CHAPTER 9 OBJECT-BASED DATABASES

Intro to DB

Chapter 9: Object-Based Databases

- Complex Data Types
- Structured Data Types and Inheritance in SQL
- Table Inheritance
- Array and Multiset Types in SQL
- Object Identity and Reference Types in SQL
- Implementing O-R Features
- Persistent Programming Languages
- Object-Oriented vs Object-Relational Databases

Need for Complex Data Types

- Traditional database applications had simple data types
 - Relatively few data types, first normal form
- Complex data types have grown more important in recent years
 - E.g. Addresses can be viewed as a
 - Single string, or
 - Separate attributes for each part, or
 - Composite attributes (which are not in first normal form)
 - E.g. it is often convenient to store multivalued attributes as-is, without creating a separate relation to store the values in first normal form

Applications

- computer-aided design, computer-aided software engineering
- multimedia and image databases, and document/hypertext databases.

Object Structure

- Loosely speaking, an object corresponds to an entity in the E-R model.
- The *object-oriented paradigm* is based on *encapsulating* code and data related to an object into single unit.
- An object has:
 - A set of variables that contain the data for the object. The value of each variable is itself an object.
 - A set of messages to which the object responds; each message may have zero, one, or more *parameters*.
 - A set of methods, each of which is a body of code to implement a message; a method returns a value as the *response* to the message

Class Definition Example

```
class employee {
      /*Variables */
         string name;
         string address;
         date
                  start-date:
         int
                  salary;
     /* Messages */
         int
              annual-salary();
         string get-name();
         string get-address();
                  set-address(string new-address);
         int
                  employment-length();
         int
};
```

- Methods to read and set the other variables are also needed with strict encapsulation
- Methods are defined separately
 - E.g. int employment-length() { return today() start-date; } int set-address(string new-address) { address = new-address;}

Object Classes

- Similar objects are grouped into a **class**
- Each individual object is called an **instance** of its class
- All objects in a class have the same
 - variables, with the same types
 - message interface
 - methods

They may differ in the values assigned to variables

- e.g., group objects for people into a *person* class
- Classes are analogous to entity sets in the E-R model

Inheritance

- Class of bank customers VS class of bank employees
 - ^D Share some variables and messages, e.g., *name* and *address*.
 - But others are specific to each class
 - e.g., *salary* for employees and *credit-rating* for customers.
- Employee and customer are persons
 - every employee is a person; thus *employee* is a specialization of *person*
 - *customer* is a specialization of *person*.
- Create classes *person*, *employee* and *customer*
 - variables/messages applicable to all persons => associate with class *person*.
 - variables/messages specific to employees => associate with class employee
 - similarly for *customer*

Inheritance (Cont.)

- Place classes into a specialization/IS-A hierarchy
 - variables/messages belonging to class *person* are *inherited* by class *employee* as well as *customer*
- Result is a **class hierarchy** (or inheritance hierarchy)



Note analogy with ISA Hierarchy in the E-R model

Class Hierarchy Definition

```
class person{
       string
                      name;
       string
                      address:
       };
class customer isa person {
       int credit-rating;
       };
class employee isa person {
       date start-date;
       int salary;
       };
class officer isa employee {
       int office-number,
       int expense-account-number,
       };
```

Multiple Inheritance (Example)



Multiple Inheritance

- A class may have more than one superclass.
 - Represented by a directed acyclic graph (DAG)
 - Particularly useful when objects can be classified in more than one way
- A class inherits variables and methods from *all* its superclasses
- Potential for ambiguity
 - when a variable/message N with the same name is inherited from two superclasses A and B
 - No problem if the variable/message is defined in a shared superclass
 - Otherwise, do one of the following
 - flag as an error,
 - rename variables (A.N and B.N)
 - choose one.

Object Identity

- An object retains its identity even if some or all of the values of variables or definitions of methods change over time.
- Object identity is a stronger notion of identity than in programming languages or other data models
- Identity by
 - Value data value; e.g. primary key value used in relational systems.
 - Name supplied by user; file names in UNIX
 - Built-in identity built into data model or programming language.
 - no user-supplied identifier is required
 - the form of identity used in object-oriented systems

Object Identifiers

- Object identifiers are used to uniquely identify objects
- Object identifiers are unique:
 - no two objects have the same identifier
 - each object has only one object identifier
- Can be stored as a field of an object, to refer to another object.
 - E.g., the *spouse* field of a *person* object may be an identifier of another *person* object.
- Can be
 - system generated (created by database) or
 - external (such as social-security number)
- System generated identifiers:
 - Are easier to use, but cannot be used across database systems

