

Functional Dependency

- The functional dependency is a relationship that exists between two attributes. It typically exists between the primary key and non-key attribute within a table.
- A functional dependency is denoted by an arrow \rightarrow .
- The functional dependency of X on Y is represented by $X \rightarrow Y$
- X is called determinant set
- Y is called dependent attribute

ie Given the value of X if there is only one value of Y corresponding to it, then Y is said to be functionally depended on X

Eg: Itemcode \rightarrow Itemname

- Assume we have an employee table with attributes: Emp_Id, Emp_Name, Emp_Address.
- Here Emp_Id attribute can uniquely identify the Emp_Name attribute of employee table because if we know the Emp_Id, we can tell that employee name associated with it.
- Functional dependency can be written as:
 - $\text{Emp_Id} \rightarrow \text{Emp_Name}$
 - We can say that Emp_Name is functionally dependent on Emp_Id.

Trivial functional dependency

- $A \rightarrow B$ has trivial functional dependency if B is a subset of A .
- The following dependencies are also trivial like: $A \rightarrow A$, $B \rightarrow B$

- **Example:**

Consider a table with two columns Employee_Id and Employee_Name.

$\{\text{Employee_id}, \text{Employee_Name}\} \rightarrow \text{Employee_Id}$ is a trivial functional dependency as

Employee_Id is a subset of $\{\text{Employee_Id}, \text{Employee_Name}\}$.

Also, $\text{Employee_Id} \rightarrow \text{Employee_Id}$ and $\text{Employee_Name} \rightarrow \text{Employee_Name}$ are trivial dependencies too.

Non-trivial functional dependency

- $A \rightarrow B$ has a non-trivial functional dependency if B is not a subset of A .
- When A intersection B is NULL, then $A \rightarrow B$ is called as complete non-trivial.
- **Example:**

$ID \rightarrow Name,$

$Name \rightarrow DOB$

Transitive dependency

- A transitive dependency exists when there is an intermediate in functional dependency.

Notation

- $A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C$, and if $A \rightarrow C$ then it can be stated that the transitive dependency exists.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$
- Eg: STAFF NUMBER \rightarrow DESIGNATION
- DESIGNATION \rightarrow SALARY
- STAFF NUMBER \rightarrow SALARY
- There is a transitive dependency between STAFF NUMBER and SALARY

Partial Functional Dependency

- **Partial Dependency** occurs when a non-prime attribute is **functionally** dependent on part of a candidate key.
- The 2nd Normal Form (2NF) eliminates the **Partial Dependency**.
- A partial dependency means if the non-key attributes depend on the part of candidate key then it is said to be partial dependency.

- **Full Functional Dependency** : In a relation , there exists Full Functional Dependency between any two attributes X and Y, when X is functionally dependent on Y and is not functionally dependent on any proper subset of Y.

Inference Rule (IR):

- The Armstrong's axioms are the basic inference rule.
- Armstrong's axioms are used to conclude functional dependencies on a relational database.
- The inference rule is a type of assertion. It can apply to a set of FD(functional dependency) to derive other FD.
- Using the inference rule, we can derive additional functional dependency from the initial set.
- The Functional dependency has 6 types of inference rule:

1. Reflexive Rule (IR_1)

- In the reflexive rule, if Y is a subset of X , then X determines Y .
- If $X \supseteq Y$ then $X \rightarrow Y$
- **Example:**
- $X = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$
- $Y = \{a, b, c\}$

2. Augmentation Rule (IR_2)

- The augmentation is also called as a partial dependency. In augmentation, if X determines Y , then XZ determines YZ for any Z .
- If $X \rightarrow Y$ then $XZ \rightarrow YZ$
- **Example:**
- For $R(ABCD)$, if $A \rightarrow B$ then $AC \rightarrow BC$

3. Transitive Rule (IR_3)

- In the transitive rule, if X determines Y and Y determine Z, then X must also determine Z.
- If $X \rightarrow Y$ and $Y \rightarrow Z$ then $X \rightarrow Z$

