Chapter 8: Relational Database Design

- ***** Features of Good Relational Design
- **Atomic Domains and First Normal Form**
- **Decomposition Using Functional Dependencies**
- ***** Functional Dependency Theory
- **Algorithms for Functional Dependencies**
- **Decomposition Using Multivalued Dependencies**
- ***** More Normal Form
- **Database-Design Process**
- **Modeling Temporal Data**

Combine Schemas?

- Suppose we combine instructor and department into inst_dept
 - (No connection to relationship set inst_dept)
- Result is possible repetition of information

ID	пате	salary	dept_name	building	budget
22222	Einstein	95000	Physics	Watson	70000
12121	Wu	90000	Finance	Painter	120000
32343	El Said	60000	History	Painter	50000
45565	Katz	75000	Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
98345	Kim	80000	Elec. Eng.	Taylor	85000
76766	Crick	72000	Biology	Watson	90000
10101	Srinivasan	65000	Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
58583	Califieri	62000	History	Painter	50000
83821	Brandt	92000	Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
15151	Mozart	40000	Music	Packard	80000
33456	Gold	87000	Physics	Watson	70000
76543	Singh	80000	Finance	Painter	120000

A Combined Schema Without Repetition

- Consider combining relations
 - sec_class(sec_id, building, room_number) and
 - section(course_id, sec_id, semester, year)

into one relation

- section(course_id, sec_id, semester, year, building, room_number)
- **❖** No repetition in this case

What About Smaller Schemas?

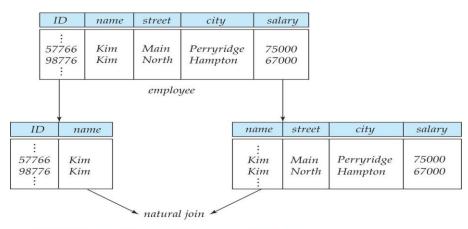
- Suppose we had started with *inst_dept*. How would we know to split up (decompose) it into *instructor* and *department*?
- Write a rule "if there were a schema (dept_name, building, budget), then dept_name would be a candidate key"
- Denote as a functional dependency:
 - $dept name \rightarrow building, budget$
- **❖** In *inst_dept*, because *dept_name* is not a candidate key, the building and budget of a department may have to be repeated.
 - This indicates the need to decompose *inst_dept*
- Not all decompositions are good. Suppose we decompose employee(ID, name, street, city, salary) into

employee1 (ID, name)

employee2 (name, street, city, salary)

❖ The next slide shows how we lose information -- we cannot reconstruct the original *employee* relation -- and so, this is a lossy decomposition.

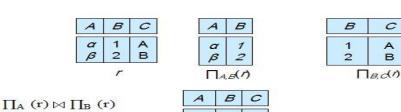
A Lossy Decomposition



ID	name	street	city	salary
57766	Kim	Main	Perryridge	75000
57766	Kim	North	Hampton	67000
98776	Kim	Main	Perryridge	75000
98776	Kim	North	Hampton	67000

Example of Lossless-Join Decomposition

- Lossless join decomposition
- Decomposition of R = (A, B, C) $R_1 = (A, B)$ $R_2 = (B, C)$



First Normal Form

- **Domain** is atomic if its elements are considered to be indivisible units
 - Examples of non-atomic domains:
 - ✓ Set of names, composite attributes
 - ✓ Identification numbers like CS101 that can be broken up into parts
- **❖** A relational schema R is in first normal form if the domains of all attributes of R are atomic
- Non-atomic values complicate storage and encourage redundant (repeated) storage of data
 - Example: Set of accounts stored with each customer, and set of owners stored with each account
 - We assume all relations are in first normal form (and revisit this in Chapter 22: Object Based Databases)

First Normal Form (Cont'd)

- **❖** Atomicity is actually a property of how the elements of the domain are used.
 - Example: Strings would normally be considered indivisible
 - Suppose that students are given roll numbers which are strings of the form CS0012 or EE1127
 - If the first two characters are extracted to find the department, the domain of roll numbers is not atomic.
 - Doing so is a bad idea: leads to encoding of information in application program rather than in the database.

Goal — Devise a Theory for the Following

- \diamond Decide whether a particular relation R is in "good" form.
- In the case that a relation R is not in "good" form, decompose it into a set of relations $\{R_1, R_2, ..., R_n\}$ such that
 - each relation is in good form
 - the decomposition is a lossless-join decomposition
- **Our theory is based on:**
 - functional dependencies
 - multivalued dependencies

Functional Dependencies

- Constraints on the set of legal relations.
- * Require that the value for a certain set of attributes determines uniquely the value for another set of attributes.
- **A** functional dependency is a generalization of the notion of a *key*.

Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

Let R be a relation schema

$$\alpha \subseteq R$$
 and $\beta \subseteq R$

The functional dependency

 $\alpha \to \beta$ holds on R if and only if for any legal relations r(R), whenever any two tuples t_1 and t_2 of r agree on the attributes α , they also agree on the attributes β . That is,

$$t_1[\alpha] = t_2[\alpha] \Rightarrow t_1[\beta] = t_2[\beta]$$

❖ Example: Consider r(A,B) with the following instance of r.

• On this instance, $A \rightarrow B$ does **NOT** hold, but $B \rightarrow A$ does hold.

Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- K is a superkey for relation schema R if and only if K→ R
- Kis a candidate key for R if and only if
 - $K \rightarrow R$, and
 - for no $\alpha \subset K$, $\alpha \to R$
- Functional dependencies allow us to express constraints that cannot be expressed using superkeys. Consider the schema:

inst_dept (ID, name, salary, dept_name, building, budget).