Object-Relational Model

- Extended relational model to support
 - Nested relations
 - Complex types
 - Object orientation
- Most commercial DBMS claim to be OR
 - ^D Oracle, DB2, Informix, ...
- Relational model
 - First Normal Form: all attributes have atomic domains
- Nested relational model
 - Domains may be atomic or *relation-valued*
 - tuple (complex structure)
 - set (multiset)

Example of a Nested Relation

- Example: library information system
- Each book has
 - title,
 - a set of authors,
 - publisher, and
 - a set of keywords
- Non-1NF relation *books*

title	author-set	publisher	keyword-set
		(name, branch)	
Compilers	{Smith, Jones}	(McGraw-Hill, New York)	{parsing, analysis}
Networks	{Jones, Frick}	(Oxford, London)	{Internet, Web}

1NF Version of Nested Relation

• 1NF version of *books*

title	author	pub-name	pub-branch	keyword
Compilers	Smith	McGraw-Hill	New York	parsing
Compilers	Jones	McGraw-Hill	New York	parsing
Compilers	Smith	McGraw-Hill	New York	analysis
Compilers	Jones	McGraw-Hill	New York	analysis
Networks	Jones	Oxford	London	Internet
Networks	Frick	Oxford	London	Internet
Networks	Jones	Oxford	London	Web
Networks	Frick	Oxford	London	Web

flat-books

Decomposition

• Dependencies in *doc*

 $title \rightarrow \rightarrow author \qquad (MVD)$ $title \rightarrow \rightarrow keyword$ $title \rightarrow pub_name, pub_branch$

- Decomposed version
 - 4NF (BCNF extended to include MVD)
 - Loose 1-to-1 correspondence between a tuple and a doc

title	author		title	keyword]	title	pub-name	pub-branch
Compilers	Smith		Compilers	parsing		Compilers	McGraw-Hill	New York
Compilers	Jones		Compilers	analysis		Networks	Oxford	London
Networks	Jones		Networks	Internet			hooks4	I
Networks	Frick		Networks	Web			000831	
authors		keywo	rds	,				

MVD: multi-valued dependency; $X \rightarrow Y$ means that a set of Y values is associated with each X value

Complex Types and SQL:1999

- Extensions to SQL to support complex types include:
 - Collection and large object types
 - Nested relations are an example of collection types
 - Structured types
 - Nested record structures like composite attributes
 - Inheritance
 - Object orientation
 - Including object identifiers and references
- Our description is mainly based on the SQL:1999 standard
 - Not fully implemented in any database system currently
 - But some features are present in each of the major commercial database systems
 - Read the manual of your database system to see what it supports

Structured Types and Inheritance in SQL

• Structured types can be declared and used in SQL

```
create type Name as

(firstname varchar(20),

lastname varchar(20))

final

create type Address as

(street varchar(20),

city varchar(20),

zipcode varchar(20))

not final
```

- Note: final and not final indicate whether subtypes can be created
- Structured types can be used to create tables with composite attributes create table *customer* (

name Name, address Address, dateOfBirth **date**)

Dot notation used to reference components: name.firstname

Structured Types (cont.)

- User-defined row types
 create type CustomerType as (name Name, address Address, dateOfBirth date)
 not final
- Can then create a table whose rows are a user-defined type

create table customer of CustomerType

Methods

- Can add a method declaration with a structured type.
 method ageOnDate (onDate date)
 returns interval year
- Method body is given separately.
 create instance method ageOnDate (onDate date) returns interval year for CustomerType
 begin return onDate - self.dateOfBirth;

end

 We can now find the age of each customer: select name.lastname, ageOnDate (current_date) from customer

Inheritance

• Suppose that we have the following type definition for people:

create type Person (name varchar(20), address varchar(20))

Using inheritance to define the student and teacher types create type Student under Person

 (degree varchar(20),
 department varchar(20))
 create type Teacher under Person

(salary integer, department varchar(20))

 Subtypes can redefine methods by using overriding method in place of method in the method declaration

Multiple Inheritance

- SQL:1999 and SQL:2003 do not support multiple inheritance
- If our type system supports multiple inheritance, we can define a type for teaching assistant as follows:

create type Teaching Assistant under Student, Teacher

• To avoid a conflict between the two occurrences of *department* we can rename them

create type Teaching Assistant under Student with (department as student_dept), Teacher with (department as teacher_dept)

Object-Identity and Reference Types

- An attribute can be a reference to a tuple in a table
- Define a type *Department* with a field *name* and a field *head* which is a reference to the type *Person*, with table *people* as scope:

create type Department (name varchar (20), head ref (Person) scope people)

