CPSC 304
Introduction to Database Systems

Data Warehousing & OLAP

Textbook Reference
Database Management Systems Sect. 25.1-25.5, 25.7-25.10

Other References:
The Data Warehouse Toolkit, 3rd edition, by Kimball & Ross

Hassan Khosravi
Based on slides from Ed, George, Laks, Jennifer Widom (Stanford), and Jiawei Han (Illinois)
Learning Goals

- Compare and contrast OLAP and OLTP processing (e.g., focus, clients, amount of data, abstraction levels, concurrency, and accuracy).
- Explain the ETL tasks (i.e., extract, transform, load) for data warehouses.
- Explain the differences between a star schema design and a snowflake design for a data warehouse, including potential tradeoffs in performance.
- Argue for the value of a data cube in terms of: the type of data in the cube (numeric, categorical, counts, sums) and the goals of OLAP (e.g., summarization, abstractions).
- Estimate the complexity of a data cube in terms of the number of views that a given fact table and set of dimensions could generate, and provide some ways of managing this complexity.
Learning Goals (cont.)

- Given a multidimensional cube, write regular SQL queries that perform roll-up, drill-down, slicing, dicing, and pivoting operations on the cube.
- Use the SQL:1999 standards for aggregation (e.g., GROUP BY CUBE) to efficiently generate the results for multiple views.
- Explain why having materialized views is important for a data warehouse.
- Determine which set of views are most beneficial to materialize.
- Given an OLAP query and a set of materialized views, determine which views could be used to answer the query more efficiently than the fact table (base view).
- Define and contrast the various methods and policies for materialized view maintenance.
What We Have Focused on So Far

❖ OLTP (On-Line Transaction Processing)
  – class of information systems that facilitate and manage transaction-oriented applications, typically for data entry and retrieval transaction processing.
  – the system responds immediately to user requests.
  – high throughput and insert- or update-intensive database management. These applications are used concurrently by hundreds of users.

❖ The key goals of OLTP applications are **availability**, **speed**, **concurrency** and **recoverability**.

On-Line Transaction Processing

- OLTP Systems are used to “run” a business.

- Examples: Answering queries from a Web interface, sales at cash registers, selling airline tickets, transactions at an ATM.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OLTP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Typical User</td>
<td>Basically Everyone (Many Concurrent Users)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Data</td>
<td>Current, Operational, Frequent Updates</td>
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<tr>
<td>Type of Query</td>
<td>Short, Often Predictable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of Queries</td>
<td>Many concurrent queries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access</td>
<td>Many reads, writes and updates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DB Design</td>
<td>Application oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schema</td>
<td>E-R model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Form</td>
<td>Often 3NF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Size</td>
<td>MB to GB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection</td>
<td>Concurrency Control, Crash Recovery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>Day to day operations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Can We Do More?

- Increasingly, organizations are analyzing current and historical data to identify useful patterns and support business strategies.
  - “Decision Support”, “Business Intelligence”

- The emphasis is on complex, interactive, exploratory analysis of very large datasets created by integrating data from across all parts of an enterprise.
A Producer Wants to Know …

Who are our lowest/highest margin customers?

Who are my customers, and what products are they buying?

Which customers are most likely to go to the competition?

What impact will new products/services have on revenue and margins?

What is the most effective distribution channel?

What product promotions have the biggest impact on revenue?
Data, Data, Everywhere, yet ...

- I can’t find the data I need
  - Data is scattered over the network
  - Many versions, many sources, subtle differences, incompatible formats, missing values
- I can’t get the data I need
  - Need an expert to get the data from various sources
- I can’t understand the data I found
  - Poorly documented
- I can’t use the data I found
  - Results are unexpected
  - Not sure what I’m looking for
  - Data needs to be transformed
What is Data Warehouse?

❖ “A data warehouse is a subject-oriented, integrated, time-variant, and nonvolatile collection of data in support of management’s decision-making process.”

—W. H. Inmon

Recognized by many as the father of the data warehouse
Data Warehouse—Subject-Oriented

- **Subject-Oriented**: Data that gives information about a particular subject area such as customer, product, and sales instead of about a company's ongoing operations.

1. Focusing on the modeling and analysis of data for decision makers, not on daily operations or transaction processing

2. Provides a simple and concise view around particular subject issues by excluding data that are not useful in the decision support process
### Application-Oriented

#### Membership levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Type</th>
<th>Fee</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
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<td>$50</td>
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#### Visit Level

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<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>$10</td>
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#### Members

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>Joe</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>222</td>
<td>Sue</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>333</td>
<td>Pat</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
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#### Non-member Visits

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<th>VID</th>
<th>VisitDate</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>YP</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>YP</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subject-Oriented

#### Revenue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R-ID</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>By</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7235</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
<td>Non-Member</td>
<td>$15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7236</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
<td>Member</td>
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<tr>
<td>7237</td>
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<tr>
<td>7238</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
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<tr>
<td>7239</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7240</td>
<td>01/01/2008</td>
<td>Non-Member</td>
<td>$15</td>
</tr>
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</table>

...
Data Warehouse—Integrated

- Constructed by integrating multiple, heterogeneous data sources.
  - relational databases, XML, flat files, on-line transaction records

- Data cleaning and data integration techniques are applied.
  - Ensure consistency in naming conventions, encoding structures, attribute measures, etc. among different data sources.
    - e.g., Hotel price depends on: currency, various room taxes, whether breakfast or Internet is included, etc.
  - When data from different sources is moved to the warehouse, it is cleaned and converted into a common format.
Extract, Transform, and Load (ETL)

❖ ETL refers to the processes used to:
  
  – **Extract** data from homogeneous or heterogeneous data sources
    
    ♦ Common data-source formats include relational databases, XML, Excel, and flat files.
  
  – **Transform** the data and store it in a common, standardized format or structure, suitable for querying and analysis.
    
    ♦ An important function of transformation is *data cleaning*. This operation may take 80% or more of the effort!
  
