



International University, VNU-HCMC

School of Computer Science and Engineering

Lecture 3: ER – Relational Translation

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Acknowledgement

- The following slides have been created by adapting materials from the [GUW] book provided by the authors, Prof. Jeffrey D. Ullman and others.
- Other slides are referenced from Northeastern University and Duke University.



Purpose of the Lecture

- To explain how to translate Entity–Relationship (ER) models into Relational Schemas.
- To provide a step-by-step method for mapping entities, attributes, and relationships.
- To ensure students can design relational databases that accurately represent real-world requirements.



Warm-up Question

- Why do we need to translate an ER diagram into a relational model?



Outlines

- Introduction
- Mapping Rules Overview
- Detailed Mapping Cases
- Examples

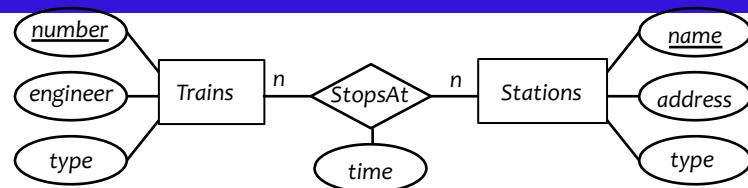


ER model: review

Design ERD

- Notation
- Entity/ Weak entity
- Attributes
- Relationship
 - Attributes on relationships
 - Multiplicity
 - Binary versus n-ary relationships
 - ISA relationships

Example



You designed an ER diagram



Translate it to a Relational Database

Train (number, engineer, type)
Station (name, address, type)
TrainStop (train_number, station_name, time)

Introduction

- Purpose of ER-to-Relational Translation
- Role in Database Design Process



Purpose of ER-to-Relational Translation

- The ER model is used for conceptual design: it helps us represent entities, relationships, and constraints clearly.
- However, a DBMS cannot directly implement an ER diagram.
- This step ensures that the logical design matches the real-world requirements captured in the ER diagram.



Role in Database Design Process

- Build an ER diagram to model the real-world domain.
- Translate the ER model into a relational schema (tables, attributes, keys, constraints).
- Implement the relational schema in a DBMS using SQL.
- Optimize storage, indexing, and performance.



Mapping Rules Overview



Step 1: Regular Entity Types

Create a relation (Table)

- For each strong entity type, make a table.
- Include all simple attributes (including simple attributes of composite relations).

Choose a primary key

- Pick one key attribute as the primary key.
- If the key is composite, use all its simple attributes together.

Keep other keys unique

- Any other key attributes become secondary unique keys.
- These are useful for indexing and faster queries.



Step 2: Weak Entity Types

Create a Relation (Table)

- For each weak entity, make a table.
- Include all its simple attributes.

Add Foreign Key

- Insert the primary key of the owner entity as a foreign key in this table.

Define Primary Key

- The primary key of the weak entity table is:
 - The owner's primary key (from the foreign key), plus
 - The partial key of the weak entity (if it exists).



Step 3: Mapping Binary 1-to-1

Choose One Relation as “S”

- The other relation is “T”.
- Prefer S if it has total participation (reduces NULL values).

Add Relationship Attributes

- Put all the simple attributes of the relationship into S.

Add Foreign Key

- Insert the primary key of T as a foreign key in S.





Step 4: Binary 1-to-N

Identify S (the N-side)

- Choose the entity on the many (N) side as relation S.
- The other entity is relation T.

Add Foreign Key

- Insert the primary key of T as a foreign key in S.

Alternative Approach

- Create a separate relationship table (less common for 1-to-N).



Step 5: Binary M-to-N

Create a New Relation (Table)

- This is called a relationship table.

Add Foreign Keys

- Include the primary keys of both participating entities as foreign keys.
- Together, they form the primary key of the new table.

Add Relationship Attributes

- Any simple attributes of the M:N relationship are added to this table.



Step 6: Multivalued Attributes

Create a New Relation (Table)

- For each multivalued attribute.

Add Foreign Key

- Include the primary key of the original entity as a foreign key.

Add Attribute(s)

- Insert the multivalued attribute (if composite, use its simple parts).
- The primary key = (foreign key + multivalued attribute).



Step 7: Specialization/Generalization

Multiple relations – subclass and superclass

- Usually works (assumes unique ID at parent)