We expect these functional dependencies to hold:

and ID → building

but would not expect the following to hold:

Use of Functional Dependencies

- **We use functional dependencies to:**
 - test relations to see if they are legal under a given set of functional dependencies.
 - ✓ If a relation r is legal under a set F of functional dependencies, we say that r satisfies F.
 - specify constraints on the set of legal relations
 - ✓ We say that F holds on R if all legal relations on R satisfy the set of functional dependencies F.
- Note: A specific instance of a relation schema may satisfy a functional dependency even if the functional dependency does not hold on all legal instances.
 - For example, a specific instance of *instructor* may, by chance, satisfy

 $name \rightarrow ID$.

Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- ❖ A functional dependency is trivial if it is satisfied by all instances of a relation
 - Example:

✓ ID, $name \rightarrow ID$

 \checkmark name \rightarrow name

• In general, $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial if $\beta \subseteq \alpha$

Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

- \diamond Given a set F of functional dependencies, there are certain other functional dependencies that are logically implied by F.
 - For example: If $A \to B$ and $B \to C$, then we can infer that $A \to C$
- \diamond The set of all functional dependencies logically implied by F is the closure of F.
- We denote the *closure* of F by \mathbf{F}^{+} .
- \bullet **F** is a superset of *F*.

Boyce-Codd Normal Form

A relation schema R is in BCNF with respect to a set F of functional dependencies if for all functional dependencies in F of the form $\alpha \to \beta$

where $\alpha \subseteq R$ and $\beta \subseteq R$, at least one of the following holds:

- $\bullet \quad \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial (i.e., $\beta \subseteq \alpha$)
- $\diamond \alpha$ is a superkey for R

Example schema *not* in BCNF:

instr_dept (<u>ID</u>, name, salary, dept_name, building, budget)
because dept_name→ building, budget
holds on instr_dept, but dept_name is not a superkey

Decomposing a Schema into BCNF

Suppose we have a schema R and a non-trivial dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ causes a violation of BCNF.

We decompose R into:

- (α U β)
- $(R (\beta \alpha))$
- In our example,
 - $\alpha = \overline{dept}$ name
 - $\beta = building, budget$

and *inst_dept* is replaced by

- $(\alpha \hat{\mathbf{U}} \beta) = (dept \ name, building, budget)$
- $(R (\beta \alpha)) = (ID, name, salary, dept_name)$

BCNF and **Dependency Preservation**

- Constraints, including functional dependencies, are costly to check in practice unless they pertain to only one relation
- **❖** If it is sufficient to test only those dependencies on each individual relation of a decomposition in order to ensure that *all* functional dependencies hold, then that decomposition is *dependency preserving*.
- ***** Because it is not always possible to achieve both BCNF and dependency preservation, we consider a weaker normal form, known as *third normal form*.

Third Normal Form

 \diamond A relation schema R is in third normal form (3NF) if for all:

$$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$$
 in F^+

at least one of the following holds:

- $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial (i.e., $\beta \in \alpha$)
- α is a superkey for R
- Each attribute A in $\beta \alpha$ is contained in a candidate key for R.

(NOTE: each attribute may be in a different candidate key)

- **❖** If a relation is in BCNF it is in 3NF (since in BCNF one of the first two conditions above must hold).
- Third condition is a minimal relaxation of BCNF to ensure dependency preservation (will see why later).

Goals of Normalization

- \diamond Let R be a relation scheme with a set F of functional dependencies.
- \diamond Decide whether a relation scheme R is in "good" form.
- * In the case that a relation scheme R is not in "good" form, decompose it into a set of relation scheme $\{R_1, R_2, ..., R_n\}$ such that
 - each relation scheme is in good form
 - the decomposition is a lossless-join decomposition
 - Preferably, the decomposition should be dependency preserving.

How good is BCNF?

- There are database schemas in BCNF that do not seem to be sufficiently normalized
- Consider a relation

inst_info (ID, child_name, phone)

 where an instructor may have more than one phone and can have multiple children

ID	child_name	phone
99999 99999 99999	David David William Willian	512-555-1234 512-555-4321 512-555-1234 512-555-4321

inst_info

Howgood is BCNF? (Cont.)

- **❖** There are no non-trivial functional dependencies and therefore the relation is in BCNF
- **❖** Insertion anomalies i.e., if we add a phone 981-992-3443 to 99999, we need to add two tuples

(99999, David, 981-992-3443) (99999, William, 981-992-3443)

How good is BCNF? (Cont.)

Therefore, it is better to decompose inst info into:

inst_c	hild
--------	------

ID	child_name	
99999	David	
99999	David	
99999	William	
99999	Willian	

inst phone

ID	phone	
99999	512-555-1234	
99999	512-555-4321	
99999	512-555-1234	
	512-555-4321	
99999		

This suggests the need for higher normal forms, such as Fourth Normal Form (4NF), which we shall see later.

Functional-Dependency Theory

- We now consider the formal theory that tells us which functional dependencies are implied logically by a given set of functional dependencies.
- We then develop algorithms to generate lossless decompositions into BCNF and 3NF
- We then develop algorithms to test if a decomposition is dependencypreserving

Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

- \bullet Given a set F set of functional dependencies, there are certain other functional dependencies that are logically implied by F.
 - For e.g.: If $A \to B$ and $B \to C$, then we can infer that $A \to C$
- **❖** The set of all functional dependencies logically implied by *F* is the closure of *F*.
- We denote the *closure* of F by F^{\dagger} .

Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

- **❖** We can find F^{+,} the closure of F, by repeatedly applying Armstrong's **Axioms:**
 - if $\beta \subseteq \alpha$, then $\alpha \to \beta$ (reflexivity)
 - if $\alpha \to \beta$, then $\gamma \alpha \to \gamma \beta$ if $\alpha \to \beta$ and $\alpha \to \gamma \beta$ (augmentation)
 - if $\alpha \to \beta$, and $\beta \to \gamma$, then $\alpha \to \gamma$ (transitivity)
- These rules are
 - sound (generate only functional dependencies that actually hold),
 - complete (generate all functional dependencies that hold).