4. Union Rule (IR_4)

- Union rule says, if X determines Y and X determines Z, then X must also determine Y and Z.
- If $X \rightarrow Y$ and $X \rightarrow Z$ then $X \rightarrow YZ$
- **Proof:**
 1. $X \rightarrow Y$ (given)
 2. $X \rightarrow Z$ (given)
 3. $X \rightarrow XY$ (using IR_2 on 1 by augmentation with X. Where $XX = X$)
 4. $XY \rightarrow YZ$ (using IR_2 on 2 by augmentation with Y)
 5. $X \rightarrow YZ$ (using IR_3 on 3 and 4)

5. Decomposition Rule (IR_5)

- Decomposition rule is also known as project rule. It is the reverse of union rule.
- This Rule says, if X determines Y and Z , then X determines Y and X determines Z separately.
- If $X \rightarrow YZ$ then $X \rightarrow Y$ and $X \rightarrow Z$
- **Proof:**
 1. $X \rightarrow YZ$ (given)
 2. $YZ \rightarrow Y$ (using IR_1 Rule)
 3. $X \rightarrow Y$ (using IR_3 on 1 and 2)

6. Pseudo transitive Rule (IR_6)

- In Pseudo transitive Rule, if X determines Y and YZ determines W, then XZ determines W.
- If $X \rightarrow Y$ and $YZ \rightarrow W$ then $XZ \rightarrow W$
- **Proof:**
 - 1. $X \rightarrow Y$ (given)
 - 2. $WY \rightarrow Z$ (given)
 - 3. $WX \rightarrow WY$ (using IR_2 on 1 by augmenting with W)
 - 4. $WX \rightarrow Z$ (using IR_3 on 3 and 2)

Anomalies in a database

STUDENT-TB

Name	Course	Pnone-no	Major	Prof	Grade	
John	353	235-4539	Computer-science	Smith	A	
Ng	329	457-6534	Chemistry	Taniya	B	
John	328	235-4539	Computer-science	Clark	B	
Martin	456	456-876	Physics	James	A	
Duke	293	371-765	Maths	Cook	C	
Duke	356	371-765	Maths	Bond	In prog	
John	379	235-4539	Computer-science	Cross	In prog	

Update anomalies

- Multiple copies of the same fact may lead update anomalies or inconsistencies when an update is made and only some of the multiple copies are updated.
- Thus a change in the phone number of John must be made for inconsistency in all tuples pertaining to the student Jone.
- If one of the three tuples in the given table changed to reflect the new phone number of John there will be an inconsistency in the data

Insertion anomalies

- If this is the only relation in the database showing the association between a faculty member and the course he or she teaches, the fact that a given professor is teaching a given course cannot be entered in the database unless a student is registered in the course.
- Also if another relation also establish relationship between a course and a professor who teaches that course the information stored in this relation has to be consistent.