Multiple relations – subclass only

- Should only be used for disjoint

Single relation with one type attribute

- Only for disjoint, can result in many NULLs

Single relation with multiple type attributes

- Better for overlapping, could be disjoint

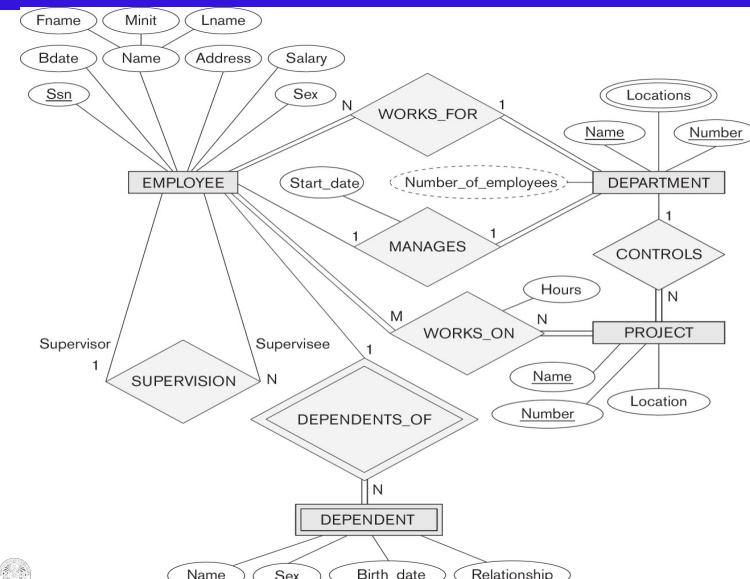




Detailed Mapping Cases

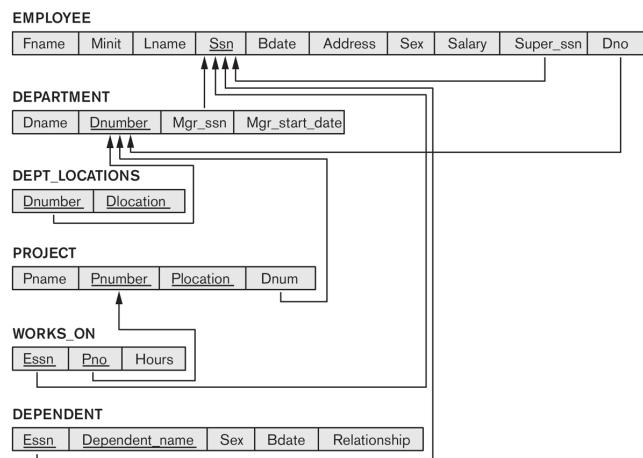


Detailed Mapping Cases





Resulting Relational Schema



Step 1: Regular Entity Types

Create a relation (Table)

- For each strong entity type, make a table.
- Include all simple attributes (including simple attributes of composite relations).

Choose a primary key

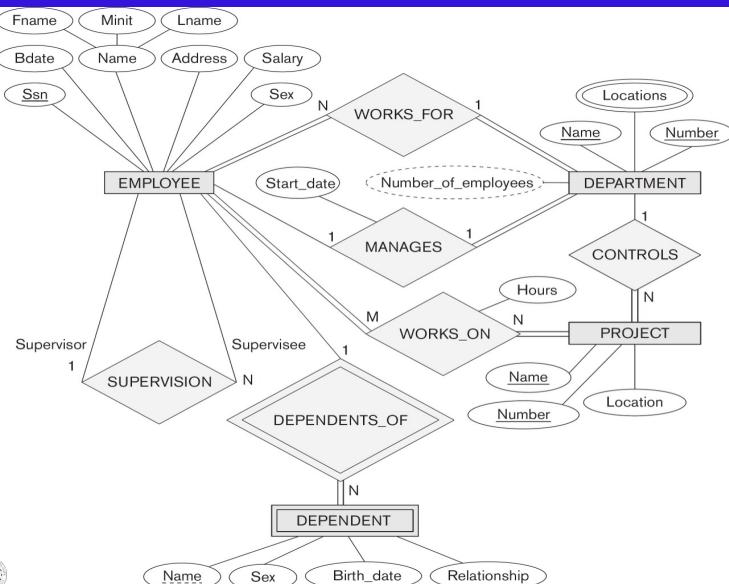
- Pick one key attribute as the primary key.
- If the key is composite, use all its simple attributes together.

Keep other keys unique

- Any other key attributes become secondary unique keys.
- These are useful for indexing and faster queries.



Detailed Mapping Cases



24



Step 1 Result

EMPLOYEE

Fname	Minit	Lname	<u>Ssn</u>	Bdate	Address	Sex	Salary
-------	-------	-------	------------	-------	---------	-----	--------

DEPARTMENT

Dname	<u>Dnumber</u>
-------	----------------

PROJECT

Pname	<u>Pnumber</u>	Plocation
-------	----------------	-----------

25

Step 2: Weak Entity Types

Create a Relation (Table)

- For each weak entity, make a table.
- Include all its simple attributes.