  – **Load** the data into the data warehouse
A Typical Data Integration Scenario
Part 1 of 2

❖ Consider Canada Safeway’s data sources:
  - Operational data from daily purchase transactions, in each store
  - Data about item placement on shelves
  - Supplier data
  - Data about employees, their compensation, etc.
  - Sales/promotion plans
  - Product categories and sub-categories; brands, types; customer demographics; time and date of sale

❖ Each of the above is essentially an autonomous OLTP database (or set of tables)
  - Local queries; no queries cutting across multiple databases
  - Data must be current at all times
  - Support for concurrency, recovery, and transaction management are a must.
A Typical Data Integration Scenario, Part 2 of 2

❖ Consider the following use-case queries:

❖ How does the sale of hamburgers for Feb. 2015 compare with that for Feb. 2014?
❖ What were the sales of ketchup like last week (when hamburgers and ketchup were placed next to each other) compared to the previous week (when they were far apart)?
❖ What was the effect of the promotion on ground beef on the sales of hamburger buns and condiments?
❖ How has the reorganization of the store(s) impacted sales?
  ❖ Be specific here to try to see cause-and-effect—especially with respect to prior periods’ sales.
❖ What was the total sales volume on all frozen food items (not just one item or a small set of items)?
Data Warehouse Integration Challenges

❖ When getting data from multiple sources, we must eliminate mismatches (e.g., different currencies, units/scales, schemas)

❖ e.g., Shell Canada (Calgary), Shell Oil (Houston), Royal Dutch Shell (Netherlands), etc. may need to deal with data mismatches throughout the multinational organization:
   – Exercise: Provide some examples of mismatches that might occur in this example. Here are a few to start:
     • Different countries have different currencies (USD, CAD, EUR, etc.), so how should we handle this?
       – What exchange rate should we use?
     • Gallons vs. litres vs. barrels
     • Different grades of crude oil
     • Add some examples of your own
e.g., Shell may need to deal with data mismatches throughout the multinational organization:

- Multiple currencies and dynamic exchange rates
- Gallons vs. litres; thousands of cubic feet (of gas) vs. cubic metres vs. British Thermal Units (BTUs)
- Different suppliers, contractors, unions, and business partner relationships
- Different legal, tax, and royalty structures
- Local, provincial, federal, and international regulations
- Different statutory holidays (when reporting holiday sales)
- Light Sweet Crude (Nigeria) vs. Western Canada Select (Alberta, heavier crude oil)
- Joint ownership of resources (partners)
- Retail promotions in its stores; different products
DW—Time Variant

- **Time-Variant:** All data in the data warehouse is associated with a particular time period.
- The time horizon for a DW is significantly longer than for operational systems.
  - Operational DB: all data is current, and subject to change
  - DW: contains *lots* of historical data that may never change, but may have utility to the business when determining trends, outliers, profitability; effect of business decisions or changes to policy; pre-compute aggregations; record monthly balances or inventory; etc.
    - DW data is tagged with date and time, explicitly or implicitly
DW—Non-volatile

- **Non-volatile:** Data is stable in a data warehouse. More data is added, but data is not removed. This enables management to gain a consistent picture of the business.

- Real-time updates of operational data typically do not occur in the DW environment, but can be done in bulk later (e.g., overnight, weekly, monthly).
  - DW does not require transaction processing, recovery, and concurrency control mechanisms.
  - DW focuses on two major operations:
    - loading of data and accessing of data
Operational DBMS vs. Data Warehouse

- **Operational DBMS**
  - Day-to-day operations: purchasing, inventory, banking, payroll, manufacturing, registration, accounting, etc.
  - Used to run a business

- **Data Warehouse**
  - Data analysis and decision making
  - Integrated data spanning long time periods, often augmented with summary information
  - Helps to “optimize” the business
Why a Separate Data Warehouse?

- High performance for both systems
  - DBMS — tuned for OLTP: access methods, indexing, concurrency control, recovery
  - Warehouse — tuned for complex queries, multidimensional views, consolidation

- Different types of queries
  - Extensive use of statistical functions which are poorly supported in DBMS
  - Running queries that involve conditions over time or aggregations over a time period, which are poorly supported in a DBMS
  - Running related queries that are generally written as a collection of independent queries in a DBMS
On-Line Analytical Processing

- Technology used to perform complex analysis of the data in a data warehouse.
  - OLAP is a category of software technology that enables analysts, managers, and executives to gain insight into data through fast, consistent, interactive access to a wide variety of possible views of information.
  - The data has been transformed from raw data to reflect the dimensionality of the enterprise as understood by the user.

- OLAP queries are, typically:
  - Full of grouping and aggregation
  - Few, but complex queries -- may run for hours
## OLTP vs. OLAP

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<td>Managers, Decision Support Staff (Few)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Data</td>
<td>Current, Operational, Frequent Updates</td>
<td>Historical, Mostly read-only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Query</td>
<td>Short, Often Predictable</td>
<td>Long, Complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># query</td>
<td>Many concurrent queries</td>
<td>Few queries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access</td>
<td>Many reads, writes and updates</td>
<td>Mostly reads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DB design</td>
<td>Application oriented</td>
<td>Subject oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schema</td>
<td>E-R model, RDBMS</td>
<td>Star or snowflake schema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Form</td>
<td>Often 3NF</td>
<td>Unnormalized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Size</td>
<td>MB to GB</td>
<td>GB to TB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection</td>
<td>Concurrency Control, Crash Recovery</td>
<td>Not really needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>Day to day operation</td>
<td>Decision support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Actionable Business Intelligence

- Business Intelligence involves analyzing data and making actionable decisions based on that information, such as:
  - Deciding what products to stock
  - Deciding what products to put on sale, or what promotions to offer
  - Deciding which product lines to focus on, or discontinue
  - If several items are frequently purchased together, or within a close period of time, consider putting one of them on special, so that even if someone wasn’t planning on buying them, the person is now tempted to do so.
    - e.g., hamburger and ketchup – usually co-purchased; put one on sale and examine effect on the other
Actionable Business Intelligence

Business Intelligence involves analyzing data and making actionable decisions based on that information, such as:

- Estimating the lift provided by a promotion, that is, comparing the total sales of related products and services during a period of time vs. the total sales normally.
  
  - e.g., Suppose Honda Civics go on sale for $3000 off in late Fall, and more people wind up buying them because of that promotion.
  
