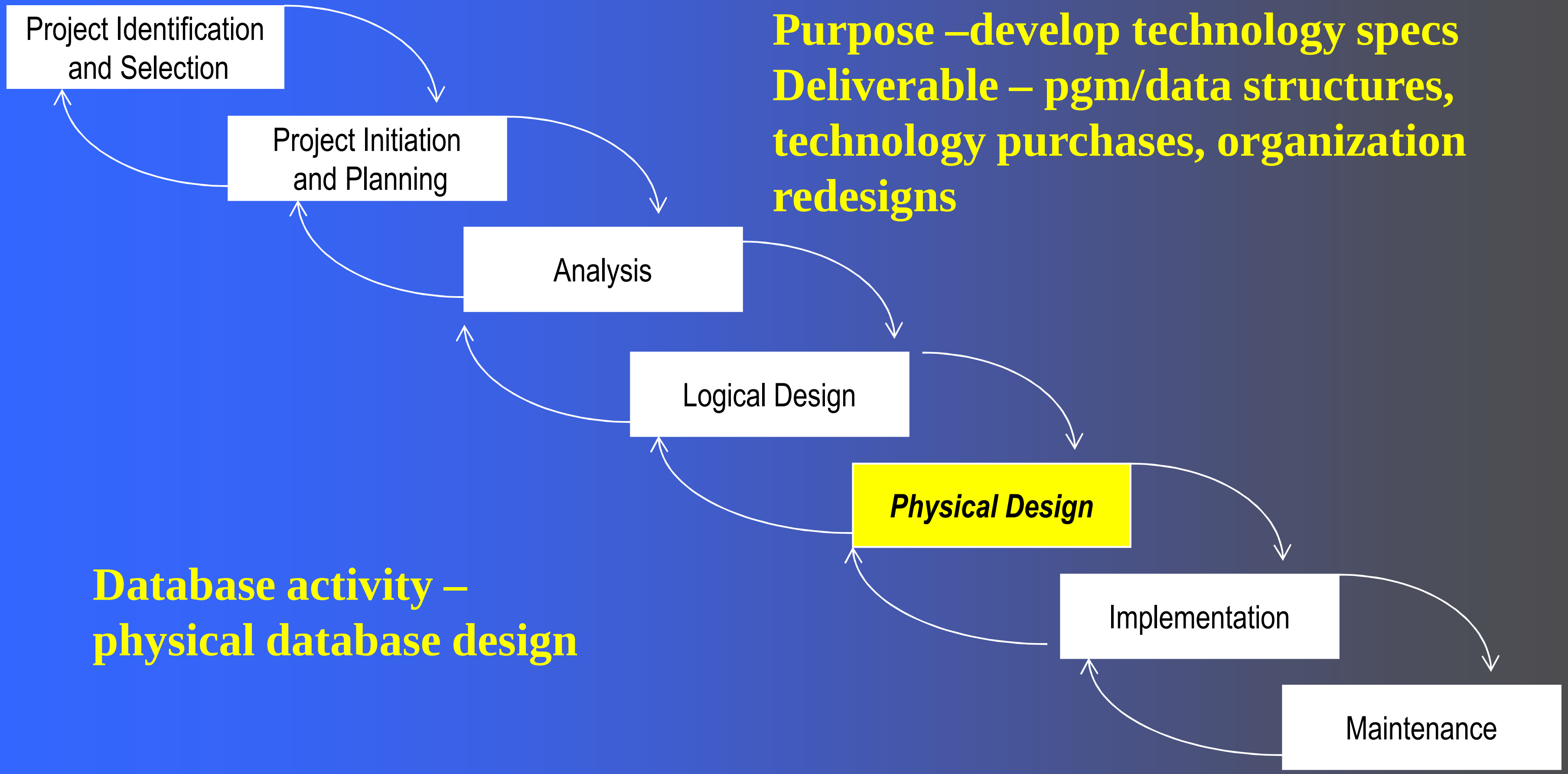
The Physical Design Stage of SDLC


Project Identification and Selection
Project Initiation and Planning
Analysis
Logical Design
Physical Design
Implementation
Maintenance

Purpose –develop technology specs
Deliverable – pgm/data structures, technology purchases, organization redesigns

Database activity – physical database design

Physical Database Design

Purpose - translate the logical description of data into the *technical specifications* for storing and retrieving data

Goal - create a design for storing data that will provide ***adequate performance*** and insure ***database integrity***, ***security*** and ***recoverability***

Deliverables– program/data structures, technology purchases, organization redesigns

Physical Design Process

Inputs

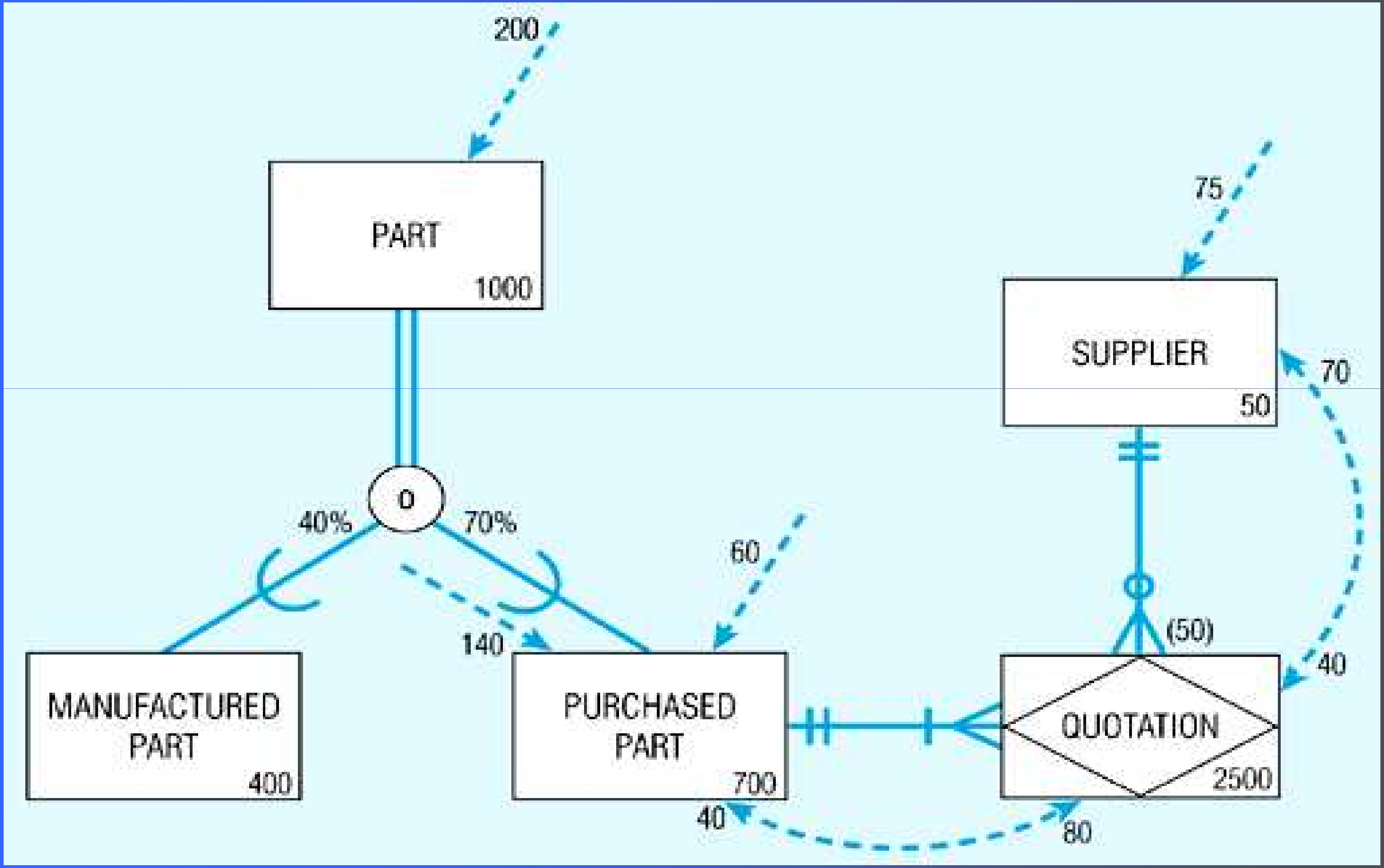
- Normalized relations
- Volume estimates
- Attribute definitions
- Response time expectations
- Data security needs
- Backup/recovery needs
- Integrity expectations(Business Rules)
- DBMS technology used