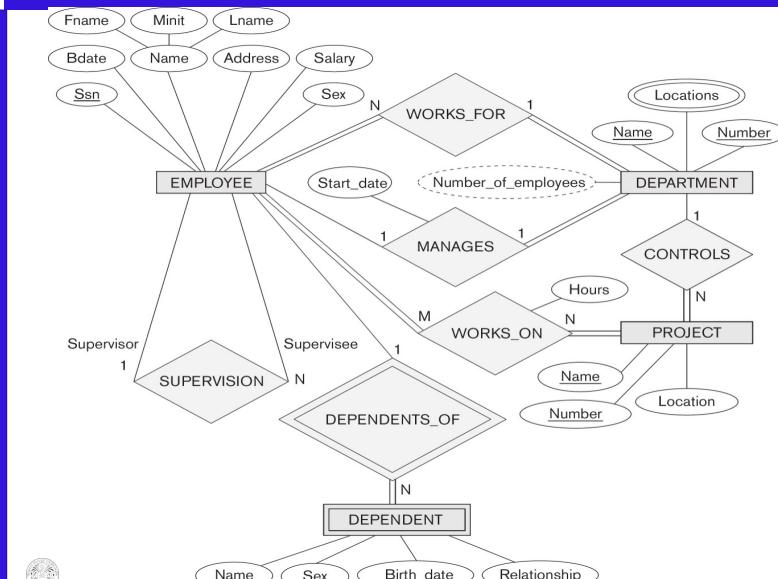
Add Foreign Key

- Insert the primary key of the owner entity as a foreign key in this table.

Define Primary Key

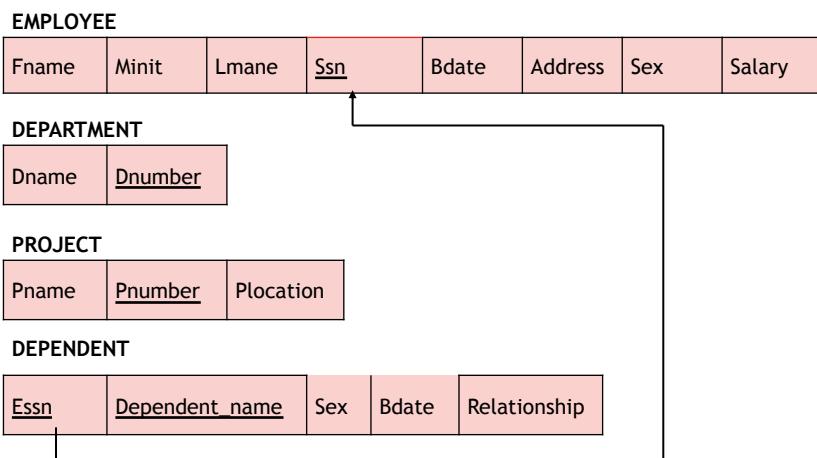
- The primary key of the weak entity table is:
 - The owner's primary key (from the foreign key), plus
 - The partial key of the weak entity (if it exists).

Detailed Mapping Cases





Step 2 Result



Step 3: Mapping Binary 1-to-1

Choose One Relation as “S”

- The other relation is “T”.
- Prefer S if it has total participation (reduces NULL values).

Add Relationship Attributes

- Put all the simple attributes of the relationship into S.

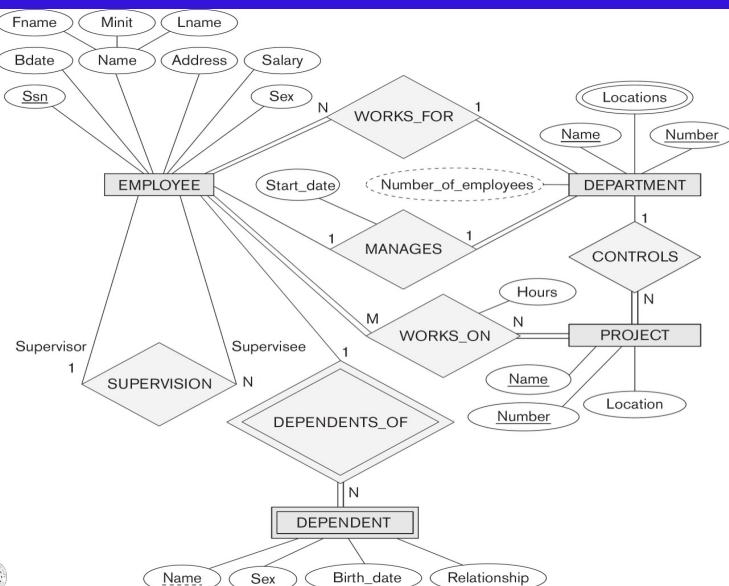
Add Foreign Key

- Insert the primary key of T as a foreign key in S.





Detailed Mapping Cases



30



Step 2 Result

EMPLOYEE

Fname	Minit	Lname	Ssn	Bdate	Address	Sex	Salary
-------	-------	-------	-----	-------	---------	-----	--------

DEPARTMENT

Dname	Dnumber
-------	---------

31



Step 3 Result

EMPLOYEE

Fname	Minit	Lname	<u>Ssn</u>	Bdate	Address	Sex	Salary
-------	-------	-------	------------	-------	---------	-----	--------

DEPARTMENT

Dname	<u>Dnumber</u>	Mgr_ssn	Mgr_start_date
-------	----------------	---------	----------------



Step 4: Binary 1-to-N

Identify S (the N-side)

- Choose the entity on the many (N) side as relation S.
- The other entity is relation T.