Example

$$R = (A, B, C, G, H, I)$$

$$F = \{A \rightarrow B$$

$$A \rightarrow C$$

$$CG \rightarrow H$$

$$CG \rightarrow I$$

$$B \rightarrow H\}$$

- \diamond some members of F
 - \bullet $A \rightarrow H$

✓ by transitivity from $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow H$

 $AG \rightarrow I$

✓ by augmenting $A \rightarrow C$ with G, to get $AG \rightarrow CG$ and then transitivity with $CG \rightarrow I$

 $CG \rightarrow HI$ ✓ by augmenting $CG \rightarrow I$ to infer $CG \rightarrow CGI$, and augmenting of $CG \rightarrow H$ to infer $CGI \rightarrow HI$,

and then transitivity

Procedure for Computing F

To compute the closure of a set of functional dependencies F:

$$F^+$$
 = Frepeat

for each functional dependency f in F^+

apply reflexivity and augmentation rules on f

add the resulting functional dependencies to F^+

for each pair of functional dependencies f_1 and f_2 in F^+

if f_1 and f_2 can be combined using transitivity

then add the resulting functional dependency to $F^{^{+}}$ until $F^{^{+}}$ does not change any further

NOTE: We shall see an alternative procedure for this task later

Closure of Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- **Additional rules:**
 - If $\alpha \to \beta$ holds and $\alpha \to \gamma$ holds, then $\alpha \to \beta \gamma$ holds (union)
 - If $\alpha \to \beta \gamma$ holds, then $\alpha \to \beta$ holds and $\alpha \to \gamma$ holds (decomposition)
 - If $\alpha \to \beta$ holds and $\gamma \beta \to \delta$ holds, then $\alpha \gamma \to \delta$ holds (pseudotransitivity)

The above rules can be inferred from Armstrong's axioms.

Closure of Attribute Sets

- **Solution** Given a set of attributes α , define the *closure* of α under F (denoted by α) as the set of attributes that are functionally determined by α under F
- \bullet Algorithm to compute α , the closure of α under F