Leads to

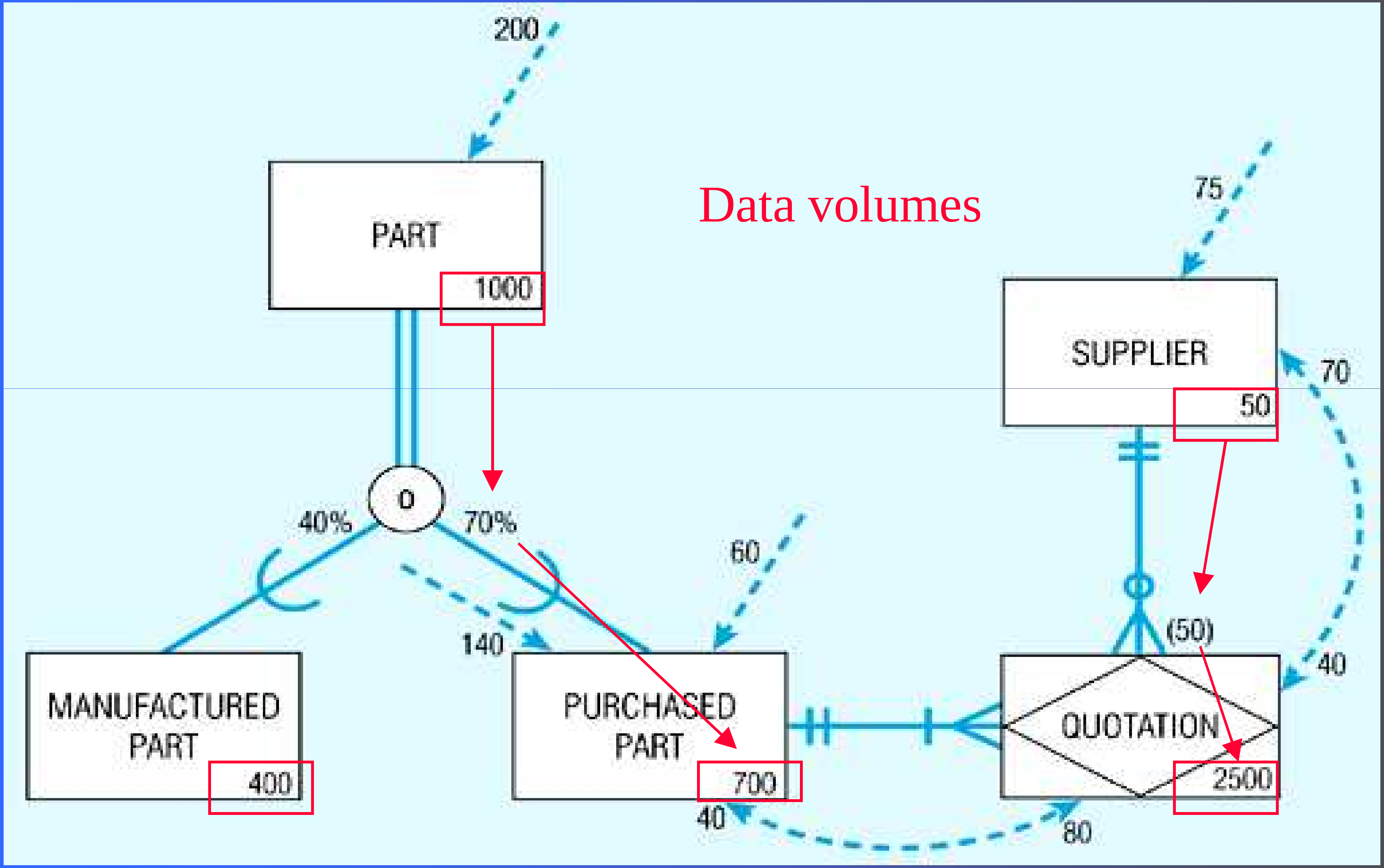
Decisions

- Attribute data types
- Physical record descriptions (doesn’t always match logical design)
- File organizations
- Indexes and database architectures
- Query optimization