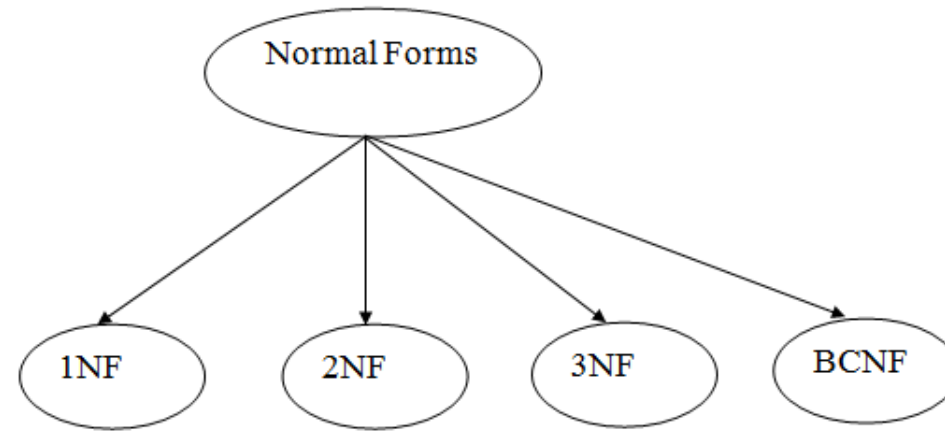
Deletion anomalies

- If the only student registered in a given course discontinues the course, the information as to which professor is offering the course will be lost, this is the only relation in the database showing the association between a faculty member and their course she or he teaches.
- If another relation in the database also established the relationship between a course and a professor who teaches that course the deletion of the last tuple in STUDENT-TB for a given course will not cause information about the course's teachers to be lost

Normalization

- Normalization is the process of organizing the data in the database.
- Normalization is used to minimize the redundancy from a relation or set of relations.
- It is also used to eliminate the undesirable characteristics like Insertion, Update and Deletion Anomalies.
- Normalization divides the larger table into the smaller table and links them using relationship.
- The normal form is used to reduce redundancy from the database table.

Types of Normal Forms



First Normal Form (1NF)

- A relation will be 1NF if it contains an atomic value.
- It states that an attribute of a table cannot hold multiple values. It must hold only single-valued attribute.
- First normal form disallows the multi-valued attribute, composite attribute, and their combinations.

EMPLOYEE table:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_PHONE	EMP_STATE
14	John	7272826385, 9064738238	UP
20	Harry	8574783832	Bihar
12	Sam	7390372389, 8589830302	Punjab

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_PHONE	EMP_STATE
14	John	7272826385	UP
14	John	9064738238	UP
20	Harry	8574783832	Bihar
12	Sam	7390372389	Punjab
12	Sam	8589830302	Punjab

Second Normal Form (2NF)

- A table is said to be in 2NF if it is in 1NF and non-key attributes are functionally dependents on the key attribute.
- Further, If the key has more than one attribute then **no non key** attribute should be functionally depends upon a part of the key attribute

Second Normal Form

EMPLOYEE-TB

Emp-no	Ename	Project-id	Projectname	Project-location	Hrs-worked
E01	Jaine Bhatta	P01	HMS	Kolkutta	20
E02	Pinki Bose	P02	SIS	Mumbi	30
E03	Kushi Kosh	P01	HMS	Kolkutta	40
E04	Guthm Deny	P02	SIS	Mumbi	30
E05	Sourav Basker	P03	RRS	Kolcutta	25

EMP-TB

Emp-no	Project-id	Hrs-worked
E01	P01	20
E02	P02	30
E03	P01	40
E04	P02	30
E05	P03	25

EMP-DETAILS-TB

Emp-no	Ename
E01	Jaine Bhatta
E02	Pinki Bose
E03	Kushi Kosh
E04	Guthm Deny
E05	Sourav Basker

PROJECT-TB

Project-id	Projectname	Project-location
P01	HMS	Kolkutta
P02	SIS	Mumbi
P01	HMS	Kolkutta
P02	SIS	Mumbi

- FD1:{Emp-no, Project-id} -> Hrs-worked----- Primary key
- FD2: Emp-no -> Ename partial dependency
- FD3: Project-id -> Projectname, Project-location
partial dependency.

Third Normal Form (3NF)

- A relation will be in 3NF if it is in 2NF and no non-key attributes is functionally dependent on any other non key attribute.
-

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_ZIP	EMP_STATE	EMP_CITY
222	Harry	201010	UP	Agra
333	Stephan	02228	US	Boston
444	Lan	60007	US	Chicago
555	Katharine	06389	UK	Norwich
666	John	462007	MP	Bhopal

EMPLOYEE table:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_ZIP
222	Harry	201010
333	Stephan	02228
444	Lan	60007
555	Katharine	06389
666	John	462007

EMPLOYEE_ZIP table:

EMP_ZIP	EMP_STATE	EMP_CITY
201010	UP	Noida
02228	US	Boston
60007	US	Chicago
06389	UK	Norwich
462007	MP	Bhopal