Add Foreign Key

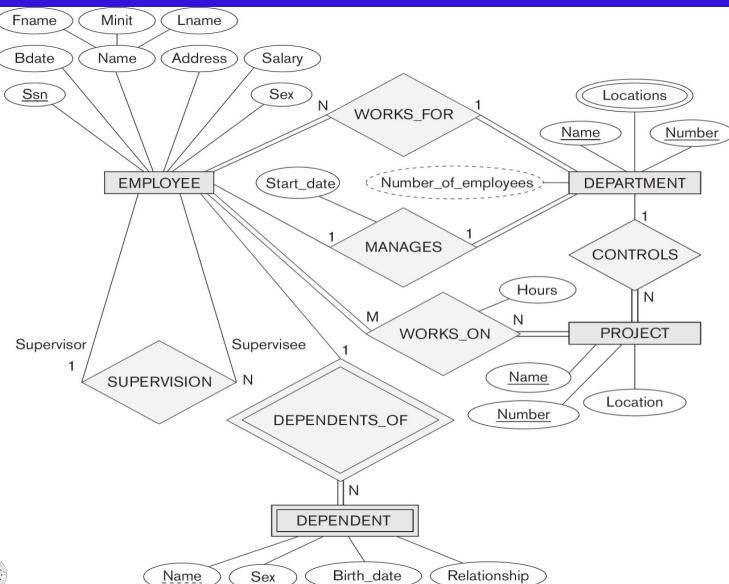
- Insert the primary key of T as a foreign key in S.

Alternative Approach

- Create a separate relationship table (less common for 1-to-N).



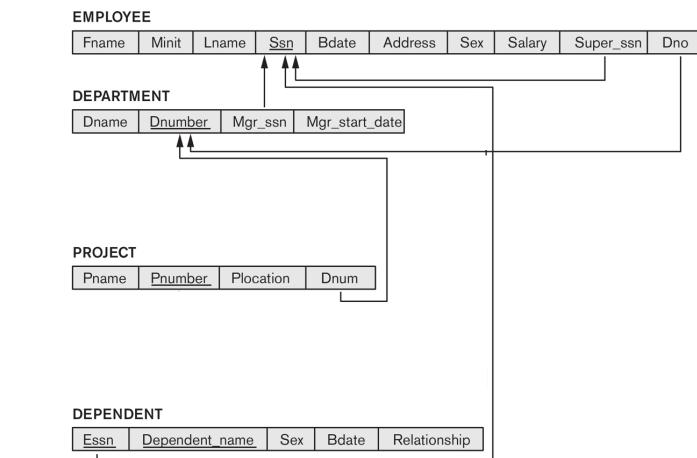
Detailed Mapping Cases



34



Step 4 Result



35

Step 5: Binary M-to-N

Create a New Relation (Table)

- This is called a relationship table.

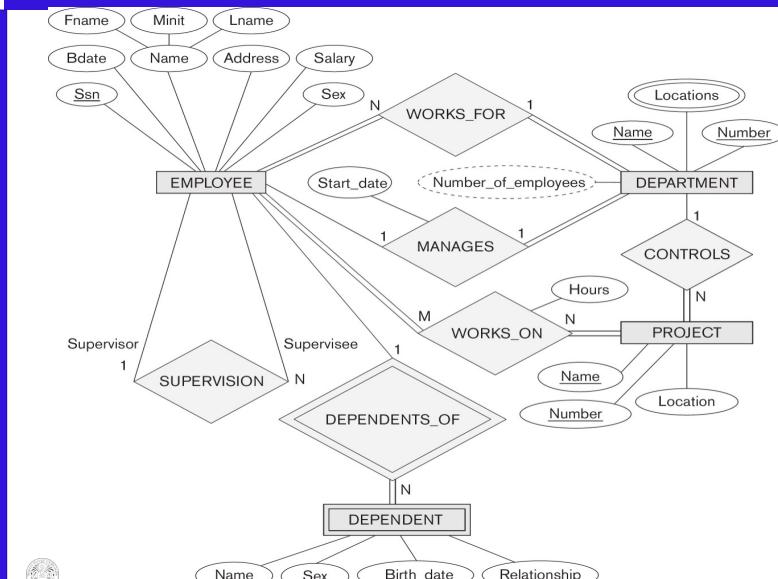
Add Foreign Keys

- Include the primary keys of both participating entities as foreign keys.
- Together, they form the primary key of the new table.