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 \begin{array}{l} \textit{result} := \alpha; \\ \textit{while (changes to } \textit{result) do} \\ \textit{for each } \beta \rightarrow \gamma \textit{ in } \textit{F do} \\ \textit{begin} \\ \textit{if } \beta \subseteq \textit{result then } \textit{result} := \textit{result} \cup \gamma \\ \textit{end} \end{array}
```

Example of Attribute Set Closure

- R = (A, B, C, G, H, I) $F = \{A \rightarrow B$ $A \rightarrow C$ $CG \rightarrow H$ $CG \rightarrow I$ $B \rightarrow H \}$
- (AG)
 - 1. result = AG
 - 2. $result = ABCG \quad (A \rightarrow C \text{ and } A \rightarrow B)$
 - 3. $result = ABCGH(CG \rightarrow H \text{ and } CG \subseteq AGBC)$
 - 4. result = ABCGHI $(CG \rightarrow I \text{ and } CG \subseteq AGBCH)$
- \bullet Is AG a candidate key?
 - 1. Is AG a super key?

1. Does
$$AG \rightarrow R$$
? == Is (AG) $\supseteq R$

2. Is any subset of AG a superkey?

1. Does
$$A \rightarrow R$$
? == Is (A) $\supseteq R$

2. Does
$$G \rightarrow R$$
? == Is (G) $\supseteq R$

Uses of Attribute Closure

There are several uses of the attribute closure algorithm:

- ***** Testing for superkey:
 - To test if α is a superkey, we compute α^{+} and check if α^{+} contains all attributes of R.
- ***** Testing functional dependencies
 - To check if a functional dependency $\alpha \to \beta$ holds (or, in other words, is in F), just check if $\beta \subseteq \alpha$.
 - That is, we compute α by using attribute closure, and then check if it contains β .
 - Is a simple and cheap test, and very useful
- **Computing closure of F**
 - For each $\gamma \subseteq R$, we find the closure γ , and for each $S \subseteq \gamma$, we output a functional dependency $\gamma \to S$.

Canonical Cover

- Sets of functional dependencies may have redundant dependencies that can be inferred from the others
 - For example: $A \rightarrow C$ is redundant in: $\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow C\}$
 - Parts of a functional dependency may be redundant
 - ✓ E.g.: on RHS: $\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow CD\}$ can be simplified to

$${A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow D}$$

✓ E.g.: on LHS: $\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, AC \rightarrow D\}$ can be simplified to

$$\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow D\}$$

❖ Intuitively, a canonical cover of F is a "minimal" set of functional dependencies equivalent to F, having no redundant dependencies or redundant parts of dependencies

Extraneous Attributes

- **Consider** a set F of functional dependencies and the functional dependency $\alpha \to \beta$ in F.
 - Attribute A is extraneous in α if $A \in \alpha$ and F logically implies $(F \{\alpha \to \beta\}) \cup \{(\alpha A) \to \beta\}$.
 - Attribute A is extraneous in β if A ∈ β
 and the set of functional dependencies
 (F {α → β}) ∪ {α → (β A)} logically implies F.
- * Note: implication in the opposite direction is trivial in each of the cases above, since a "stronger" functional dependency always implies a weaker one
- \Leftrightarrow Example: Given $F = \{A \rightarrow C, AB \rightarrow C\}$
 - B is extraneous in $AB \to C$ because $\{A \to C, AB \to C\}$ logically implies $A \to C$ (I.e. the result of dropping B from $AB \to C$).
- **\cdot\ Example:** Given $F = \{A \rightarrow C, AB \rightarrow CD\}$

• C is extraneous in $AB \rightarrow CD$ since $AB \rightarrow C$ can be inferred even after deleting C

Testing if an Attribute is Extraneous

- **Consider** a set F of functional dependencies and the functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in F.
- **To test if attribute A** $\in \alpha$ is extraneous in α
 - 1. compute $(\{\alpha\} A)^+$ using the dependencies in F
 - 2. check that $(\{\alpha\} A)^{+}$ contains β ; if it does, A is extraneous in α
- ***** To test if attribute $A \in \beta$ is extraneous in β
 - 1. compute α using only the dependencies in $F' = (F \{\alpha \to \beta\}) \cup \{\alpha \to (\beta A)\},$
 - 2. check that α^{\dagger} contains A; if it does, A is extraneous in β

Canonical Cover

- * A canonical cover for F is a set of dependencies F_c such that
 - F logically implies all dependencies in F_{c_i} and
 - F_c logically implies all dependencies in F, and
 - No functional dependency in F_c contains an extraneous attribute, and
 - Each left side of functional dependency in F_c is unique.
- **❖** To compute a canonical cover for *F*:repeat

Use the union rule to replace any dependencies in F

$$\alpha_1 \rightarrow \beta_1$$
 and $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \beta_2$ with $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \beta_1$ β_2

Find a functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ with an

extraneous attribute either in α or in β

/* Note: test for extraneous attributes done using F_c not F*/

If an extraneous attribute is found, delete it from $\alpha \to \beta$ until F does not change

Note: Union rule may become applicable after some extraneous attributes have been deleted, so it has to be re-applied

Computing a Canonical Cover

- R = (A, B, C) $F = \{A \rightarrow BC$ $B \rightarrow C$ $A \rightarrow B$ $AB \rightarrow C\}$
- **Combine** $A \rightarrow BC$ and $A \rightarrow B$ into $A \rightarrow BC$
 - Set is now $\{A \rightarrow BC, B \rightarrow C, AB \rightarrow C\}$
- A is extraneous in $AB \rightarrow C$
 - Check if the result of deleting A from $AB \rightarrow C$ is implied by the other dependencies
 - 4 Yes: in fact, $B \rightarrow C$ is already present!
 - Set is now $\{A \rightarrow BC, B \rightarrow C\}$
- \bullet C is extraneous in $A \to BC$
 - Check if $A \to C$ is logically implied by $A \to B$ and the other dependencies
 - 4 Yes: using transitivity on $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$.
 - Can use attribute closure of A in more complex cases
- ***** The canonical cover is: $A \rightarrow B$

$$B \rightarrow C$$

Lossless-join Decomposition

For the case of $R = (R_1, R_2)$, we require that for all possible relations r on schema R

$$r = \prod_{R_I} (r) \quad \prod_{R_2} (r)$$

 \diamond A decomposition of R into R_1 and R_2 is lossless join if at least one of the following

dependencies is in F:

$$\bullet \qquad R_1 \cap R_2 \to R_1$$

$$\qquad R_1 \cap R_2 \to R_2$$

The above functional dependencies are a sufficient condition for lossless join decomposition; the dependencies are a necessary condition only if all constraints are functional dependencies

Example

- R = (A, B, C) $F = \{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C\}$
 - Can be decomposed in two different ways
- $R_1 = (A, B), R_2 = (B, C)$
 - Lossless-join decomposition:

$$R_1 \cap R_2 = \{B\}$$
 and $B \rightarrow BC$

- Dependency preserving
- $R_1 = (A, B), R_2 = (A, C)$
 - Lossless-join decomposition:

$$R_1 \cap R_2 = \{A\} \text{ and } A \to AB$$

 Not dependency preserving (cannot check B → C without computing R₁ R₂)

Dependency Preservation

- Let F_i be the set of dependencies F^+ that include only attributes in R_i
 - ✓ A decomposition is dependency preserving, if

$$(F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \dots \cup F_n)^{+} = F^{+}$$

✓ If it is not, then checking updates for violation of functional dependencies may require computing joins, which is expensive.

Testing for Dependency Preservation

- * To check if a dependency $\alpha \to \beta$ is preserved in a decomposition of R into $R_1, R_2, ..., R_n$ we apply the following test (with attribute closure done with respect to F)
 - result = awhile (changes to result) dofor each R_i in the decomposition

$$t = (result \cap R_i)^{+} \cap R_i$$
$$result = result \cup t$$

- If result contains all attributes in β , then the functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is preserved.
- **❖** We apply the test on all dependencies in *F* to check if a decomposition is dependency preserving
- * This procedure takes polynomial time, instead of the exponential time required to compute F and $(F_1 \cup F_2 \cup ... \cup F_p)$

Example

$$R = (A, B, C)$$

$$F = \{A \rightarrow B$$

$$B \rightarrow C\}$$

$$Key = \{A\}$$

- * R is not in BCNF
- **!** Decomposition $R_1 = (A, B), R_2 = (B, C)$
 - R_1 and R_2 in BCNF
 - Lossless-join decomposition
 - Dependency preserving

Testing for BCNF

- ***** To check if a non-trivial dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ causes a violation of BCNF
 - 1. compute α^{+} (the attribute closure of α), and
 - 2. verify that it includes all attributes of R, that is, it is a superkey of R.
- **❖** Simplified test: To check if a relation schema *R* is in BCNF, it suffices to check only the dependencies in the given set *F* for violation of BCNF, rather than checking all dependencies in *F* .
 - If none of the dependencies in F causes a violation of BCNF, then none of the dependencies in F will cause a violation of BCNF either.
- However, simplified test using only F is incorrect when testing a relation in a decomposition of R
 - Consider R = (A, B, C, D, E), with $F = \{A \rightarrow B, BC \rightarrow D\}$
 - Decompose R into $R_1 = (A,B)$ and $R_2 = (A,C,D,E)$
 - ✓ Neither of the dependencies in F contain only attributes from (A,C,D,E) so we might be mislead into thinking R₂ satisfies BCNF.
 - ✓ In fact, dependency $AC \rightarrow D$ in F^{\dagger} shows R_2 is not in BCNF.

Testing Decomposition for BCNF

- **To check if a relation** R_i **in a decomposition of** R **is in BCNF,**
 - Either test R_i for BCNF with respect to the restriction of F to R_i (that is, all FDs in F^+ that contain only attributes from R_i)
 - or use the original set of dependencies *F* that hold on *R*, but with the following test:
 - for every set of attributes $\alpha \subseteq R_i$, check that α (the attribute closure of α) either includes no attribute of R_i α , or includes all attributes of R_i .
 - If the condition is violated by some $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in F, the dependency
 - $\alpha \to (\alpha^- \alpha^-) \cap R_i$ can be shown to hold on R_i , and R_i violates BCNF.
 - \checkmark We use above dependency to decompose R_{i}

BCNF Decomposition Algorithm