Third normal form

EMP-NO	NAME	DEG	SALARY	DEPT-NO	DEPT-NAME
E01	KEVIN	MANAGER	25000	D01	ADMINISTRATION
E05	PINKY	PROGRAMMER	15000	D03	PROJECT
E06	GOUTHM	FINANCE-OFFICER	10000	D02	PERSONAL
E07	RAJIB	SYSTEM ANALYSIST	20000	D03	PROJECT

EMP-NO	NAME	DEG	SALARY	DEPT-NO	
E01	KEVIN	MANAGER	25000	D01	
E05	PINKY	PROGRAMMER	15000	D03	
E06	GOUTH M	FINANCE-OFFICER	10000	D02	
E07	RAJIB	SYSTEM ANALYST	20000	D03	

DEPT-NO	DEPT-NAME
D01	ADMINISTRATION
D03	PROJECT
D02	PERSONAL

Boyce Codd normal form (BCNF)

- BCNF is the advance version of 3NF. It is stricter than 3NF.
- A table is in BCNF if every functional dependency $X \rightarrow Y$, X is the super key of the table.
- For BCNF, the table should be in 3NF, and for every FD, LHS is super key.

Example: Let's assume there is a company where employees work in more than one department.

EMPLOYEE table:

EMP_ID	EMP_COUNTRY	EMP_DEPT	DEPT_TYPE	EMP_DEPT_NO
264	India	Designing	D394	283
264	India	Testing	D394	300
364	UK	Stores	D283	232
364	UK	Developing	D283	549

EMP_ID → EMP_COUNTRY

EMP_DEPT → {DEPT_TYPE, EMP_DEPT_NO}

Candidate key: {EMP-ID, EMP-DEPT}

The table is not in BCNF because neither EMP_DEPT nor EMP_ID alone are keys.

EMP_COUNTRY table:

EMP_ID	EMP_COUNTRY
264	India
264	India

EMP_DEPT table:

EMP_DEPT	DEPT_TYPE	EMP_DEPT_NO
Designing	D394	283
Testing	D394	300
Stores	D283	232
Developing	D283	549

EMP_DEPT_MAPPING table:

EMP_ID	EMP_DEPT
D394	283
D394	300
D283	232
D283	549

Functional dependencies:

EMP_ID → EMP_COUNTRY

EMP_DEPT → {DEPT_TYPE, EMP_DEPT_NO}

Candidate keys:

For the first table: EMP_ID

For the second table: EMP_DEPT

For the third table: {EMP_ID, EMP_DEPT}

Now, this is in BCNF because left side part of both the functional dependencies is a key.

Eg: Converting a Relation to BCNF

- Consider a relation which is in 3NF but not in BCNF.
- The relation R has three attributes:
- $R\{PATIENT, DOCTOR, HOSPITAL\}$
 - $\{PATIENT, HOSPITAL\} \rightarrow DOCTOR$
 - $DOCTOR \rightarrow HOSPITAL$
- R is not in BCNF because DOCTOR is not the super key.
- To convert the relation R into BCNF, split the relation R into two relations R1 and R2.
 - $R1\{PATIENT, DOCTOR\}$
 - $R2\{DOCTOR, HOSPITAL\}$

Indexing Structures for Files

Indexes as Access Paths

- A single-level index is an auxiliary file that makes it more efficient to search for a record in the data file.
- The index is usually specified on one field of the file (although it could be specified on several fields)
- One form of an index is a file of entries **<field value, pointer to record>**, which is ordered by field value
- The index is called an access path on the field.

Indexes as Access Paths (contd.)