Add Relationship Attributes

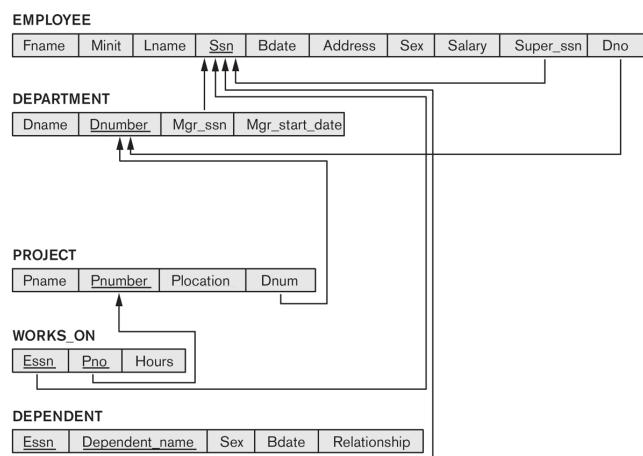
- Any simple attributes of the M:N relationship are added to this table.

Detailed Mapping Cases





Step 5 Result



Step 6: Multivalued Attributes

Create a New Relation (Table)

- For each multivalued attribute.

Add Foreign Key

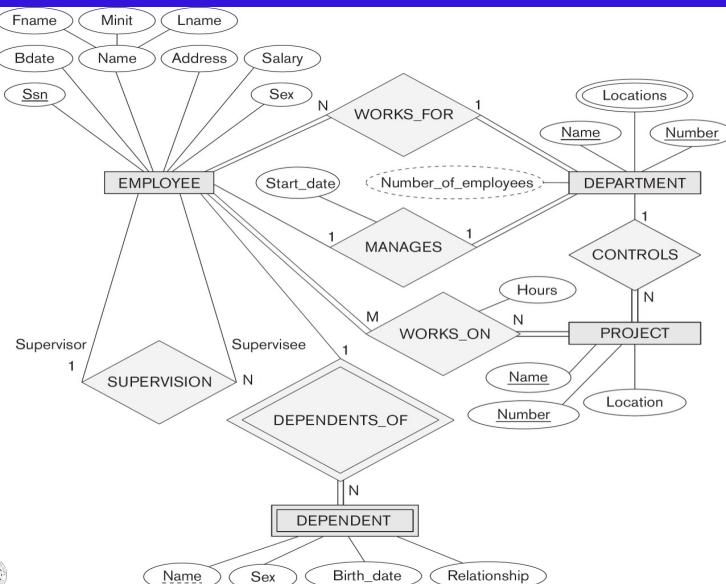
- Include the primary key of the original entity as a foreign key.

Add Attribute(s)

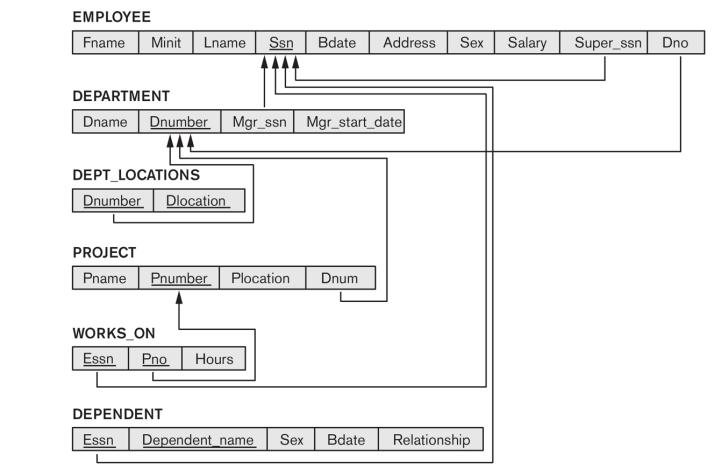
- Insert the multivalued attribute (if composite, use its simple parts).
- The primary key = (foreign key + multivalued attribute).



Detailed Mapping Cases



Step 6 Result



Step 7: Specialization/Generalization

Multiple relations – subclass and superclass

- Usually works (assumes unique ID at parent)

Multiple relations – subclass only

- Should only be used for disjoint

Single relation with one type attribute

- Only for disjoint, can result in many NULLs

Single relation with multiple type attributes

- Better for overlapping, could be disjoint

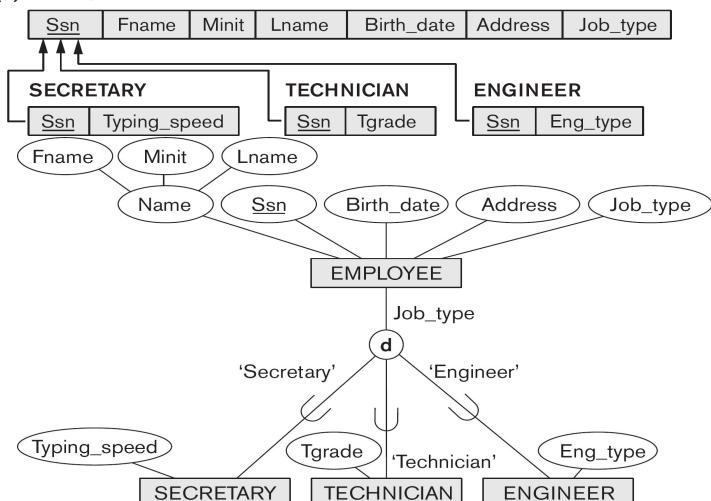


Specialization/Generalization (A)