```
\begin{tabular}{ll} \textit{result} := & \{R\}; \textit{done} := \textit{false}; \\ \textit{compute } \textit{F}^+; \textit{while (not done) do} \\ & \textit{if (there is a schema $R_i$ in $\textit{result}$ that is not in BCNF)} \\ & \textit{then begin} \\ & \textit{let } \alpha \sqcap \rightarrow \beta \textit{ be a nontrivial functional dependency} \\ \textit{that} \\ & \textit{holds on } R_i \textit{ such that } \alpha \sqcap \rightarrow R_i \textit{ is not in } \textit{F}^+, \\ & \textit{and } \alpha \cap \beta = \emptyset; \\ & \textit{result} := (\textit{result} - R_i) \cup (R_i - \beta) \cup (\alpha, \beta); \\ & \textit{end} \\ & \textit{else done} := \textit{true}; \\ \end \\ \end
```

Note: each R_i is in BCNF, and decomposition is lossless-join.

Example of BCNF Decomposition

$$R = (A, B, C)$$

$$F = \{A \rightarrow B$$

$$B \rightarrow C\}$$

$$Key = \{A\}$$

- R is not in BCNF ($B \rightarrow C$ but B is not superkey)
- Decomposition

 - $\qquad R_2 = (A,B)$

Example of BCNF Decomposition

- class (course_id, title, dept_name, credits, sec_id, semester, year, building, room_number, capacity, time_slot_id)
- Functional dependencies:
 - course_id→ title, dept_name, credits
 - building, room_number→capacity
 - course_id, sec_id, semester, year→building, room_number, time_slot_id
- ❖ A candidate key {course_id, sec_id, semester, year}.
- **BCNF Decomposition:**
 - course_id→ title, dept_name, credits holds
 but course_id is not a superkey.
 - We replace class by:
 - ✓ course(course_id, title, dept_name, credits)
 - ✓ class-1 (course_id, sec_id, semester, year, building, room_number, capacity, time_slot_i

BCNF Decomposition (Cont.)

- course is in BCNF
 - How do we know this?
- **♦** building, room_number→capacity holds on class-1
 - but {building, room_number} is not a superkey for class-1.
 - We replace *class-1* by:
 - ✓ classroom (building, room number, capacity)
 - ✓ section (course_id, sec_id, semester, year, building, room_number, time_slot_id)
- classroom and section are in BCNF.

BCNF and **Dependency Preservation**

It is not always possible to get a BCNF decomposition that is dependency preserving

$$R = (J, K, L)$$

$$F = \{JK \to L$$

$$L \to K\}$$

Two candidate keys = JK and JL

- R is not in BCNF
- \diamond Any decomposition of R will fail to preserve

$$JK \rightarrow L$$

This implies that testing for $JK \rightarrow L$ requires a join

Third Normal Form: Motivation

- ***** There are some situations where
 - BCNF is not dependency preserving, and
 - efficient checking for FD violation on updates is important
- ♦ Solution: define a weaker normal form, called Third Normal Form (3NF)
 - Allows some redundancy (with resultant problems; we will see examples later)
 - But functional dependencies can be checked on individual relations without computing a join.
 - There is always a lossless-join, dependency-preserving decomposition into 3NF.

3NF Example

- **Relation** *dept_advisor*:
 - dept_advisor (s_ID, i_ID, dept_name)
 F = {s_ID, dept_name → i_ID, i_ID → dept_name}
 - Two candidate keys: s_ID, dept_name, and i_ID, s_ID
 - R is in 3NF
 - ✓ s_ID , $dept_name \rightarrow i_ID$ s_ID dept_name is a superkey
 - \checkmark $i_ID \rightarrow dept_name$
 - dept name is contained in a candidate key

Redundancy in 3NF

- There is some redundancy in this schema
- * Example of problems due to redundancy in 3NF

$$R = \{J, K, L\}$$

$$F = \{JK \rightarrow L, L \rightarrow K\}$$

J	L	K
<i>j</i> ₁	4	<i>K</i> ₁
<i>j</i> ₂	4	<i>K</i> ₁
<i>j</i> ₃	4	<i>K</i> ₁
null	1/2	<i>k</i> ₂

- ❖ repetition of information (e.g., the relationship l₁, k₁)
 - (i ID, dept name)
- need to use null values (e.g., to represent the relationship l_2 , k_2 where there is no corresponding value for J).
 - (<u>i ID</u>, <u>dept namel</u>) if there is no separate relation mapping instructors to departments

Testing for 3NF

- **The Proof of School of S**
- **.** Use attribute closure to check for each dependency $\alpha \to \beta$, if α is a superkey.
- **!** If α is not a superkey, we have to verify if each attribute in β is contained in a candidate key of R
 - this test is rather more expensive, since it involve finding candidate keys
 - testing for 3NF has been shown to be NP-hard
 - Interestingly, decomposition into third normal form (described shortly) can be done in polynomial time

3NF Decomposition Algorithm