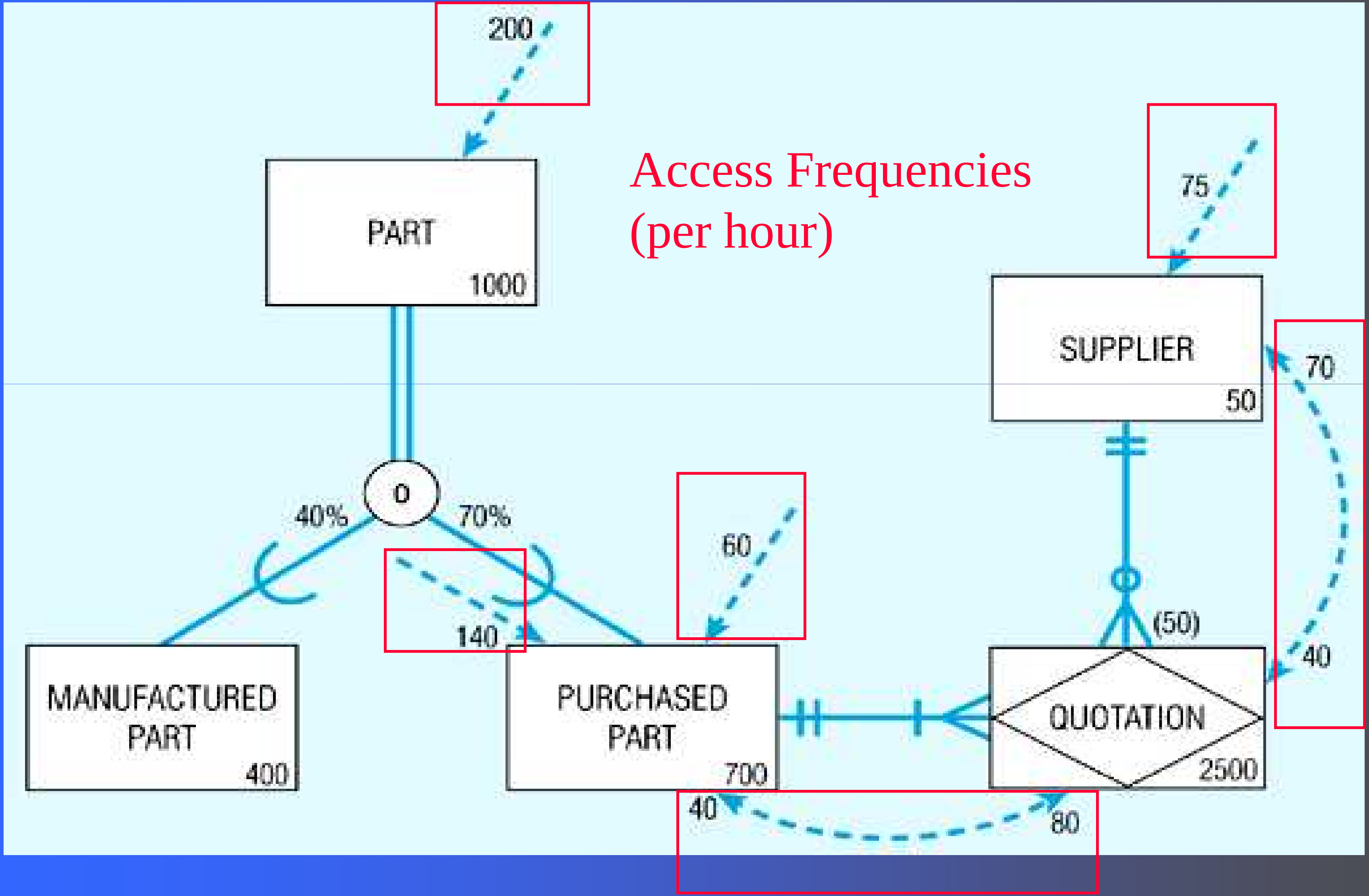
Data Volume and Usage Analysis



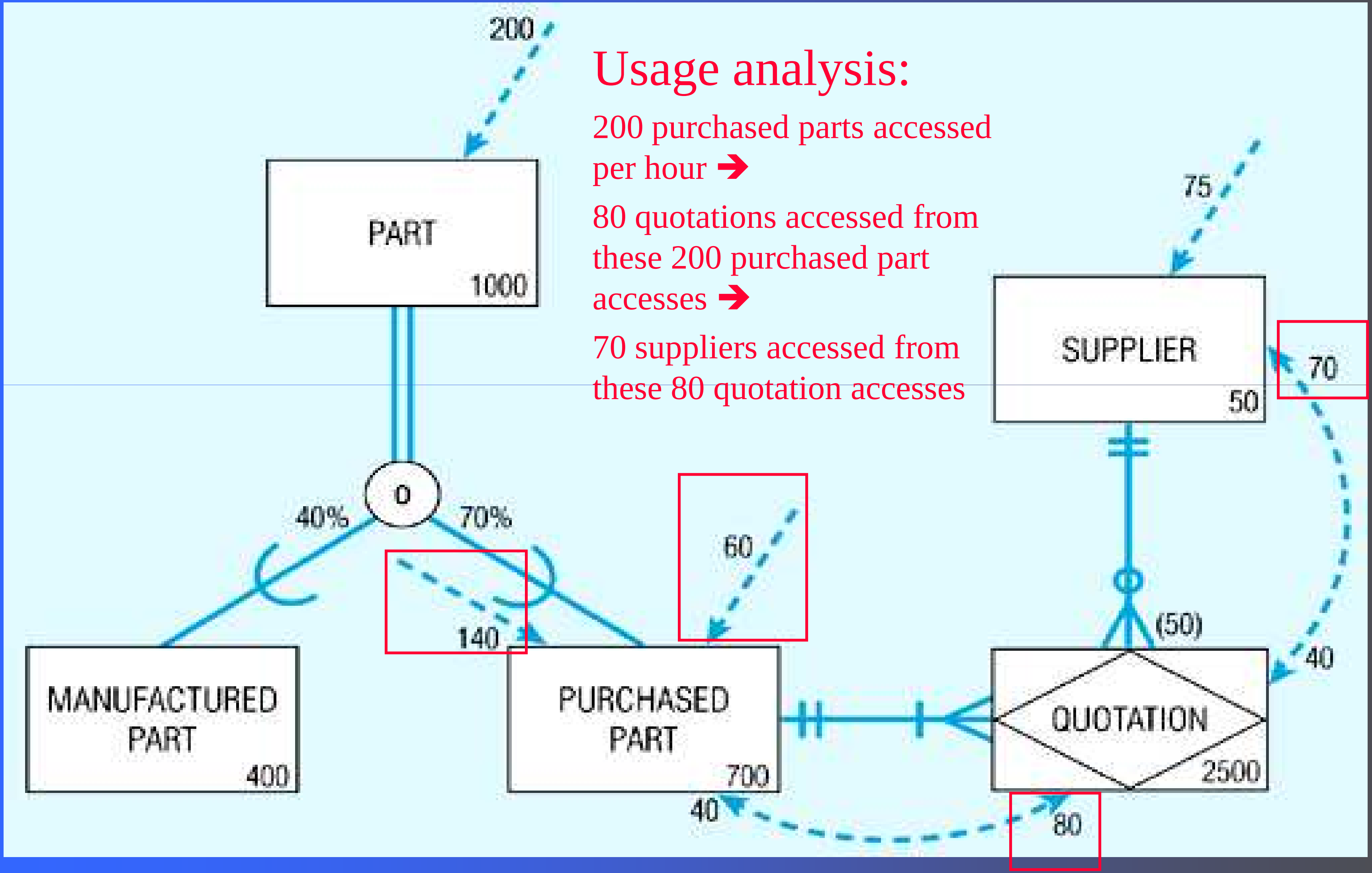
Data Volume and Usage Analysis



Data Volume and Usage Analysis



Data Volume and Usage Analysis



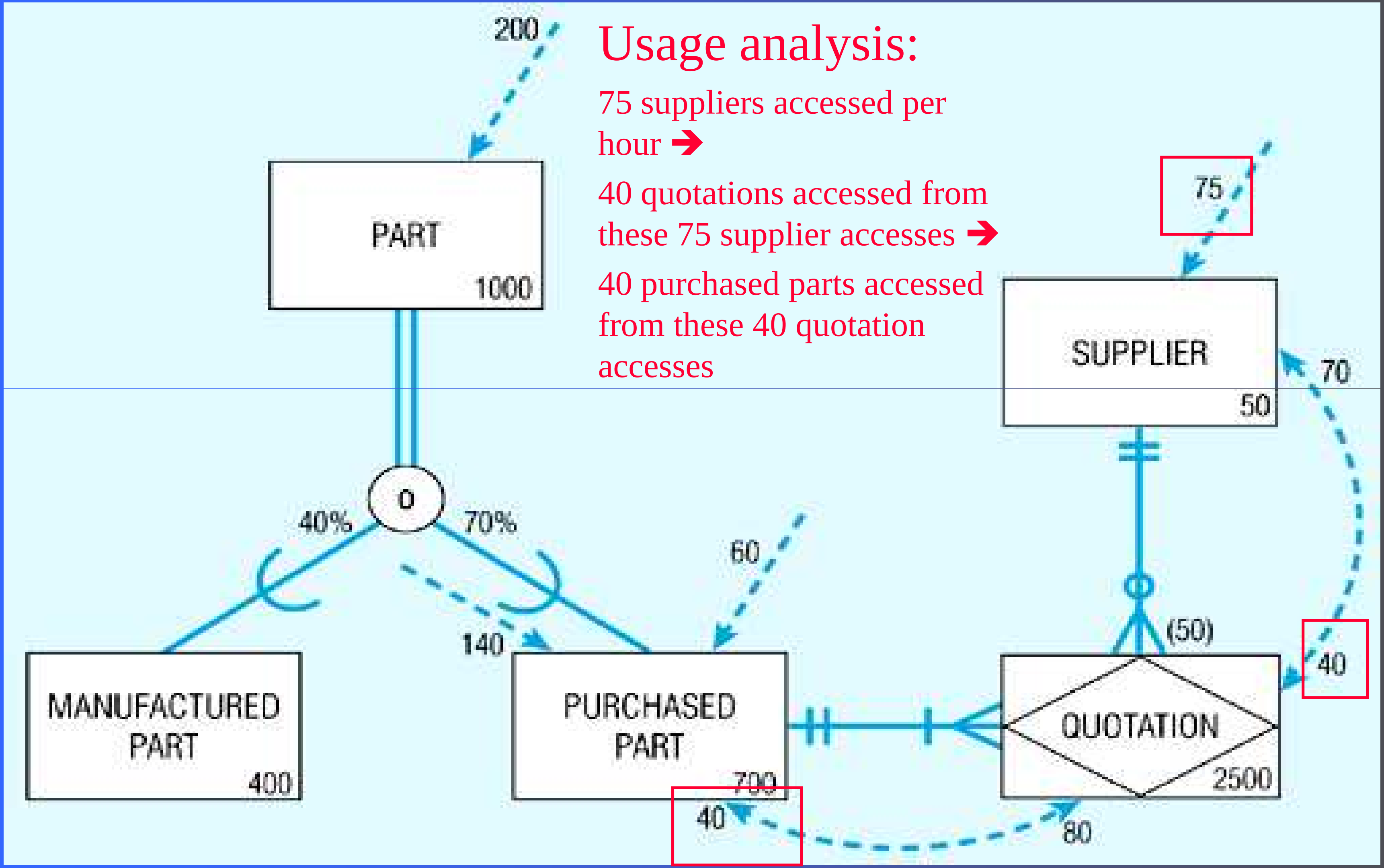
Usage analysis:

200 purchased parts accessed per hour ➔

80 quotations accessed from these 200 purchased part accesses ➔

70 suppliers accessed from these 80 quotation accesses

Data Volume and Usage Analysis



Usage analysis:

75 suppliers accessed per hour →

40 quotations accessed from these 75 supplier accesses →

40 purchased parts accessed from these 40 quotation accesses

Designing Fields

- Field: smallest unit of data in database(Corresponds to a simple attribute of a logical model)
- Field design
  - Choosing data type(Coding recognized by a DBMS)
    - minimum space requirements
    - all possible values
    - Data integrity
    - Support Data Manipulation
  - Coding, compression, encryption
  - Controlling data integrity

Controls by a DBMS -Default Values,Range Control,Null Value,Referential integrity

Choosing Data Types

CHAR – fixed-length character

VARCHAR2 – variable-length character (memo)

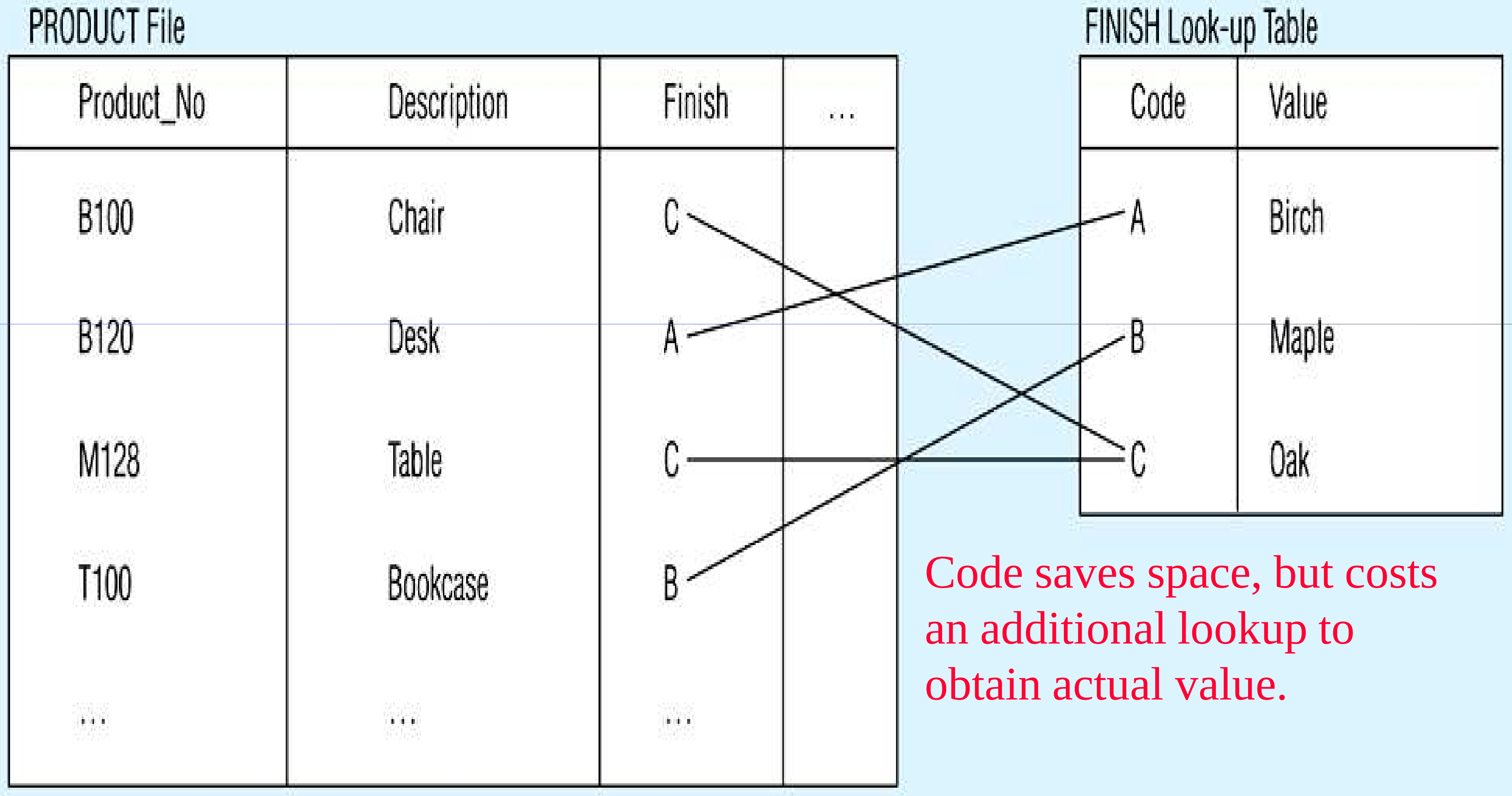
LONG – large number

NUMBER – positive/negative number

DATE – actual date

BLOB – binary large object (good for graphics, sound clips, etc.)

Example code-look-up table (Pine Valley Furniture Company)



PRODUCT File

Product_No	Description	Finish	...
B100	Chair	C	
B120	Desk	A	
M128	Table	C	
T100	Bookcase	B	
...	...	...	

FINISH Look-up Table

Code	Value
A	Birch
B	Maple
C	Oak

Code saves space, but costs an additional lookup to obtain actual value.