Multiple relations – subclass and superclass

Usually works (assumes unique ID at parent)

(a) EMPLOYEE



Specialization/Generalization (B)

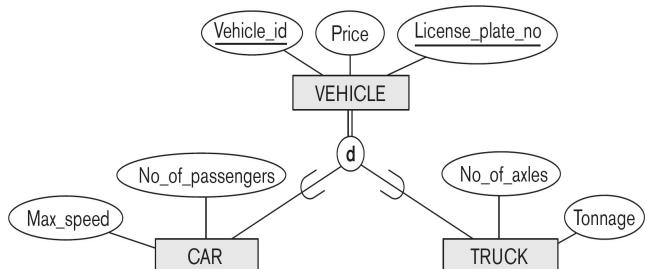
Multiple relations – subclass only
Should only be used for disjoint

CAR

<u>Vehicle_id</u>	License_plate_no	Price	Max_speed	No_of_passengers
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TRUCK

<u>Vehicle_id</u>	License_plate_no	Price	No_of_axles	Tonnage
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44

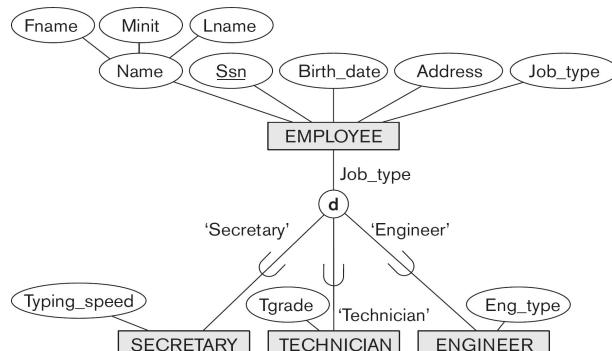
Specialization/Generalization (C)

Single relation with one type attribute

Only for disjoint, can result in many NULLs

EMPLOYEE

Ssn	Fname	Minit	Lname	Birth_date	Address	Job_type	Typing_speed	Tgrade	Eng_type
-----	-------	-------	-------	------------	---------	----------	--------------	--------	----------



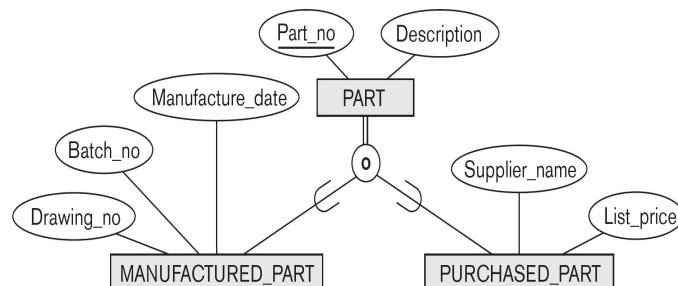
45

Specialization/Generalization (D)

Single relation with multiple type attributes
Better for overlapping, could be disjoint

PART

Part_no	Description	Mflag	Drawing_no	Manufacture_date	Batch_no	Pflag	Supplier_name	List_price
---------	-------------	-------	------------	------------------	----------	-------	---------------	------------



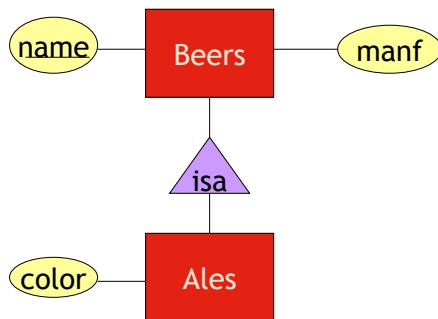
46

Subclasses: Three Approaches

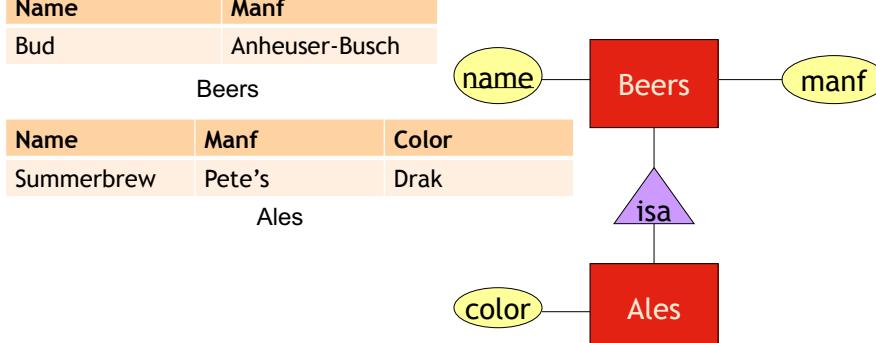
1. **Object-oriented:** One relation per subset of subclasses, with all relevant attributes.
2. **Use nulls:** One relation; entities have NULL in attributes that don't belong to them.
3. **E/R style:** One relation for each subclass:
 - Key attribute(s).
 - Attributes of that subclass.