  - But, if the sales for regularly-priced Honda Accords go down during the same period, or if Christmas sales of Honda Civics go down, there may be no lift … or it may be negative.
Actionable Business Intelligence

- In essence, the goal of business intelligence is to make strategic business decisions that improve sales, profits, response times, customer satisfaction, customer relationships, etc.
Data Warehousing

- The process of constructing and using data warehouses is called data warehousing.
Business Intelligence: 3 Major Areas

1. **Data Warehousing**
   - Consolidate and integrate operational OLTP databases from many sources into one large, well-organized repository
     - e.g., acquire data from $k$ different stores or branches
     - Must handle conflicts in schemas, semantics, platforms, integrity constraints, etc.
     - May need to perform **data cleaning**
   - Load data through periodic updates
     - Synchronization and currency considerations
   - Maintain an archive of potentially useful historical data including data that is an aggregation or summary, but has been pre-processed.

   - Data Warehouses are then used to perform OLAP and Data Mining (DM).
Business Intelligence: 3 Major Areas

2. OLAP
   - Perform complex SQL queries and views, including trend analysis, drilling down for more details, and rolling up to provide more easily understood summaries.
   - Perform interactive, exploratory data analysis
   - Queries are based on spreadsheet-style operations, albeit on a “multidimensional” scale/view of data.
   - Queries are normally performed by domain (business) experts rather than database experts.

3. Data Mining
   - Exploratory search for interesting trends (patterns) and anomalies (e.g., outliers, deviations) using more sophisticated algorithms (as opposed to queries).
That is all great, but what are the challenges with data warehousing?

- **Semantic Integration**: Extract, Transform, Load challenges. We already talked about the Shell example.

- **Heterogeneous Sources**: Must access data from a variety of source formats and repositories
  - DB2, Oracle, SQL Server, Excel, Word, text-based files
  - Hundreds of COTS (commercial off-the-shelf software) packages, with export facilities.

- **Load, Refresh, and Purge Activities**: Must load data, periodically refresh it, and purge old data
  - How often?
Data Warehousing Challenges

❖ **Metadata Management:** Must keep track of source, load time, and other information for all data in the data warehouse.

❖ **Answering Queries Quickly:** Approximate answers are often OK.
  - Better to give an approximate answer quickly, than an exact answer $n$ minutes later
  - Sampling
  - Snapshot (if the data keeps changing or we want an easily accessible point-in-time result (e.g., end-of-month sales figures)
Data Warehousing Challenges (Answering Queries Quickly)

- **Pre-compute and store** (materialize) some answers
  - Use a *Data Cube* to store summarized/aggregated data to answer queries, instead of having to go through a much bigger table to find the same answer.
  - The computation is similar in spirit to relational query optimization which is studied in detail in CPSC 404.
  - Use *disk-resident* algorithms because there is simply too much data to fit into memory all at once.
  - This trend is changing: industry is moving to memory-resident OLAP.
OLAP Queries

- OLAP queries are full of groupings and aggregations.
- The natural way to think about such queries is in terms of a *multidimensional model*, which is an extension of the table model in regular relational databases.
- This model focuses on:
  - a set of numerical *measures*: quantities that are important for business analysis, like sales, etc.
  - a set of *dimensions*: entities on which the measures depend on, like location, date, etc.
Multidimensional Data Model

- The main relation, which relates dimensions to a measure via foreign keys, is called the **fact table**.
  - Recall that a FK in one table refers to a candidate key (and most of the time, the primary key) in another table.
  - The fact table has FKs to the dimension tables.
  - These mappings are essential.

- Each dimension can have additional attributes and an associated **dimension table**.
  - Attributes can be numeric, categorical, temporal, counts, sums

- Fact tables are *much* larger than dimensional tables.
  - Why?

- There can be multiple fact tables.
  - You may wish to have many measures in the same fact table.
Design Issues

- The schema that is very common in OLAP applications, is called a star schema:
  - one table for the fact, and
  - one table per dimension

- The fact table is in BCNF.
- The dimension tables are not normalized. They are small; updates/inserts/deletes are relatively less frequent. So, redundancy is less important than good query performance.
Running Example

- **Star Schema** – fact table references dimension tables
  - Join → Filter → Group → Aggregate

- **Relations**
  - Sales\(\text{storeID, itemID, custID, price}\)
  - Store\(\text{storeID, city, county, state}\)
  - Item\(\text{itemID, category, color}\)
  - Customer\(\text{custID, cname, gender, age}\)

- **Diagram**
  - Connections between tables with common attributes
Dimension Hierarchies

- For each dimension, the set of values can be organized in a hierarchy:
Running Example (cont.)

Sales(storeID, itemID, custID, price)
Store(storeID, city, county, state)
Item(itemID, category, color)
Customer(custID, cname, gender, age)
Full Star Join

- An example of how to find the full star join (or complete star join) among 4 tables (i.e., fact table + all 3 of its dimensions) in a Star Schema:
  - Join on the foreign keys

```sql
SELECT *
FROM    Sales F, Store S, Item I, Customer C
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID and
      F.itemID = I.itemID and
      F.custID = C.custID;
```

- If we join fewer than all dimensions, then we have a star join.
- In general, OLAP queries can be answered by computing some or all of the star join, then by filtering, and then by aggregating.
Full Star Join Summarized

- Find total sales by store, item, and customer.

```sql
SELECT storeID, itemID, custID, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F
GROUP BY storeID, itemID, custID;
```
OLAP Queries – Roll-up

- Roll-up allows you to summarize data by:
  - changing the level of granularity of a particular dimension
  - dimension reduction
Roll-up Example 1 (Hierarchy)

- Use Roll-up on total sales by store, item, and customer to find total sales by item and customer for each county.

```
SELECT county, itemID, custID, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F, Store S
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID
GROUP BY county, itemID, custID;
```

```
SELECT storeID, itemID, custID, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F
GROUP BY storeID, itemID, custID;
```
Roll-up Example 2 (Hierarchy)

- Use Roll-up on total sales by item, customer, and county to find total sales by item, gender and county.