Field Data Integrity

- Default value - assumed value if no explicit value
- Range control – allowable value limitations (constraints or validation rules)
- Null value control – allowing or prohibiting empty fields
- Referential integrity – range control (and null value allowances) for foreign-key to primary-key match-ups

Handling Missing Data

- Substitute an estimate of the missing value (e.g. using a formula)
- Construct a report listing missing values
- In programs, ignore missing data unless the value is significant

Triggers can be used to perform these operations

Three levels of database design:

Conceptual: producing a data model which accounts for the relevant entities and relationships within the target application domain

Logical: ensuring, via normalization procedures and the definition of integrity rules, that the stored database will be non-redundant and properly connected

Physical: specifying how database records are stored, accessed and related to ensure adequate performance

Physical Records

Physical Record: A group of fields stored in adjacent memory locations and retrieved together as a unit

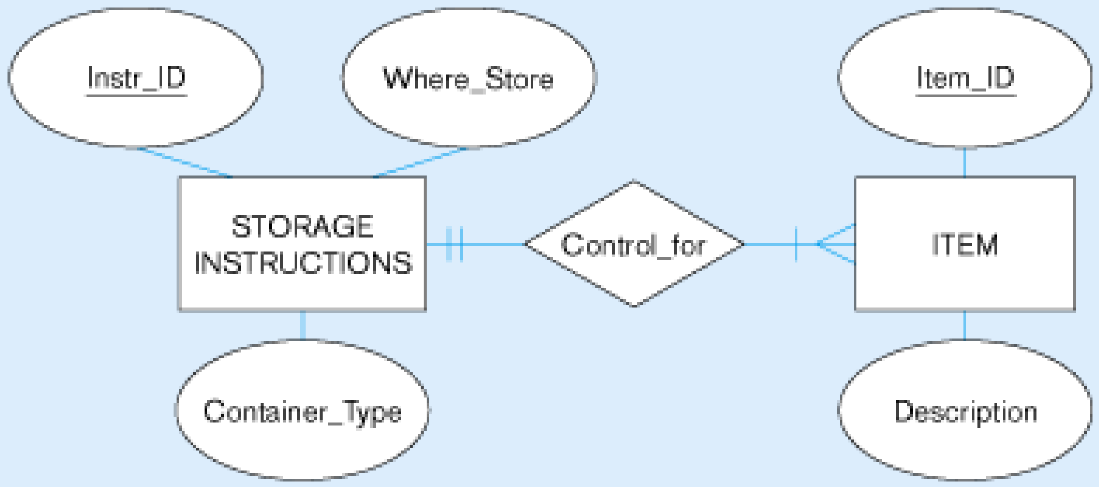
Page: The amount of data read or written in one I/O operation

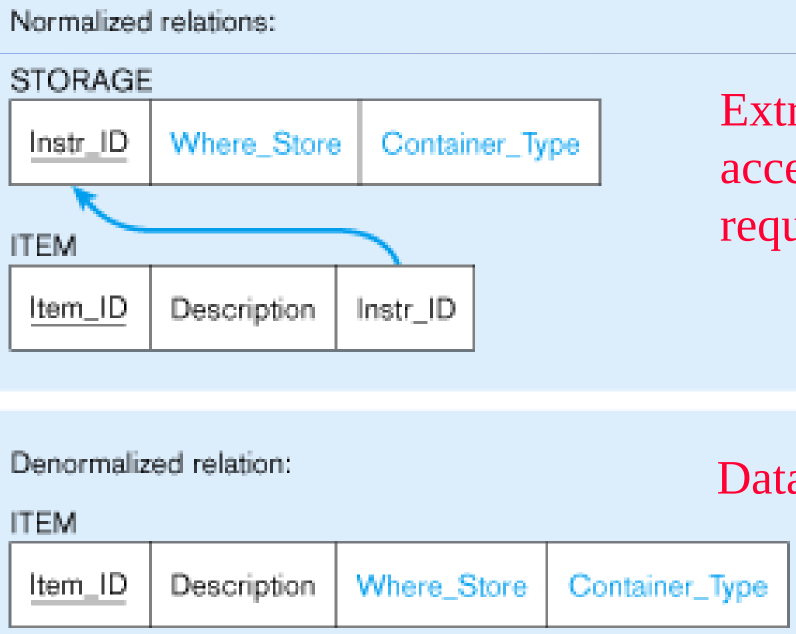
Blocking Factor: The number of physical records per page

Denormalization

- Transforming ***normalized*** relations into ***unnormalized*** physical record specifications
- Benefits:
  - Can improve performance (speed) be reducing number of table lookups (i.e *reduce number of necessary join queries*)
- Costs (due to data duplication)
  - Wasted storage space
  - Data integrity/consistency threats
- Common denormalization opportunities
  - One-to-one relationship
  - Many-to-many relationship with attributes
  - Reference data (1:N relationship where 1-side has data not used in any other relationship)

A possible denormalization situation: reference data





Normalized relations:

STORAGE

Instr_ID	Where_Store	Container_Type

ITEM

Item_ID	Description	Instr_ID

Extra table access required

Denormalized relation:

ITEM

Item_ID	Description	Where_Store	Container_Type

Data duplication

Partitioning

Horizontal Partitioning: Distributing the rows of a table into several separate files

- Useful for situations where different users need access to different rows
- Three types: Key Range Partitioning, Hash Partitioning, or Composite Partitioning

Vertical Partitioning: Distributing the columns of a table into several separate files

- Useful for situations where different users need access to different columns
- The primary key must be repeated in each file

Combinations of Horizontal and Vertical

(Across Multiple Computers)

Partitioning

Advantages of Partitioning:

- Records are grouped together (DB Performance,Maintenance)
- Each partition can be optimized for performance(Quick Backup High Security, Fast recovery)
- Partitions stored on different disks (less data to scan-faster)
- Take advantage of parallel processing capability

Disadvantages of Partitioning:

- Slow retrievals across partitions(Unavailability of multithreading/Multiprocessors)
- Complexity (Difficult to recover, Configure, uneven w/load)

Data Replication

- Purposely storing the same data in multiple locations of the database
- Improves performance by allowing multiple users to access the same data at the same time with minimum contention
- Sacrifices data integrity due to data duplication
- Best for data that is not updated often

Designing Physical Files

Physical File:

- A named portion of secondary memory allocated for the purpose of storing physical records

(maps a database over a set of operating-system files)

- **Primary data files The primary data file is the starting point of the database and points to the other files in the database. Every database has one primary data file.**
- **Secondary data files are the data files other than the primary data file.**
- **Log files hold all of the log information used to recover the database.**

Constructs to link two pieces of data:

- Sequential storage.
- Pointers.

File Organization:

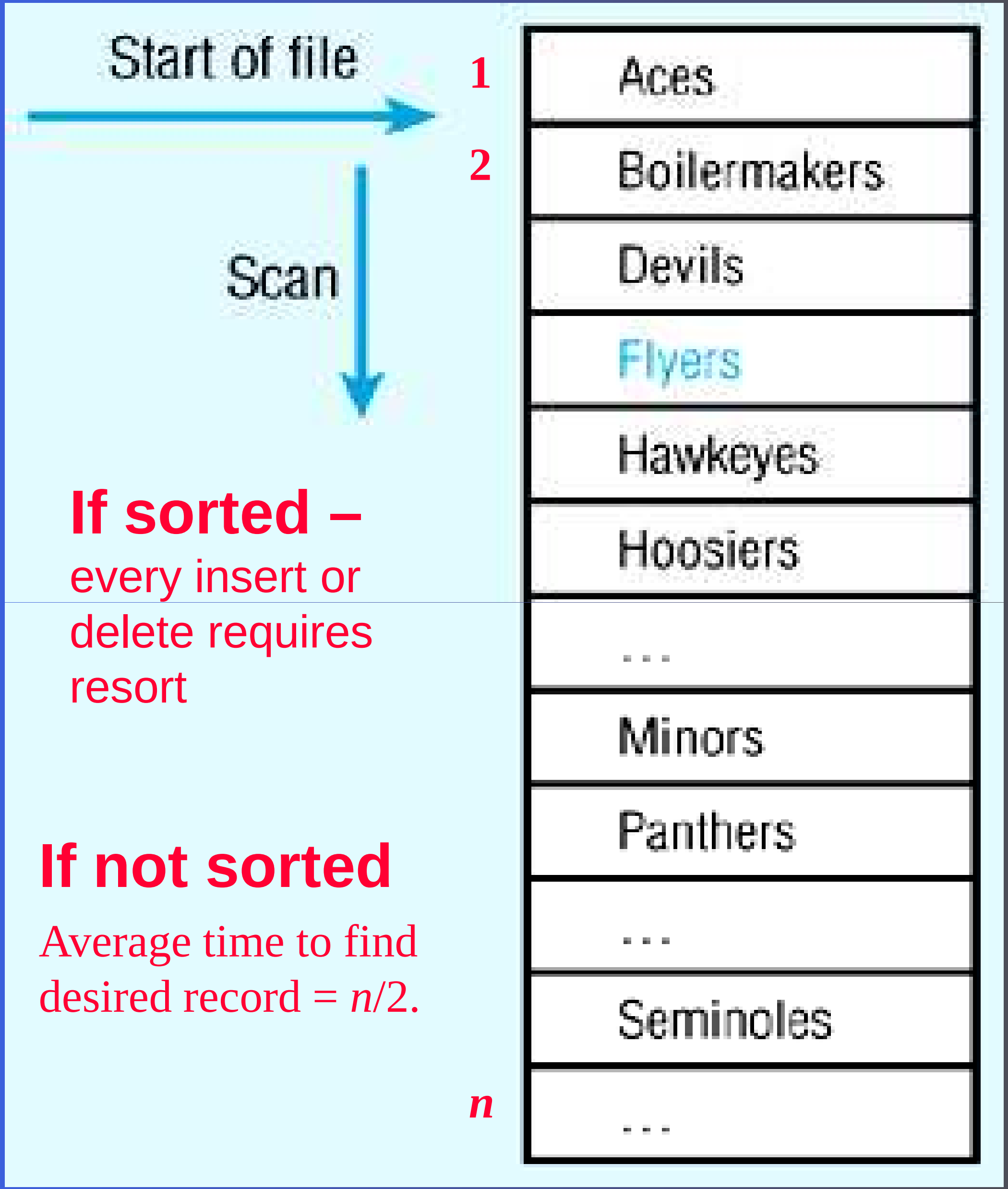
- How the files are arranged on the disk.

Access Method:

- How the data can be retrieved based on the file organization.

Sequential file organization

Records of the file are stored in sequence by the primary key field values.



If sorted –
every insert or delete requires resort

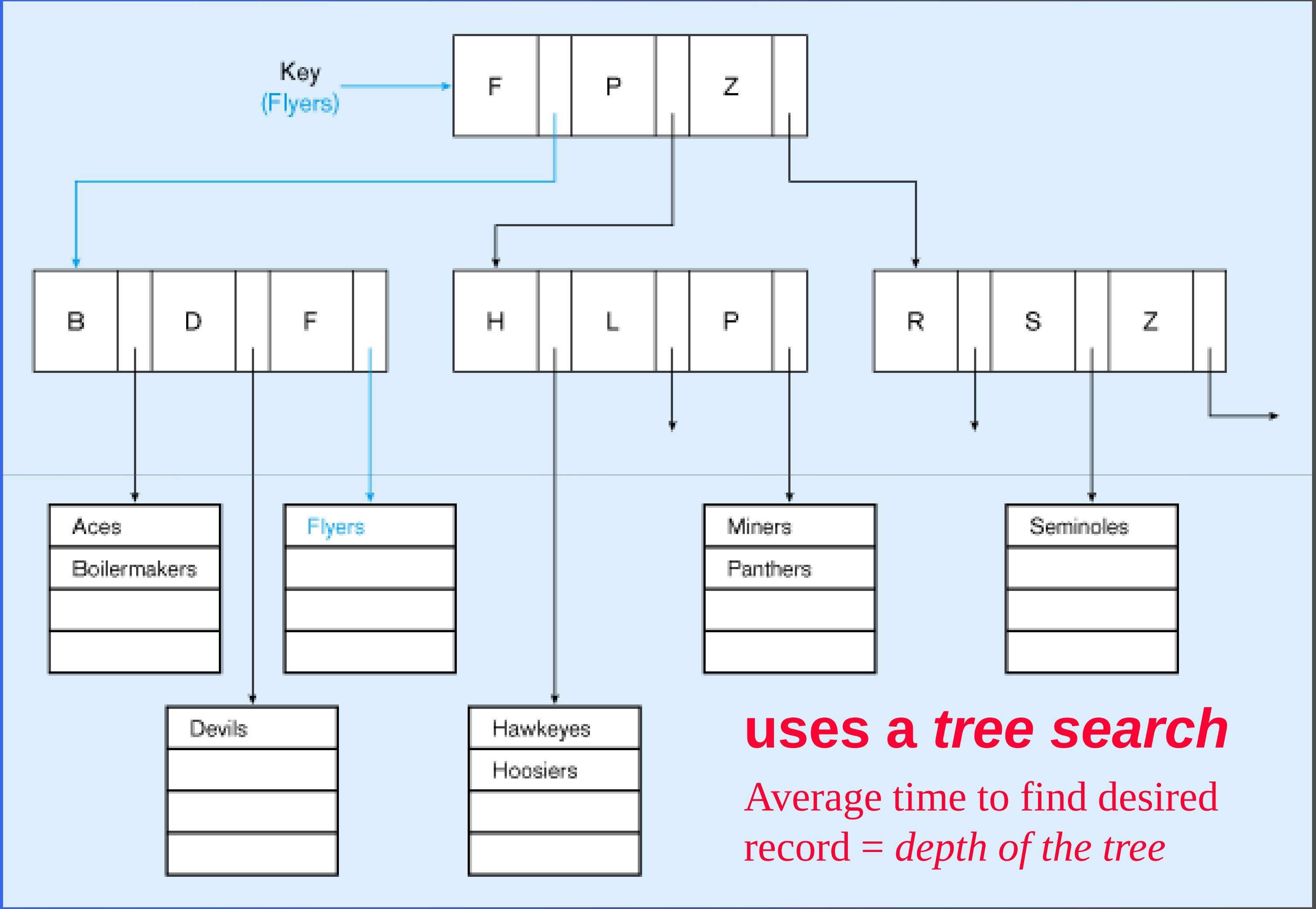
If not sorted

Average time to find desired record = $n/2$.