- The index file usually occupies considerably less disk blocks than the data file because its entries are much smaller
- A binary search on the index yields a pointer to the file record
- Indexes can also be characterized as dense or sparse
 - A **dense index** has an index entry for every search key value (and hence every record) in the data file.
 - A **sparse (or nondense) index**, on the other hand, has index entries for only some of the search values

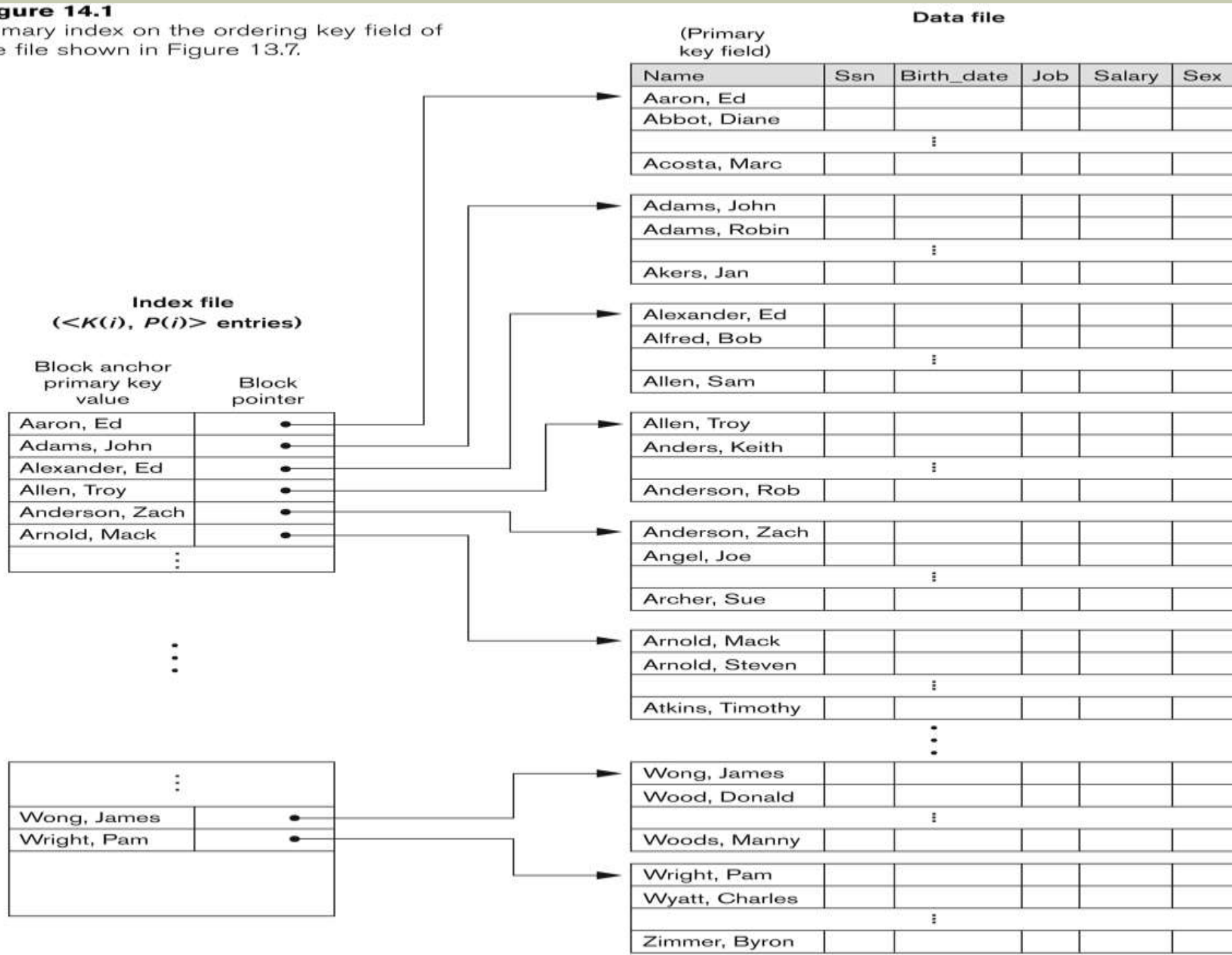
Types of Single-Level Indexes

■ Primary Index

- Defined on an ordered data file whose records are of fixed length with 2 fields.
- The data file is ordered on a **key field**
- The first field is of the same data type as the ordering key field called primary key of the data file.
- The second field is a pointer to a disk block(block address).
- Includes one index entry *for each block* in the data file; the index entry has the key field value for the *first record* in the block, which is called the *block anchor and a pointer to that block*.
- $\langle K(i), P(i) \rangle$
- A primary index is a nondense (sparse) index, since it includes an entry for each disk block of the data file and the keys of its anchor record rather than for every search value.