SELECT county, itemID, custID, SUM(price)
FROM   Sales F, Store S
WHERE  F.storeID = S.storeID
GROUP BY county, itemID, custID;

SELECT county, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM   Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE  F.storeID = S.storeID and F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY county, itemID, gender;
Roll-up Example 3 (Dimension)

- Use Roll-up on total sales by item, gender and county to find total sales by item for each county.

```
SELECT county, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM   Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE  F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY county, itemID, gender;
```

```
SELECT county, itemID, SUM(price)
FROM   Sales F, Store S
WHERE  F.storeID = S.storeID
GROUP BY county, itemID;
```
OLAP Queries – Drill-down

- Drill-down: reverse of roll-up
  - From higher level summary to lower level summary (i.e., we want more detailed data)
  - Introducing new dimensions
Drill-down Example 1 (Hierarchy)

- Use Drill-down on total sales by item and gender for each county to find total sales by item and gender for each city.

```
SELECT county, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY county, itemID, gender;
```

```
SELECT city, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY city, itemID, gender;
```
Drill-down Example 2 (Dimension)

- Use Drill-down on total sales by item and county to find total sales by item and gender for each county.

```
SELECT county, itemID, SUM(price)
FROM    Sales F, Store S
WHERE    F.storeID = S.storeID
GROUP BY county, itemID;
```

```
SELECT county, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM    Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE    F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY county, itemID, gender;
```
OLAP Queries – Slicing

❖ The slice operation produces a slice of the cube by picking a specific value for one of the dimensions.

❖ To start our example, let’s specify:
  - Total sales by item and gender for each county

```
SELECT county, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM    Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY county, itemID, gender;
```
Slicing Example 1

- Use Slicing on total sales by item and gender for each county to find total sales by item and gender for Santa Clara.

SELECT county, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID AND S.county = 'Santa Clara'
GROUP BY county, itemID, gender;

SELECT itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID AND S.county = 'Santa Clara'
GROUP BY itemID, gender;
Slicing Example 2

- Use Slicing on total sales by item and gender for each county to find total sales by gender and county for T-shirts.

```sql
SELECT county, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM    Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE    F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY county, itemID, gender;
```

```sql
SELECT county, gender, SUM(price)
FROM    Sales F, Store S, Customer C, Item I
WHERE    F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID AND F.itemID = I.itemID AND category = 'Tshirt'
GROUP BY county, gender;
```
OLAP Queries – Dicing

❖ The dice operation produces a sub-cube by picking specific values for multiple dimensions.

❖ To start our example, let’s specify:
  - Total sales by gender, item, and city

```
SELECT city, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM    Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND
      F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY city, itemID, gender;
```
Dicing Example 1

- Use Dicing on total sales by gender, item, and city to find total sales by gender, category, and city for red items in the state of California (CA).

```
SELECT category, city, gender, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F, Store S, Customer C, Item I
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND
    F.custID = C.custID AND
    F.itemID = I.itemID AND
    color = 'red' AND state = 'CA'
GROUP BY category, city, gender;
```

```
SELECT city, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND
    F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY city, itemID, gender;
```

SELECT city, itemID, gender, SUM(price)
FROM Sales F, Store S, Customer C
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND
    F.custID = C.custID
GROUP BY city, itemID, gender;
Clicker Question

- Consider a fact table Sales(saleID, itemID, color, size, qty, unitPrice), and the following three queries:

  - Q1: SELECT itemID, color, size, Sum(qty*unitPrice) FROM Sales GROUP BY itemID, color, size
  - Q2: SELECT itemID, size, Sum(qty*unitPrice) FROM Sales GROUP BY itemID, size
  - Q3: SELECT itemID, size, Sum(qty*unitPrice) FROM Sales WHERE size < 10 GROUP BY itemID, size

- Which of the following statements is correct?
  A: Going from Q2 to Q3 is an example of roll-up.
  B: Going from Q2 to Q1 is an example of drill-down.
  C: Going from Q3 to Q2 is an example of roll-up.
  D: Going from Q1 to Q2 is an example of drill-down.
Clicker Question

- Consider a fact table Sales(saleID, itemID, color, size, qty, unitPrice), and the following three queries:
  - Q1: SELECT itemID, color, size, Sum(qty*unitPrice) FROM Sales GROUP BY itemID, color, size
  - Q2: SELECT itemID, size, Sum(qty*unitPrice) FROM Sales GROUP BY itemID, size
  - Q3: SELECT itemID, size, Sum(qty*unitPrice) FROM Sales WHERE size < 10 GROUP BY itemID, size

- Which of the following statements is correct?
  A: Going from Q2 to Q3 is an example of roll-up.
  B: Going from Q2 to Q1 is an example of drill-down.
  C: Going from Q3 to Q2 is an example of roll-up.
  D: Going from Q1 to Q2 is an example of drill-down.
OLAP Queries – Pivoting

- Pivoting is a visualization operation that allows an analyst to rotate the cube in space in order to provide an alternative presentation of the data.
Pivoting Example 1

- From total sales by store and customer pivot to find total sales by item and store.

```
SELECT storeID, custID, sum(price)
FROM Sales
GROUP BY storeID, custID;
```

```
SELECT storeID, itemID, sum(price)
FROM Sales
GROUP BY storeID, itemID;
```

Pivot Diagram:

```
SELECT storeID, custID, sum(price)
FROM Sales
GROUP BY storeID, custID;
```

```
SELECT storeID, itemID, sum(price)
FROM Sales
GROUP BY storeID, itemID;
```
Aggregating over Multiple Fact Tables

- **Customers**
  - Cust1
  - Cust2
  - Cust3

- **Stores**
  - Store1
  - Store2
  - Store3
  - Store4
  - Store5

- **Items**
  - Item1
  - Item2
  - Item3
  - Item4

**SQL Queries**

1. ```
   SELECT itemID, sum(price)
   FROM Sales
   GROUP BY itemID;
   ```

2. ```
   SELECT custID, sum(price)
   FROM Sales
   GROUP BY custID;
   ```

3. ```
   SELECT storeID, sum(price)
   FROM Sales
   GROUP BY storeID;
   ```

4. ```
   SELECT sum(price)
   FROM Sales
   ```
Data Cube

- A data cube is a $k$-dimensional object containing both fact data and dimensions.

- A cube contains pre-calculated, aggregated, summary information to yield fast queries.
Data Cube (cont.)