• We can then create a table *departments* as follows

create table departments of Department

• We can omit the declaration **scope** people from the type declaration and instead make an addition to the **create table** statement:

create table *departments* of *Department* (*head* with options scope *people*)

Initializing Reference-Typed Values

• To create a tuple with a reference value, we can first create the tuple with a null reference and then set the reference separately:

```
insert into departments
    values (`CS', null)
update departments
    set head = (select p.person_id
        from people as p
        where name = `John')
where name = `CS'
```

Path Expressions

- Dot (.) notation is used for composite attributes select *title, publisher.name* from *books*
- Pointer (->) notation is used for reference attributes

select *head->name, head->address* from *departments*

references can be used to hide join operations

Collection-Valued Attributes

- Can be treated much like relations, using the keyword **unnest**
 - The *books* relation has array-valued attribute *author-array* and set-valued attribute *keyword-set*
- Find all books that have the word "database" as keyword select *title* from books
 where 'database' in (unnest(keyword-set))
 - Note: the only collection type supported by SQL:1999 is the array type
- To get a relation containing pairs of the form "title, author-name" for each book and each author of the book

select *B.title*, *A* from *books* as *B*, unnest(*B.author-array*) as *A*

Collection Valued Attributes (Cont.)

- We can access individual elements of an array by using indices
 - E.g. If we know that a particular book has three authors, we could write: select author-array[1], author-array[2], author-array[3] from books where title = `Database System Concepts'

Unnesting

 The transformation of a nested relation into a form with fewer (or no) relation-valued attributes

select title, A as author, publisher.name as pub_name, publisher.branch as pub_branch, K as keyword

from books as B, unnest(B.author-array) as A,

unnest (B.keyword-list) as K

title	author	pub-name	pub-branch	keyword
Compilers	Smith	McGraw-Hill	New York	parsing
Compilers	Jones	McGraw-Hill	New York	parsing
Compilers	Smith	McGraw-Hill	New York	analysis
Compilers	Jones	McGraw-Hill	New York	analysis
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Networks	Frick	Oxford	London	Web

Nesting

- Opposite of unnesting: creates a collection-valued attribute
 - NOTE: SQL:1999 does not support nesting
- Similar to aggregation, but using the function **set**()

select title, set(author) as author-list, Publisher(pub_name, pub_branch) as publisher, set(keyword) as keyword-list from flat-books group by title, publisher

Nesting (Cont.)

 Another approach to creating nested relations is to use subqueries in the select clause.

select title,

(select author from flat-books as M where M.title=O.title) as author-set, Publisher(pub-name, pub-branch) as publisher, (select keyword from flat-books as N where N.title = O.title) as keyword-set from flat-books as O

Nesting & Unnesting

Unnesting

select title, A as author, publisher.name as
 pub_name, publisher.branch as
 pub_branch, K as keyword
from doc as B, unnest(B.author_list) as A,
 unnest(B.keyword_set) as K

Nesting

select title, author, (pubname, pubbranch) as
 publisher, set(keyword) as keyword_list

from flat_docs
group by title, author, publisher

result is shown below

title	author	publisher	keyword-set
		(pub-name, pub-branch)	
Compilers	Smith	(McGraw-Hill, New York)	{parsing, analysis}
Compilers	Jones	(McGraw-Hill, New York)	{parsing, analysis}
Networks	Jones	(Oxford, London)	{Internet, Web}
Networks	Frick	(Oxford, London)	{Internet, Web}

result is *flat_books*

Object-Oriented Languages

- Object-oriented concepts can be used in different ways
- Object-orientation can be used as a design tool
 - ^o and then encode into, for example, a relational database
 - analogous to modeling data with E-R diagram and then converting to a set of relations
- Object orientation can be incorporated into a programming language that is used to manipulate the database.
 - Object-relational systems add complex types and object-orientation to relational language
 - Persistent programming languages extend object-oriented programming language to deal with databases by adding concepts such as persistence and collections.

Persistent Programming Languages

- Persistent Programming languages
 - allow objects to be created and stored in a database,
 - and used directly from a programming language
- Allow data to be manipulated directly from the programming language
 - No need to go through SQL
 - No need for explicit format (type) changes
- Drawbacks
 - Flexibility and power of programming languages => it is easy to make programming errors that damage the database
 - Complexity of languages makes automatic optimization more difficult
 - Do not support declarative querying as well as relational databases

OO vs OR

- OO
 - efficient in complex main memory operations of persistent data
 - susceptible to data corruption
- OR
 - declarative and limited power of (extended) SQL (compared to PL)
 - data protection and good optimization
 - extends the relational model to make modeling and querying easier
- Relational
 - simple data types, good query language, high protection

END OF CHAPTER 9