Figure 14.1

Primary index on the ordering key field of the file shown in Figure 13.7.



Types of Single-Level Indexes

■ Clustering Index

- Defined on an ordered data file
- The data file is ordered on a *non-key field* unlike primary index, which does not have a distinct value for each record – that field is called ***clustering field***.
- We will create a different type of index called ***clustering index***, to speed up retrieval of records that have the same value for the clustering field.
- Includes one index entry *for each distinct value* of the field; the index entry points to the first data block that contains records with that field value.
- For insertion and deletion there are some problems.
- It is another example of *nondense* index where Insertion and Deletion is relatively straightforward with a clustering index.

(CLUSTERING
FIELD)

DEPTNUMBER NAME SSN JOB BIRTHDATE SALARY

1					
1					
1					
2					

2					
3					
3					
3					

3					
3					
4					
4					

5					
5					
5					
5					

6					
6					
6					
6					

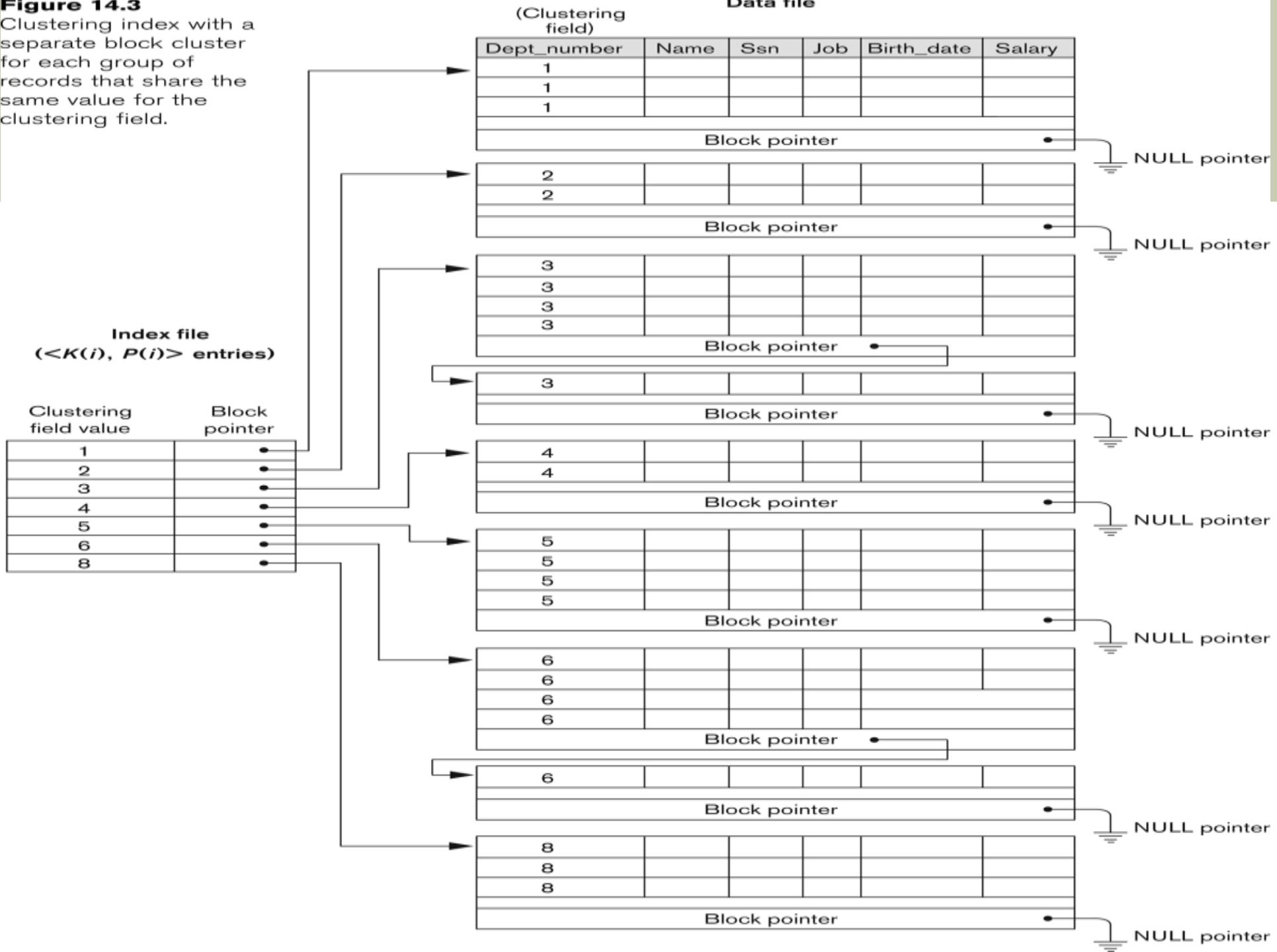
6					
8					
8					
8					

INDEX FILE
($\langle K(i), P(i) \rangle$ entries)CLUSTERING
FIELD VALUEBLOCK
POINTER

1		•
2		•
3		•
4		•
5		•
6		•
8		•

Figure 14.3

Clustering index with a separate block cluster for each group of records that share the same value for the clustering field.



Types of Single-Level Indexes

■ Secondary Index

- A secondary index provides a secondary means of accessing a file for which some primary access already exists.
- The secondary index may be on a field which is a candidate key and has a unique value in every record, or a non-key with duplicate values.
- The index is an ordered file with two fields.
 - The first field is of the same data type as some **non-ordering field** of the data file that is an indexing field.
 - The second field is either a **block** pointer or a record pointer.
 - There can be *many* secondary indexes (and hence, indexing fields) for the same file.
- Includes one entry *for each record* in the data file; hence, it is a *dense index*.
- Needs more storage space and longer search time than does a primary index.

A dense secondary index (with block pointers) on a nonordering key field of a file.

Index file
($\langle K(i), P(i) \rangle$ entries)

Index field value	Block pointer
1	•
2	•
3	•
4	•
5	•
6	•
7	•
8	•

9	•
10	•
11	•
12	•
13	•
14	•
15	•
16	•

17	•
18	•
19	•
20	•
21	•
22	•
23	•
24	•

Data file

Indexing field
(secondary
key field)