❖ The small, individual blocks in the multidimensional cube are called *cells*, and each cell is uniquely identified by the *members* from each dimension.

❖ The cells contain a *measure group*, which consists of one or more numeric *measures*. These are facts (or aggregated facts). An example of a measure is the dollar value in sales for a particular product.
The CUBE Operator

- Roll-up, Drill-down, Slicing, Dicing, and Pivoting operations are expensive.

- SQL:1999 extended GROUP BY to support CUBE (and ROLLUP)

- GROUP BY CUBE provides efficient computation of multiple granularity aggregates by sharing work (e.g., passes over fact table, previously computed aggregates)
Clicker Question

- If we have 2 stores, 5 items, and 10 customers, how many potential "entries" are there in the data cube? (The cube diagram is just an arbitrary example.)

- A: 17
- B: 100
- C: 117
- D: 198
- E: none of the above
Clicker Question

- If we have 2 stores, 5 items, and 10 customers, how many potential "entries" are there in the data cube? (The cube diagram is just an arbitrary example.)

- A: 17
- B: 100
- C: 117
- D: 198
- E: none of the above

One way: \(2 \times 5 \times 10 + 2 \times 5 + 2 \times 10 + 5 \times 10 + 2 + 5 + 10 + 1\)

Another way: \((2+1) \times (5+1) \times (10+1) = 3 \times 6 \times 11\)
Clicker Question

- How many standard SQL queries are required for computing all of the cells of the cube?

- A: 2
- B: 4
- C: 6
- D: 8
- E: 10
Clicker Question

❖ How many standard SQL queries are required for computing all of the cells of the cube?

A $k$-D cube can be represented as a series of $(k-1)$-D cubes.
- The cube is *exponential* in the number of cells.
The CUBE Operator (cont.)

- Generalizing the previous example, if there are \( k \) dimensions, we have \( 2^k \) possible SQL GROUP BY queries that can be generated through pivoting on a subset of dimensions. A CUBE BY operator generates that.
  - It’s equivalent to rolling up Sales on all eight subsets of the set \{storeID, itemID, custID \}.
  - Each roll-up corresponds to an SQL query of the form:

\[
\text{SELECT SUM (price) FROM Sales S GROUP BY grouping-list}
\]

Lots of research on optimizing the CUBE operator!
Representing a Cube in a Two-Dimensional Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>storeID</th>
<th>itemID</th>
<th>custID</th>
<th>Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>store1</td>
<td>item1</td>
<td>cust1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>store1</td>
<td>item1</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>store1</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>cust1</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>store1</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Null</td>
<td>item1</td>
<td>cust1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Null</td>
<td>item1</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Null</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>cust1</td>
<td>670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Null</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>3350</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Add to the original cube: faces, edges, and corners ... which are represented in the 2-D table using NULLs.
WITH CUBE

Select dimension-attrs, aggregates
From tables
Where conditions
Group By dimension-attrs With Cube

Not implemented in MySQL

SELECT storeID, itemID, custID, sum(price)
FROM Sales
GROUP BY storeID, itemID, custID
WITH CUBE
WITH ROLLUP

Select dimension-attrs, aggregates
From tables
Where conditions
Group By dimension-attrs With Rollup