```
Let F_c be a canonical cover for F_c:
 /:= 0;for each functional dependency \alpha \to \beta in F_c do
      if none of the schemas R_i, 1 \le j \le i contains \alpha \beta
                 then begin
                                        i := i + 1:
                                        R_i := \alpha \beta
                             end
if none of the schemas R_j, 1 \le j \le i contains a candidate key for R
      then begin
                             i := i + 1;
                             R_i:= any candidate key for R_i:
                 end /* Optionally, remove redundant relations */
repeat
if any schema R_i is contained in another schema R_k
     then /* delete R, */
        R_i = R:
        i=i-1, return (R_1, R_2, ..., R_i)
```

3NF Decomposition Algorithm (Cont.)

- **Above algorithm ensures:**
 - each relation schema R_i is in 3NF
 - decomposition is dependency preserving and lossless-join
 - Proof of correctness is at end of this presentation (click here)

3NF Decomposition: An Example

* Relation schema:

cust_banker_branch = (customer_id, employee_id, branch_name, type)

- **The functional dependencies for this relation schema are:**
 - 1. customer_id, employee_id → branch_name, type
 - 2. $employee_id \rightarrow branch_name$
 - 3. customer_id, branch_name → employee_id
- We first compute a canonical cover
 - 1. branch_name is extraneous in the r.h.s. of the 1 dependency
 - 2. No other attribute is extraneous, so we get \mathbf{F}_{a} =

```
customer_id, employee_id → type
employee_id → branch_name
customer_id, branch_name → employee_id
```

3NF Decompsition Example (Cont.)

The for loop generates following 3NF schema:

```
(customer_id, employee_id, type )
(employee_id, branch_name)
(customer_id, branch_name, employee_id)
```

- Observe that (customer_id, employee_id, type) contains a candidate key of the original schema, so no further relation schema needs be added
- At end of for loop, detect and delete schemas, such as (employee_id, branch name), which are subsets of other schemas
 - result will not depend on the order in which FDs are considered
- **The resultant simplified 3NF schema is:**