Indexed File Organizations

- Index – a separate table that contains organization of records for quick retrieval
- Primary keys are automatically indexed
- Oracle has a CREATE INDEX operation, and MS ACCESS allows indexes to be created for most field types
- Indexing approaches:
  - B-tree index
  - Bitmap index
  - Hash Index
  - Join Index

B-tree index

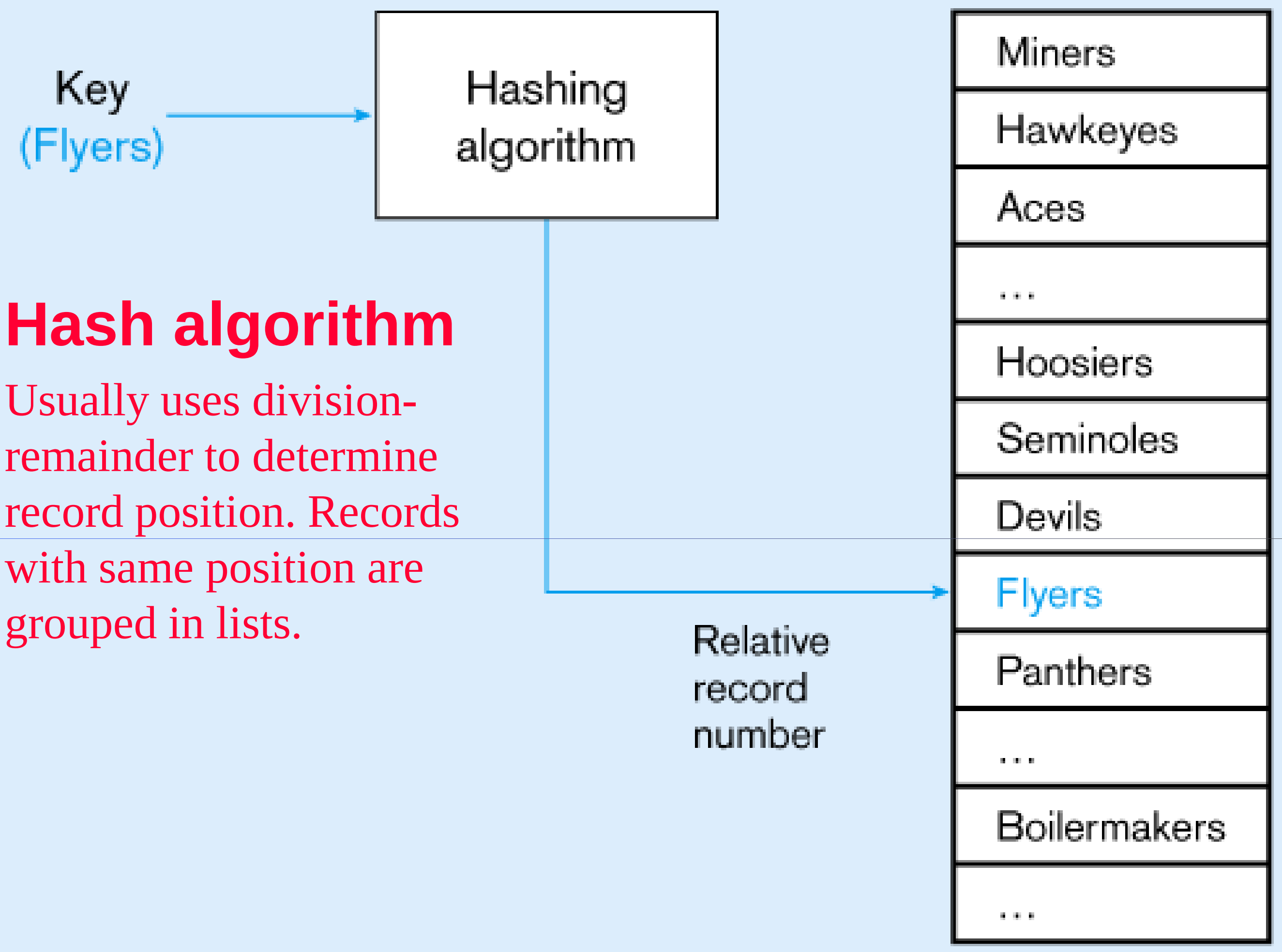


Leaves of the tree are all at same level → consistent access time

uses a *tree search*

Average time to find desired record = *depth of the tree*

Hashed file or index organization



Hash algorithm

Usually uses division-remainder to determine record position. Records with same position are grouped in lists.