- Can be used in dimensions that are organized in a hierarchy:

```
SELECT state, county, city, sum(price)
FROM Sales F, Store S
WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID
GROUP BY state, county, city WITH ROLLUP
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>County</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Santa Clara</td>
<td>Palo Alto</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Santa Clara</td>
<td>Mountain View</td>
<td>805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Santa Clara</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>1130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Null</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>3350</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
WITH CUBE Example Implemented WITH ROLLUP

❖ Implement the WITH CUBE operator using the WITH ROLLUP operator

SELECT storeID, itemID, custID, sum(price) FROM Sales
GROUP BY storeID, itemID, custID with rollup
UNION

SELECT storeID, itemID, custID, sum(price) FROM Sales
GROUP BY itemID, custID, storeID with rollup
UNION

SELECT storeID, itemID, custID, sum(price) FROM Sales
GROUP BY custID, storeID, itemID with rollup;
Consider a fact table \( \text{Facts}(D_1, D_2, D_3, x) \), and the following three queries:

Q1: Select \( D_1, D_2, D_3, \text{Sum}(x) \) From \( \text{Facts} \) Group By \( D_1, D_2, D_3 \)

Q2: Select \( D_1, D_2, D_3, \text{Sum}(x) \) From \( \text{Facts} \) Group By \( D_1, D_2, D_3 \) with cube

Q3: Select \( D_1, D_2, D_3, \text{Sum}(x) \) From \( \text{Facts} \) Group By \( D_1, D_2, D_3 \) with rollup

Suppose attributes \( D_1, D_2, \) and \( D_3 \) have \( n_1, n_2, \) and \( n_3 \) different values respectively, and assume that each possible combination of values appears at least once in table \( \text{Facts} \). Pick the one tuple \((a, b, c, d, e, f)\) in the list below such that when \( n_1 = a, n_2 = b, \) and \( n_3 = c \), then the result sizes of queries Q1, Q2, and Q3 are \( d, e, \) and \( f \) respectively.

- A: \((2, 2, 2, 8, 64, 15)\)
- B: \((5, 4, 3, 60, 64, 80)\)
- C: \((5, 10, 10, 500, 726, 556)\)
- D: \((4, 7, 3, 84, 160, 84)\)

Hint: It may be helpful to first write formulas describing how \( d, e, \) and \( f \) depend on \( a, b, \) and \( c \).
Clicker Question

Consider a fact table Facts(D1,D2,D3,x), and the following three queries:

Q1: Select D1,D2,D3,Sum(x) From Facts Group By D1,D2,D3
Q2: Select D1,D2,D3,Sum(x) From Facts Group By D1,D2,D3 with cube
Q3: Select D1,D2,D3,Sum(x) From Facts Group By D1,D2,D3 with rollup

d = a*b*c

e = a*b*c + a*b + a*c + b*c + a + b + c + 1

Suppose attributes D1, D2, and D3 have n1, n2, and n3 different values respectively, and assume that each possible combination of values appears at least once in table Facts. Pick the one tuple (a,b,c,d,e,f) in the list below such that when n1=a, n2=b, and n3=c, then the result sizes of queries Q1, Q2, and Q3 are d, e, and f respectively.

A: (2, 2, 2, 8, 64, 15)
B: (5, 4, 3, 60, 64, 80)
C: (5, 10, 10, 500, 726, 556)
D: (4, 7, 3, 84, 160, 84)

d = a*b*c
e = a*b*c + a*b + a*c + b*c + a + b + c + 1
e = (a+1)*(b+1)*(c+1)

f = a*b*c + a*b + a + 1
“Date” or “Time” Dimension

❖ Date or Time is a special kind of dimension.

❖ It has some special and useful OLAP functions.
  ♦ e.g., durations or time spans, fiscal years, calendar years, and holidays
  ♦ Business intelligence reports often deal with time-related queries such as comparing the profits from this quarter to the previous quarter … or to the same quarter in the previous year.
The schema that is very common in OLAP applications is called a star schema:
- One table for the fact table
- One table per dimension

The fact table is in BCNF.
The dimension tables are not normalized.
The alternative organization is a **snowflake schema**:

- each dimension is normalized into a set of tables
- usually, one table per *level* of hierarchy, per dimension

Example: TIMES table would be split into:

- TIMES(timeid, date)
- DWEEK(date, week)
- DMONTH(date, month)

**Snowflake schema features:**

- Query formulation is inherently more complex (possibly many joins per dimension).

Neither schema is fully satisfactory for OLAP applications.

The star schema is more popular, and is gaining interest.
Snowflake Schema example

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Snowflake_schema
# Star vs. Snowflake

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Star</th>
<th>Snowflake</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ease of maintenance</strong></td>
<td>Has redundant data and hence is less easy to maintain/change</td>
<td>No redundancy, schemas are easier to maintain and change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ease of Use</strong></td>
<td>Lower complex query writing; easier to understand</td>
<td>More complex queries and hence less easy to understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Query Performance</strong></td>
<td>Fewer foreign keys and hence shorter query execution time (faster)</td>
<td>More foreign keys and hence longer query execution time (slower)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Joins</strong></td>
<td>Fewer Joins</td>
<td>More Joins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dimension table</strong></td>
<td>A single dimension table for each dimension</td>
<td>May have more than one dimension table for each dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>When to use</strong></td>
<td>Star schema is the default choice</td>
<td>When dimension table is relatively big in size, or we expect a lot of updates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Normalization</strong></td>
<td>Dimension Tables are not Normalized</td>
<td>Dimension Tables are Normalized</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measures in Fact Tables

- **Additive** facts are measurements in a fact table that can be added across all the dimensions. e.g., Price

- **Semi-additive** facts are numeric facts that can be added along some dimensions in a fact table but not others.
  - balance amounts are common semi-additive facts because they are additive across all dimensions except time.

- **Non-additive** facts cannot logically be added between rows.
  - Ratios and percentages
  - A good approach for non-additive facts is to store the fully additive components and later compute the final non-additive fact.
Factless Fact Tables

- **Factless fact table**: A fact table that has no facts but captures certain many-to-many relationships between the dimension keys. It’s most often used to represent events or to provide coverage information that does not appear in other fact tables.
Factless Fact Table Example

Term Year Dimension
- Term Key (PK)
- Term Description
- Academic Year
- Term/Season

Course Dimension
- Course Key (PK)
- Course Name
- Course School
- Course Format
- Course Credit Hours

Faculty Dimension
- Faculty Key (PK)
- Faculty Employee ID (Natural Key)
- Faculty Name
- Faculty Address Attributes...
- Faculty Type
- Faculty Tenure Indicator
- Faculty Original Hire Date
- Faculty Years of Service
- Faculty School

Student Registration Event Fact
- Term Key (FK)
- Student Key (FK)
- Declared Major Key (FK)
- Credit Attainment Key (FK)
- Course Key (FK)
- Faculty (FK)
- Registration Count (always = 1)

Student Dimension
- Student Key (PK)
- Student ID (Natural Key)
- Student Attributes...

Declared Major Dimension
- Declared Major Key (PK)
- Declared Major Description
- Declared Major School
- Interdisciplinary Indicator

Credit Attainment Dimension
- Credit Attainment Key (PK)
- Class Level Description

Source: The Data Warehouse Toolkit textbook
Multidimensional Data Model

- Multidimensional data can be stored in one of 3 ways (modes):
  - **ROLAP** (relational online analytical processing)
    - We access the data in a relational database and generate SQL queries to calculate information at the appropriate level when an end user requests it.
  - **MOLAP** (multidimensional online analytical processing)
    - Requires the pre-computation and storage of information in the cube — the operation known as processing. Most MOLAP solutions store such data in an optimized multidimensional array storage, rather than in a relational database.
# MOLAP vs. ROLAP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MOLAP</th>
<th>ROLAP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Data Compression</strong></td>
<td>Can require up to 50% less disk space. A special technique is used</td>
<td>Requires more disk space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for storing sparse cubes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Query Performance</strong></td>