47

Example: Subclass → Relations



Object-Oriented



Good for queries like “find the color of ales made by Pete’s.”



E/R Style

Name	Manf
Bud	Anheuser-Busch
Summerbrew	Pete's

Beers

Name	Color
Summerbrew	Drak

Ales

Good for queries like “find all beers (including ales) made by Pete’s.”

50



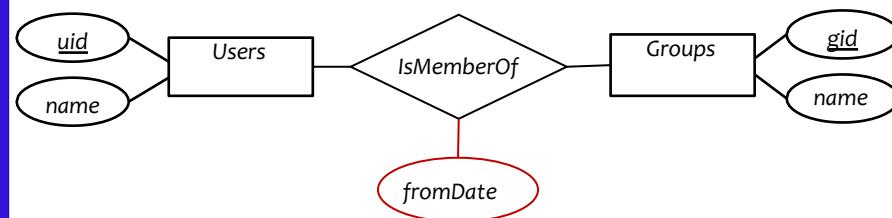
Using Nulls

Name	Manf	Color
Bud	Anheuser-Busch	Null
Summerbrew	Pete's	Drak

Saves space unless there are lots of attributes that are usually NULL.

51

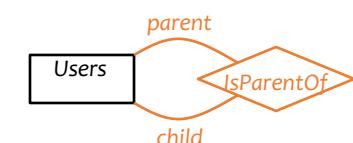
Examples



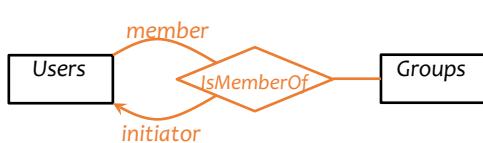
- Where do the dates go?
 - With **Users**?
 - But a user can join multiple groups on different dates
 - With **Groups**?
 - But different users can join the same group on different dates
 - **With IsMemberOf!**

52

More examples



Parent (parent_uid, child_uid)

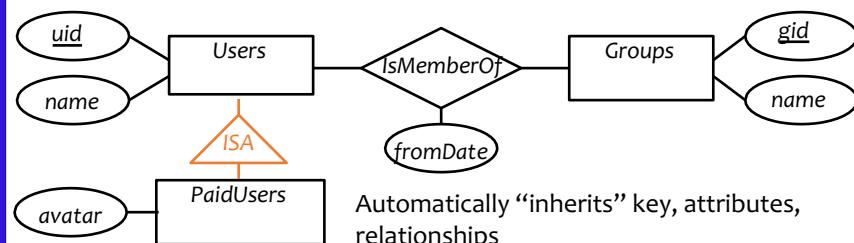


Member (uid, initiator_uid, gid)

53

ISA relationships

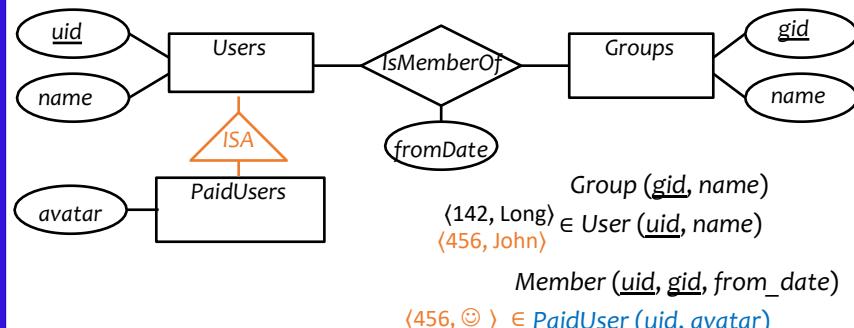
- Similar to the idea of subclasses in object-oriented programming: subclass = special case, fewer entities, and possibly more properties
 - Represented as a triangle (direction is important)
- Example: paid users are users, but they also get avatars (yay!)