```
(customer_id, employee_id, type)
(customer_id, branch_name, employee_id)
```

Comparison of BCNF and 3NF

- **❖** It is always possible to decompose a relation into a set of relations that are in 3NF such that:
 - the decomposition is lossless
 - the dependencies are preserved
- **❖** It is always possible to decompose a relation into a set of relations that are in BCNF such that:
 - the decomposition is lossless
 - it may not be possible to preserve dependencies.

Design Goals

- **Goal for a relational database design is:**
 - BCNF.
 - Lossless join.
 - Dependency preservation.
- If we cannot achieve this, we accept one of
 - Lack of dependency preservation
 - Redundancy due to use of 3NF
- Interestingly, SQL does not provide a direct way of specifying functional dependencies other than superkeys.

Can specify FDs using assertions, but they are expensive to test, (and currently not supported by any of the widely used databases!)

***** Even if we had a dependency preserving decomposition, using SQL we would not be able to efficiently test a functional dependency whose left hand side is not a key.

Multivalued Dependencies

- Suppose we record names of children, and phone numbers for instructors:
 - inst_child(ID, child_name)
 - inst_phone(ID, phone_number)
- **!** If we were to combine these schemas to get
 - inst_info(ID, child_name, phone_number)
 - Example data:
 (99999, David, 512-555-1234)
 (99999, David, 512-555-4321)
 (99999, William, 512-555-1234)
 (99999, William, 512-555-4321)
- ***** This relation is in BCNF
 - Why?

Multivalued Dependencies (MVDs)

\Let R be a relation schema and let $\alpha \subseteq R$ and $\beta \subseteq R$. The multivalued dependency

$$\alpha \longrightarrow \rightarrow \beta$$

holds on R if in any legal relation r(R), for all pairs for tuples t_1 and t_2 in r such that $t_1[\alpha] = t_2[\alpha]$, there exist tuples t_3 and t_4 in r such that:

$$\begin{split} t_1^{}[\alpha] &= t_2^{}[\alpha] = t_3^{}[\alpha] = t_4^{}[\alpha] \\ t_3^{}[\beta] &= t_1^{}[\beta] \\ t_3^{}[R - \beta] &= t_2^{}[R - \beta] \\ t_4^{}[\beta] &= t_2^{}[\beta] \\ t_4^{}[R - \beta] &= t_1^{}[R - \beta] \end{split}$$

MVD (Cont.)

***** Tabular representation of $\alpha \rightarrow \rightarrow \beta$

	α	β	$R-\alpha-\beta$
t_1	$a_1 \dots a_i$	$a_{i+1} \dots a_j$	$a_{j+1} \dots a_n$
t_2	$a_1 \dots a_i$	$b_{i+1} \dots b_j$	$b_{j+1} \dots b_n$
t_3	$a_1 \dots a_i$	$a_{i+1} \dots a_j$	$b_{j+1} \dots b_n$
t_4	$a_1 \dots a_i$	$b_{i+1} \dots b_{j}$	$a_{j+1} \dots a_n$

Example

❖ Let *R* be a relation schema with a set of attributes that are partitioned into 3 nonempty subsets.

***** We say that $Y \rightarrow \rightarrow Z$ (Y multidetermines Z)if and only if for all possible relations r(R)

$$< y_1, z_1, w_1 > \in r \text{ and } < y_1, z_2, w_2 > \in r$$

then

$$< y_1, z_1, w_2 > \in r \text{ and } < y_1, z_2, w_1 > \in r$$

❖ Note that since the behavior of Z and W are identical it follows that

$$Y \longrightarrow Z \text{ if } Y \longrightarrow W$$

Example (Cont.)

In our example:

$$ID \rightarrow \rightarrow child_name$$

$$ID \longrightarrow phone_number$$

- **❖** The above formal definition is supposed to formalize the notion that given a particular value of *Y* (*ID*) it has associated with it a set of values of *Z* (*child_name*) and a set of values of *W* (*phone_number*), and these two sets are in some sense independent of each other.
- Note:
 - If $Y \rightarrow Z$ then $Y \rightarrow Z$
 - Indeed we have (in above notation) $Z_1 = Z_2$ The claim follows.

Use of Multivalued Dependencies

- We use multivalued dependencies in two ways:
 - 1. To test relations to determine whether they are legal under a given set of functional and multivalued dependencies
 - 2. To specify constraints on the set of legal relations. We shall thus concern ourselves *only* with relations that satisfy a given set of functional and multivalued dependencies.
- ❖ If a relation r fails to satisfy a given multivalued dependency, we can construct a relations r' that does satisfy the multivalued dependency by adding tuples to r.

Theory of MVDs

- From the definition of multivalued dependency, we can derive the following rule:
 - If $\alpha \to \beta$, then $\alpha \to \beta$

That is, every functional dependency is also a multivalued dependency

- **The closure** D^{+} of D is the set of all functional and multivalued dependencies logically implied by D.
 - We can compute $\mathbf{D}^{^{+}}$ from D, using the formal definitions of functional dependencies and multivalued dependencies.
 - We can manage with such reasoning for very simple multivalued dependencies, which seem to be most common in practice
 - For complex dependencies, it is better to reason about sets of dependencies using a system of inference rules (see Appendix C).

Fourth Normal Form

- ❖ A relation schema R is in 4NF with respect to a set D of functional and multivalued dependencies if for all multivalued dependencies in D of the form $\alpha \to \beta$, where $\alpha \subseteq R$ and $\beta \subseteq R$, at least one of the following hold:
 - $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial (i.e., $\beta \subseteq \alpha$ or $\alpha \cup \beta = R$)
 - α is a superkey for schema R
- **❖** If a relation is in 4NF it is in BCNF

Restriction of Multivalued Dependencies

- n The restriction of D to R_i is the set D_i consisting of
 - All functional dependencies in \mathbf{D}^{+} that include only attributes of \mathbf{R}_{+}
 - All multivalued dependencies of the form

where $\alpha \subseteq \mathbf{R}_i$ and $\alpha \longrightarrow \beta$ is in \mathbf{D}^+

4NF Decomposition Algorithm

result: = $\{R\}$; done := false; compute D^{+} ; Let D_{+} denote the restriction of D^{+} to R_{+}

while (not *done*)

if (there is a schema R_i in *result* that is not in 4NF) then begin

let $\alpha \to \beta$ be a nontrivial multivalued dependency that holds on R_i such that $\alpha \to R_i$ is not in D_i , and $\alpha \cap \beta = \varphi$; result := $(result - R_i) \cup (R_i - \beta) \cup (\alpha, \beta)$; end else done:= true;

Note: each R_i is in 4NF, and decomposition is lossless-join

Example

Further Normal Forms

- Join dependencies generalize multivalued dependencies
 - lead to project-join normal form (PJNF) (also called fifth normal form)
- **❖** A class of even more general constraints, leads to a normal form called domain-key normal form.
- **❖** Problem with these generalized constraints: are hard to reason with, and no set of sound and complete set of inference rules exists.

Hence rarely used

Overall Database Design Process

- \diamond We have assumed schema R is given
 - R could have been generated when converting E-R diagram to a set of tables.
 - R could have been a single relation containing all attributes that are of interest (called universal relation).
 - Normalization breaks *R* into smaller relations.
 - R could have been the result of some ad hoc design of relations, which we then test/convert to normal form.