<td>Fast query performance due to optimized storage, multidimensional</td>
<td>Not suitable when the model is heavy on calculations; this doesn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>indexing and caching</td>
<td>translate well into SQL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Data latency</strong></td>
<td>Data loading can be quite lengthy for large data volumes. This is</td>
<td>As data always gets fetched from a relational source, data latency is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>usually remedied by doing only incremental processing.</td>
<td>small or none.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Handling non-aggregatable facts</strong></td>
<td>Tends to suffer from slow performance when dealing with textual</td>
<td>Better at handling textual descriptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>descriptions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Which Storage Mode is Recommended?

❖ Almost always, choose MOLAP.
❖ Choose ROLAP if one or more of these are true:
  - There is a very large number of members in a dimension —typically hundreds of millions of members.
  - The dimension data is frequently changing.
  - You need real-time access to current data (as opposed to historical data).
  - You don’t want to duplicate data.
    ◆ Reference: [Harinath, et al., 2009]

❖ HOLAP (hybrid online analytical processing) is a combination of ROLAP and MOLAP, which allows storing part of the data in a MOLAP store and another part of the data in a ROLAP store, allowing us to exploit the advantages of each.
Finding Answers Quickly

- Large datasets and complex queries mean that we’ll need improved querying capabilities
  - Materializing views
  - Finding Top N Queries
  - Using Online aggregation
Queries over Views

How does using a view work?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>View</th>
<th>Query</th>
<th>Modified Query</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create view <strong>TshirtSales</strong> AS</td>
<td>SELECT category, county, gender, SUM(price)</td>
<td>SELECT category, county, gender, SUM(price)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECT category, county, gender, price</td>
<td>From <strong>TshirtSales</strong></td>
<td>FROM ( SELECT category, county, gender, SUM(price)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FROM Sales F, Store S, Customer C, Item I</td>
<td>GROUP BY category, county, gender;</td>
<td>FROM ( SELECT category, county, gender, price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID=</td>
<td></td>
<td>WHERE F.storeID = S.storeID AND F.custID = C.custID AND F.itemID = I.itemId</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.itemID = I.itemId AND category = 'Tshirt'</td>
<td></td>
<td>AND category = 'Tshirt') AS <strong>R</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>GROUP BY category, county, gender;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Materializing Views

- We can answer a query on a view by using the query modification technique.
  - Decision support activities require queries against complex view definitions to be computed quickly.
  - Sophisticated optimization and evaluation techniques are not enough since OLAP queries are typically aggregate queries that require joining huge tables.

- Pre-computation is essential for interactive response times.
- A view whose tuples are stored in the database is said to be materialized.
Issues in View Materialization (1)

❖ Which views should we materialize?
❖ Based on size estimates for the views, suppose we figure out there is space for $k$ views to be materialized. Which ones should we materialize?
  - The goal is to selectively and strategically materialize a small set of carefully chosen views to answer most of the queries quickly.

❖ **Fact:** Selecting $k$ views to materialize such that the average time taken to evaluate all views of a lattice is minimized is a NP-hard problem.
Maximum Coverage Problem Example

- Given 9 ground facts/elements, 6 subsets, and a value for $k$, find the $k$ subsets (e.g., $k = 3$) that between them cover as many ground elements as possible.

- Maximum Coverage problem has a structure similar to finding the top $k$ views. We can find approximately optimal solutions quickly for both.

Difference between a NP-hard problem and a problem that you solve efficiently (polynomial time) is like the difference between solving a Sudoku puzzle vs. checking whether a given solution is valid.
HRU Algorithm

- The number associated with each node represents the number of rows in that view (in millions).
- Initial state has only the top most view materialized

- HRU [Harinarayan, Rajaraman, and Ullman, 1996]—SIGMOD Best Paper award—is a greedy algorithm that does not guarantee an optimal solution, though it usually produces a good solution. This solution is a good trade-off in terms of the space used and the average time to answer an OLAP query.
Benefit of Materializing a View

❖ The number associated with each node represents the number of rows in that view (in millions)

❖ Initial state has only the top most view materialized

❖ Define the benefit (savings) of view v relative to S as $B(v, S)$.

$B(v, S) = 0$

For each $w \leq v$

$u =$ view of least cost in S such that $w \leq u$

if $C(v) < C(u)$ then $B_w = C(v) - C(u)$

else $B_w = 0$

$B(v, S) = B(v, S) + B_w$

end

S = set of views selected for materialization

$b \leq a$ means b is a descendant of a (including itself)

$C(v) =$ cost of view v, which we’re approximating by its size
The number associated with each node represents the number of rows in that view (in millions)

Initial state has only the top most view materialized

Define the benefit (savings) of view $v$ relative to $S$ as $B(v, S)$.

- $B(v, S) = 0$
- For each $w \leq v$
  - $u =$ view of least cost in $S$ such that $w \leq u$
  - if $C(v) < C(u)$ then $B_w = C(v) - C(u)$
  - else $B_w = 0$
- $B(v, S) = B(v, S) + B_w$

Example

$S = \{S, T, C\}$, $v = \{S, T\}$

- $B_{\{S, T\}} = 5.2$ M
- $B_{\{S\}} = 5.2$ M
- $B_{\{T\}} = 5.2$ M
- $B_{\{\}} = 5.2$ M
- $B(v, S) = 5.2M \times 4$
Finding the Best $k$ Views to Materialize

- The number associated with each node represents the number of rows in that view (in millions).
- Initial state has only the top view materialized.

A greedy algorithm for finding the best $k$ views to materialize:

1. Initialize $S = \{\text{top view}\}$.
2. For $i = 1$ to $k$ do begin
   1. Select $v \notin S$ such that $B(v, S)$ is maximized.
   2. $S = S \cup \{v\}$.
end

Example:

- $S = \{S, T, C\}$ 6M
- $\{S, T\} 0.8$ M
- $\{S, C\}$ 6M
- $\{T, C\}$ 6M
- $\{S\}$ 0.01M
- $\{T\}$ 0.2M
- $\{C\}$ 0.1M
- $\{\}$ 1
HRU Algorithm Example

- For \( k=2 \), other than \( \{S, T, C\} \), \( \{S, T\} \) and \( \{C\} \) will be materialized.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>View</th>
<th>1(^{st}) choice</th>
<th>2(^{nd}) choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( {S, T} )</td>
<td>((6-0.8)M \times 4 = 20.8M)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {S, C} )</td>
<td>((6-6) \times 4 = 0)</td>
<td>((6-6) \times 2 = 0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {T, C} )</td>
<td>((6-6) \times 4 = 0)</td>
<td>((6-6) \times 2 = 0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {S} )</td>
<td>((6-0.01) \times 2 = 11.98M)</td>
<td>((0.8-0.01) \times 2 = 1.58M)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {T} )</td>
<td>((6-0.2) \times 2 = 11.6M)</td>
<td>((0.8-0.2) \times 2 = 1.2M)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {C} )</td>
<td>((6-0.1) \times 2 = 11.8M)</td>
<td>((6-0.1)M + (0.8-0.1)M = 6.6M)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{}</td>
<td>(6M - 1)</td>
<td>(0.8M - 1)</td>
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In-class Exercise

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Using the Materialized Views

Once we have chosen a set of views, we need to consider how they can be used to answer queries on other views.

What is the best way to answer queries on view ‘h’?
Assume that we have two dimensions, each with a hierarchy:

Store dimension:
- 0 storeID
- 1 city
- 2 state

Calendar dimension:
- 0 dateID
- 1 month
- 2 year

The Exponential Explosion of Views
Issues in View Materialization (2)

- What indexes should we build on the materialized views?
  - No index is good for all queries.

- Consider the ItemCustSales view, which involves a join of Item, Customer, and Sales. Let’s assume that we use (category, gender, price) as our index.