	9				
	5				
	13				
	8				

	6				
	15				
	3				
	17				

	21				
	11				
	16				
	2				

	24				
	10				
	20				
	1				

	4				
	23				
	18				
	14				

	12				
	7				
	19				
	22				

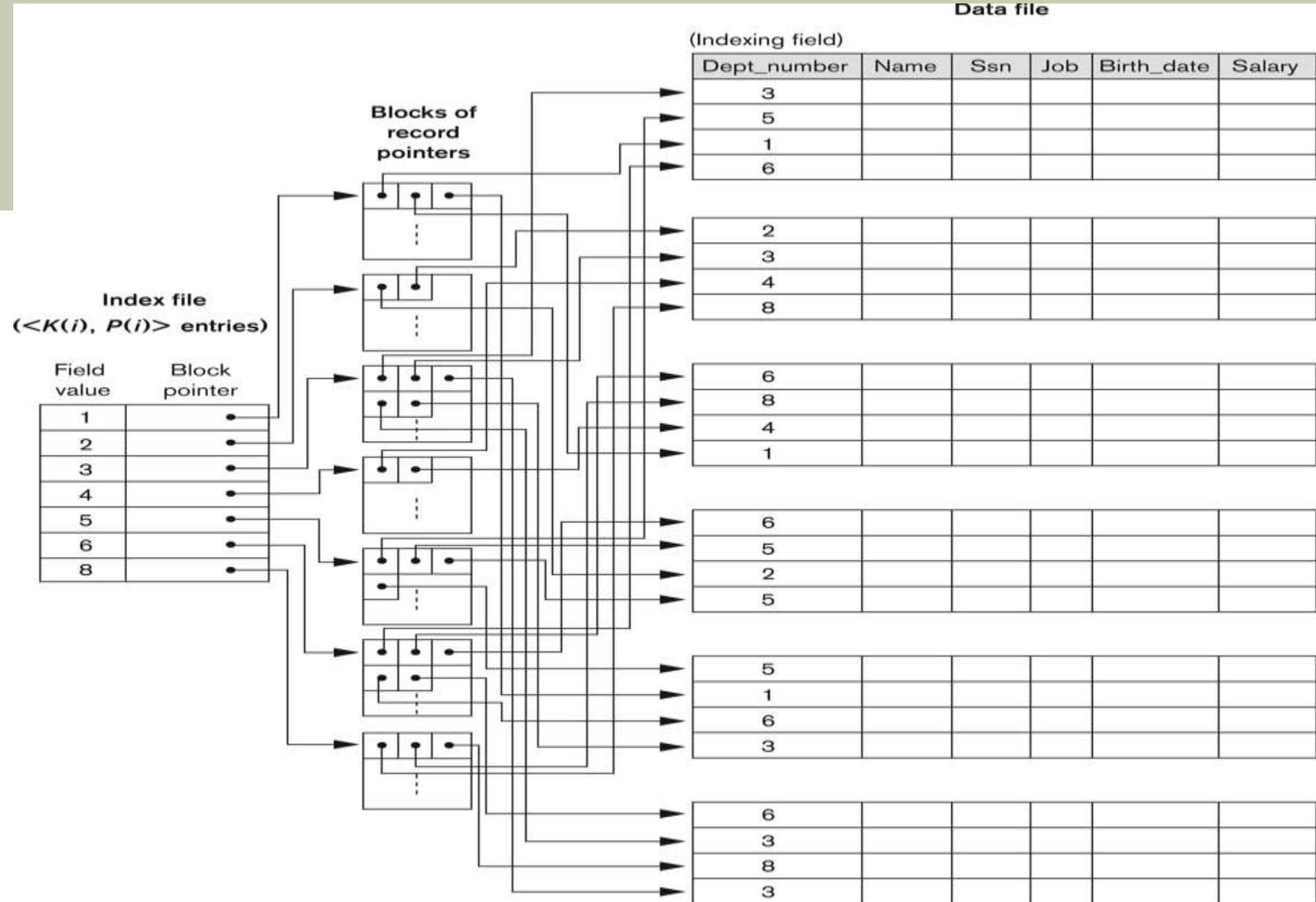


Figure 14.5

A secondary index (with record pointers) on a nonkey field implemented using one level of indirection so that index entries are of fixed length and have unique field values.

Properties of Index Types

TABLE 14.2 PROPERTIES OF INDEX TYPES

TYPE OF INDEX	NUMBER OF (FIRST-LEVEL) INDEX ENTRIES	DENSE OR NONDENSE	BLOCK ANCHORING ON THE DATA FILE
Primary	Number of blocks in data file	Nondense	Yes
Clustering	Number of distinct index field values	Nondense	Yes/no ^a
Secondary (key)	Number of records in data file	Dense	No
Secondary (nonkey)	Number of records ^b or Number of distinct index field values ^c	Dense or Nondense	No

^aYes if every distinct value of the ordering field starts a new block; no otherwise.

^bFor option 1.

^cFor options 2 and 3.