54

Translating subclasses & ISA: approach 1

- Entity-in-all-superclasses** approach (“E/R style”)
 - An entity is represented in the table for each subclass to which it belongs
 - A table includes only the attributes directly attached to the corresponding entity set, plus the inherited key



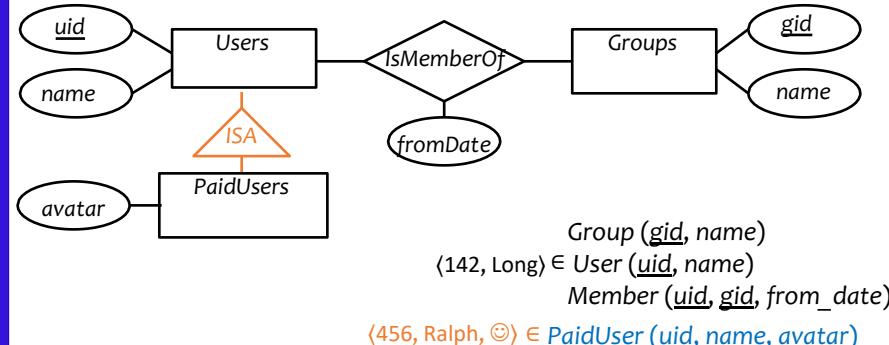
55

Translating subclasses & ISA: approach 2

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- Entity-in-most-specific-class approach (“OO style”)

- An entity is only represented in one table (the most specific entity set to which the entity belongs)
- A table includes the attributes attached to the corresponding entity set, plus all inherited attributes



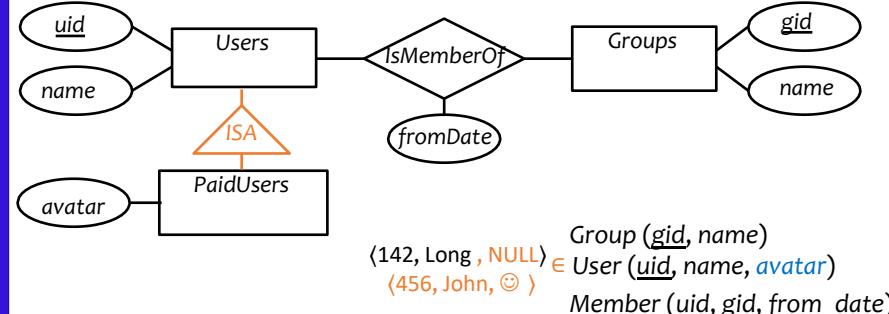
56

Translating subclasses & ISA: approach 3

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- All-entities-in-one-table approach (“NULL style”)

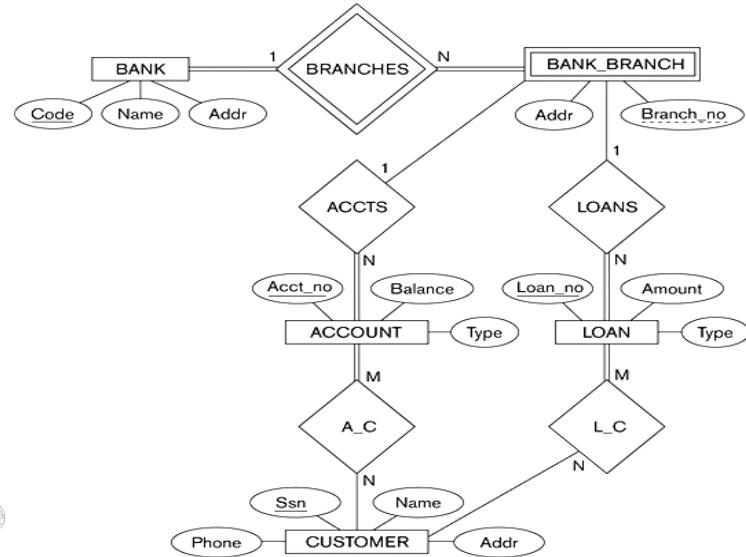
- One relation for the root entity set, with all attributes found in the network of subclasses (plus a “type” attribute when needed)
- Use a special NULL value in columns that are not relevant for a particular entity



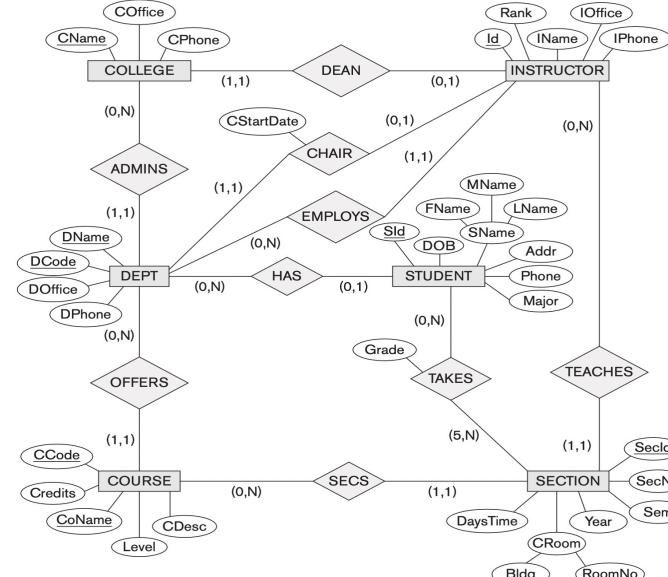
57



Example ERD



Example ERD





Thank you for your attention!