ER Model and Normalization

- When an E-R diagram is carefully designed, identifying all entities correctly, the tables generated from the E-R diagram should not need further normalization.
- However, in a real (imperfect) design, there can be functional dependencies from non-key attributes of an entity to other attributes of the entity
 - Example: an employee entity with attributes
 department_name and building,
 and a functional dependency
 department_name→ building
 - Good design would have made department an entity
- **❖** Functional dependencies from non-key attributes of a relationship set possible, but rare --- most relationships are binary

Denormalization for Performance

- May want to use non-normalized schema for performance
- For example, displaying <u>preregs</u> along with <u>course id</u>, and <u>title</u> requires join of <u>course</u> with <u>prereg</u>
- Alternative 1: Use <u>denormalized</u> relation containing attributes of course as well as <u>prereq</u> with all above attributes
 - faster lookup
 - extra space and extra execution time for updates
 - extra coding work for programmer and possibility of error in extra code
- Alternative 2: use a materialized view defined as course prereq
 - Benefits and drawbacks same as above, except no extra coding work for programmer and avoids possible errors

Other Design Issues

- Some aspects of database design are not caught by normalization
- **Examples of bad database design, to be avoided:**

Instead of earnings (company_id, year, amount), use

- earnings_2004, earnings_2005, earnings_2006, etc., all on the schema (company_id, earnings).
 - ✓ Above are in BCNF, but make querying across years difficult and needs new table each year
- company_year (company_id, earnings_2004, earnings_2005, earnings_2006)
 - ✓ Also in BCNF, but also makes querying across years difficult and requires new attribute each year.
 - ✓ Is an example of a crosstab, where values for one attribute become column names
 - ✓ Used in spreadsheets, and in data analysis tools

Modeling Temporal Data

- **Temporal data** have an association time interval during which the data are *valid*.
- ❖ A snapshot is the value of the data at a particular point in time
- ❖ Several proposals to extend ER model by adding valid time to
 - attributes, e.g., address of an instructor at different points in time
 - entities, e.g., time duration when a student entity exists
 - relationships, e.g., time during which an instructor was associated with a student as an advisor.
- But no accepted standard
- **Adding a temporal component results in functional dependencies like**

 $ID \rightarrow street, city$

not to hold, because the address varies over time

A temporal functional dependency $X \rightarrow Y$ holds on schema R if the functional dependency $X \rightarrow Y$ holds on all snapshots for all legal instances r(R).

Modeling Temporal Data (Cont.)

- **❖** In practice, database designers may add start and end time attributes to relations
 - E.g., course(course_id, course_title) is replaced by

course(course_id, course_title, start, end)

- ✓ Constraint: no two tuples can have overlapping valid times
 Hard to enforce efficiently
- **❖** Foreign key references may be to current version of data, or to data at a point in time
 - E.g., student transcript should refer to course information at the time the course was taken

End of Chapter

Proof of Correctness of 3NF Decomposition Algorithm

Correctness of 3NF Decomposition Algorithm

- **❖** 3NF decomposition algorithm is dependency preserving (since there is a relation for every FD in *F*)
- Decomposition is lossless
 - A candidate key (C) is in one of the relations R_i in decomposition
 - Closure of candidate key under F_{c} must contain all attributes in R.
 - Follow the steps of attribute closure algorithm to show there is only one tuple in the join result for each tuple in *R*.

Correctness of 3NF Decomposition Algorithm (Cont'd.)

Claim: if a relation R_i is in the decomposition generated by the above algorithm, then R_i satisfies 3NF.

- **!** Let R_i be generated from the dependency $\alpha \to \beta$
- Let $\gamma \to B$ be any non-trivial functional dependency on R_i . (We need only consider FDs whose right-hand side is a single attribute.)
- Now, B can be in either β or α but not in both. Consider each case separately.
- **Case 1: If** *B* in β:
 - If γ is a superkey, the 2nd condition of 3NF is satisfied
 - Otherwise α must contain some attribute not in γ
 - Since $\gamma \to B$ is in F^+ it must be derivable from F_c , by using attribute closure on γ .
 - Attribute closure not have used $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$. If it had been used, α must be contained in the attribute closure of γ , which is not possible, since we assumed γ is not a superkey.
 - Now, using $\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \{B\})$ and $\gamma \rightarrow B$, we can derive $\alpha \rightarrow B$

(since $\gamma \subseteq \alpha \beta$, and $B \notin \gamma$ since $\gamma \to B$ is non-trivial)

- Then, B is extraneous in the right-hand side of $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$; which is not possible since $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is in F.
- Thus, if B is in β then γ must be a superkey, and the second condition of 3NF must be satisfied.

Correctness of 3NF Decomposition (Cont'd.)

- \diamond Case 2: *B* is in α .
 - Since α is a candidate key, the third alternative in the definition of 3NF is trivially satisfied.
 - In fact, we cannot show that γ is a superkey.
 - This shows exactly why the third alternative is present in the definition of 3NF.

Q.E.D.

Figure 8.02

ID	пате	salary	dept_name	building	budget
22222	Einstein	95000	Physics	Watson	70000
12121	Wu	90000	Finance	Painter	120000
32343	El Said	60000	History	Painter	50000
45565	Katz	75000	Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
98345	Kim	80000	Elec. Eng.	Taylor	85000
76766	Crick	72000	Biology	Watson	90000
10101	Srinivasan	65000	Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
58583	Califieri	62000	History	Painter	50000
83821	Brandt	92000	Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
15151	Mozart	40000	Music	Packard	80000
33456	Gold	87000	Physics	Watson	70000
76543	Singh	80000	Finance	Painter	120000

Figure 8.03

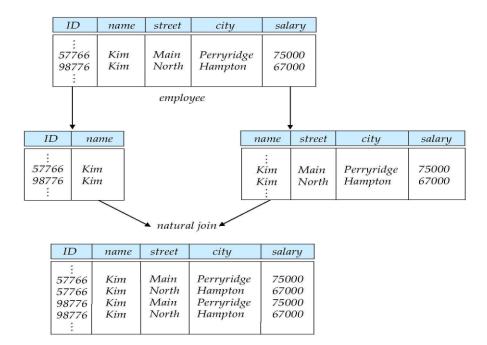


Figure 8.04

A	В	С	D
a_1	b_1	c_1	d_1
a_1	b_2	c_1	d_2
a_2	b_2	c_2	d_2
a_2	b_3	c_2	d_3
a_3	b_3	c_2	d_4

Figure 8.05

building	room_number	capacity
Packard	101	500
Painter	514	10
Taylor	3128	70
Watson	100	30
Watson	120	50

Figure 8.06

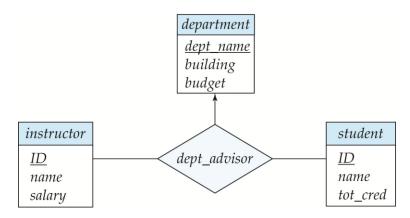


Figure 8.14

dept_name	ID	street	city
Physics	22222	North	Rye
Physics	22222	Main	Manchester
Finance	12121	Lake	Horseneck

Figure 8.15

dept_name	ID	street	city
Physics	22222	North	Rye
Math	22222	Main	Manchester

Figure 8.17

A	В	С
a_1	b_1	c_1
a_1	b_1	c_2
a_2	b_1	c_1
a_2	b_1	c_3