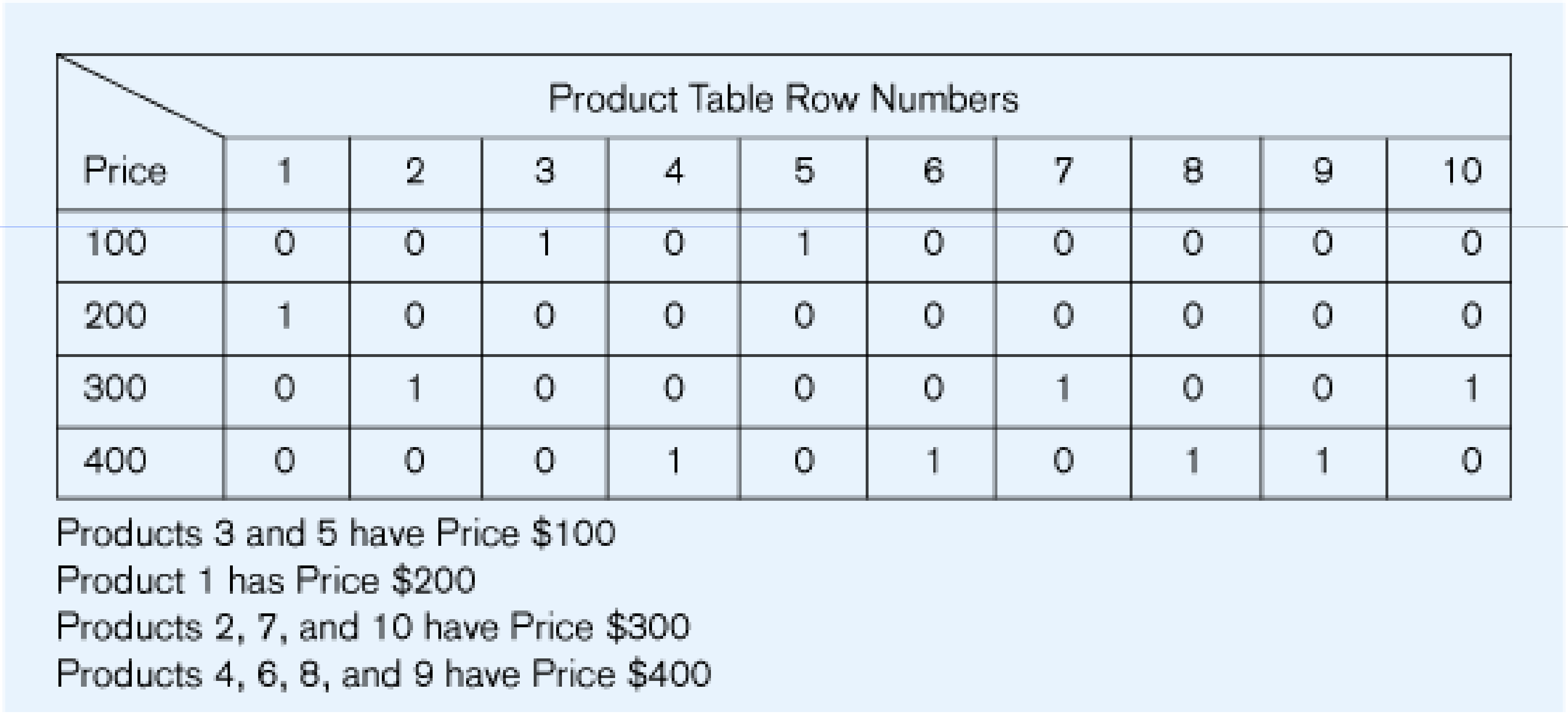
Bitmap index
index
organization

Bitmap saves on space requirements

Rows - possible values of the attribute

Columns - table rows

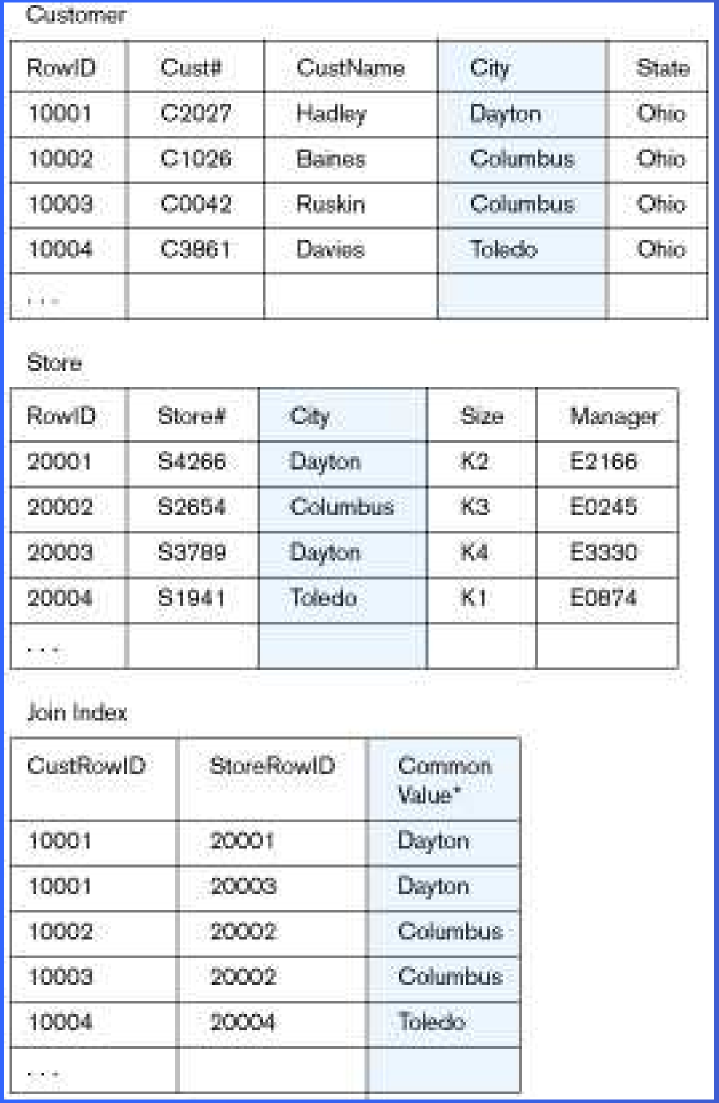
Bit indicates whether the attribute of a row has the values



	Product Table Row Numbers									
Price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
100	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
200	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
300	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
400	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0

Products 3 and 5 have Price $100
Product 1 has Price $200
Products 2, 7, and 10 have Price $300
Products 4, 6, 8, and 9 have Price $400

Join Index – speeds up join operations



Customer

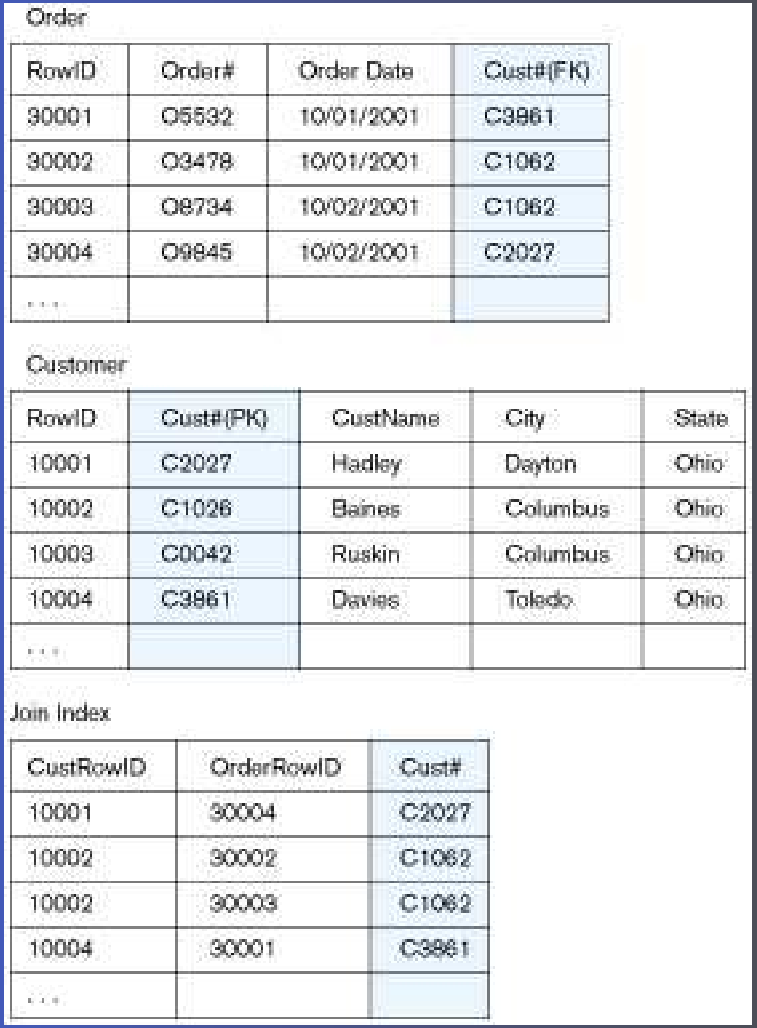
RowID	Cust#	CustName	City	State
10001	C2027	Hadley	Dayton	Ohio
10002	C1026	Baines	Columbus	Ohio
10003	C0042	Ruskin	Columbus	Ohio
10004	C3861	Davies	Toledo	Ohio
. . .				

Store

RowID	Store#	City	Size	Manager
20001	S4266	Dayton	K2	E2166
20002	S2654	Columbus	K3	E0245
20003	S3789	Dayton	K4	E3330
20004	S1941	Toledo	K1	E0874
. . .				

Join Index

CustRowID	StoreRowID	Common Value*
10001	20001	Dayton
10001	20003	Dayton
10002	20002	Columbus
10003	20002	Columbus
10004	20004	Toledo
. . .		



Order

RowID	Order#	Order Date	Cust#(FK)
30001	O5532	10/01/2001	C3861
30002	O3478	10/01/2001	C1062
30003	O8734	10/02/2001	C1062
30004	O9845	10/02/2001	C2027
. . .			

Customer

RowID	Cust#(PK)	CustName	City	State
10001	C2027	Hadley	Dayton	Ohio
10002	C1026	Baines	Columbus	Ohio
10003	C0042	Ruskin	Columbus	Ohio
10004	C3861	Davies	Toledo	Ohio
. . .				

Join Index

CustRowID	OrderRowID	Cust#
10001	30004	C2027
10002	30002	C1062
10002	30003	C1062
10004	30001	C3861
. . .		

Clustering Files

- In some relational DBMSs, related records from different tables can be stored together in the same disk area
- Useful for improving performance of join operations
- Primary key records of the main table are stored adjacent to associated foreign key records of the dependent table
- e.g. Oracle has a CREATE CLUSTER command

Rules for Using Indexes

1. Use on larger tables
2. Index the primary key of each table
3. Index search fields (fields frequently in WHERE clause)
4. Fields in SQL ORDER BY and GROUP BY commands
5. When there are >100 values but not when there are <30 values

Rules for Using Indexes

6. DBMS may have limit on number of indexes per table and number of bytes per indexed field(s)
7. Null values will not be referenced from an index
8. Use indexes heavily for non-volatile databases; limit the use of indexes for volatile databases
    - Why? Because modifications (e.g. inserts, deletes) require updates to occur in index files