  ```sql
  SELECT  gender, sum(price)
  FROM  Sales F, Customer C, Item I
  WHERE  F.custID = C.custID AND
         F.itemID = I.itemID AND
         category = 'T-shirt'
  GROUP BY gender
  
  SELECT  category, sum(price)
  FROM  Sales F, Customer C, Item I
  WHERE  F.custID = C.custID AND
         F.itemID = I.itemID AND
         gender = 'M'
  GROUP BY category
  
  Index on pre-computed view is a good idea
  Index is less useful (must scan entire index)
Issues in View Materialization (3)

- How do we maintain views incrementally *without* re-computing them from scratch?
  - Two steps:
    - Identify the changes to the view when the data changes.
    - Apply only those changes to the materialized view.
  - There may be challenges in refreshing, especially if the base tables are distributed across multiple locations.
Issues in View Materialization (4)

❖ How should we refresh and maintain a materialized view when an underlying table is modified?

❖ Maintenance policy: Controls when we refresh
  ▪ **Immediate**: As part of the transaction that modifies the underlying data tables
    - Materialized view is always consistent
    - Updates are slow
  ▪ **Deferred**: Some time later, in a separate transaction
    - View is inconsistent for a while
    - Can scale to maintain many views without slowing updates
Deferred Maintenance

❖ Three flavors:

- **Lazy**: Delay refresh until next query on view; then refresh before answering the query.
  - This approach slows down queries rather than updates, in contrast to immediate maintenance.

- **Periodic (Snapshot)**: Refresh periodically. Queries possibly answered using outdated version of view tuples. Also widely used in asynchronous replication in distributed databases

- **Event-based (Forced)**: e.g., Refresh after a fixed number of updates to underlying data tables
Top N Queries

- For complex queries, users like to get an approximate answer quickly and keep refining their query.

- Top N Queries: If you want to find the 10 (or so) cheapest items, it would be nice if the DBMS could avoid computing the costs of all items before sorting to determine the 10 cheapest.
  - Idea: Guess a cost $c$ such that the 10 cheapest items all cost less than $c$, and that not too many more cost less; then, add the selection “$\text{cost} < c$” and evaluate the query.
    - If the guess is right, great; we avoid computation for items that cost more than $c$.
    - If the guess is wrong, then we need to reset the selection and re-compute the query.
Top N Queries

- Some DBMSs (e.g., DB2) offer special features for this.

```sql
SELECT P.pid, P.pname, S.sales
FROM Sales S, Products P
WHERE S.pid=P.pid AND S.locid=1 AND S.timeid=3
ORDER BY S.sales DESC
OPTIMIZE FOR 10 ROWS;
```

```sql
SELECT P.pid, P.pname, S.sales
FROM Sales S, Products P
WHERE S.pid=P.pid AND S.locid=1 AND S.timeid=3
   AND S.sales > c
ORDER BY S.sales DESC;
```

- “OPTIMIZE FOR” construct is not in SQL:1999, but supported in DB2 or Oracle 9i
- Cut-off value c is chosen by the optimizer
Online Aggregation

- Online Aggregation: Consider an aggregate query. We can provide the user with some information before the exact average is computed.
  - e.g., Can show the current “running average” as the computation proceeds:
Multidimensional Expressions (MDX)

- Multidimensional Expressions (MDX) is a query language for OLAP databases, much like SQL is a query language for relational databases.

- Like SQL, MDX has SELECT, FROM, and WHERE clauses (and others).

- Sample MDX syntax:

  ```
  SELECT <content> ON COLUMNS,
            <content> ON ROWS,
            <content> ON PAGES
  FROM    <name_of_cube>
  WHERE
  ```

- You will be running MDX queries in the tutorial.
Multidimensional Expressions (MDX)

- SQL returns query results in the form of a 2-dimensional table; therefore, the SELECT clause defines the column layout.
- MDX, however, returns query results in the form of a \( k \)-dimensional sub-cube. The SELECT clause defines the \( k \) axes.
  - The 3 default axes are named as follows:
    - Axis 0 = “columns” (or just write “axis(0)”)  
    - Axis 1 = “rows”  
    - Axis 2 = “pages”  
  - The ON keyword specifies the axes.
    - e.g., SELECT ( … ) ON COLUMNS
Multidimensional Expressions (MDX)

- The queries can be simple or complex.

- MDX allows you to restrict analysis/calculations to a particular sub-cube of the overall data cube. This is useful for slice and dice operations.
  - e.g., You may wish to focus only the set of T-shirts that were sold to Males.

- MDX queries can be optimized, similar in spirit to the way SQL queries are optimized; but, the process is more complex.
Learning Goals Revisited

- Compare and contrast OLAP and OLTP processing (e.g., focus, clients, amount of data, abstraction levels, concurrency, and accuracy).

- Explain the ETL tasks (i.e., extract, transform, load) for data warehouses.

- Explain the differences between a star schema design and a snowflake design for a data warehouse, including potential tradeoffs in performance.

- Argue for the value of a data cube in terms of: the type of data in the cube (numeric, categorical, counts, sums) and the goals of OLAP (e.g., summarization, abstractions).

- Estimate the complexity of a data cube in terms of the number of views that a given fact table and set of dimensions could generate, and provide some ways of managing this complexity.
Learning Goals Revisited (cont.)

- Given a multidimensional cube, write regular SQL queries that perform roll-up, drill-down, slicing, dicing, and pivoting operations on the cube.
- Use the SQL:1999 standards for aggregation (e.g., GROUP BY CUBE) to efficiently generate the results for multiple views.
- Explain why having materialized views is important for a data warehouse.
- Determine which set of views are most beneficial to materialize.
- Given an OLAP query and a set of materialized views, determine which views could be used to answer the query more efficiently than the fact table (base view).
- Define and contrast the various methods and policies for materialized view maintenance.