Database Systems – Design Theory

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Design Theory of Relational Databases

Overview:

- Problems with "bad" designs.
- Motivation for splitting schemes
 - systematic splitting.
 - lossy join and lossless join decomposition.
- Integrity constraints as guidelines for doing "good" decompositions.
- Functional dependencies (FDs) superkeys and keys.
- Theory of FDs
 - axiomatization.
 - closure.
- Normal forms.

Problems with "bad" designs

- storage redundancy.
- potential for inconsistency.
- insertion anomaly certain meaningful insertions are not possible.
- deletion anomaly "unexpected" loss of information with certain deletions.

Example 1:

empl_proj(name, id, bdate, addr, gender, sal, dno, pno, pname, plocation, hours)

Problems:

- employee information repeated once for each project (s)he works on.
- project information repeated for every employee working on it.
- \Rightarrow enormous redundancy.
- \Rightarrow concomitant potential for inconsistency.

For example: If an employee moves \rightarrow changes and its consequences.

Example 2:

emp_info(name, id, bdate, gender, sal, dno, depen_name, dgender, dbdate, relationship}

- can't insert new employees unless they have dependents!
- solution! Use NULL values \rightarrow complicates query processing.

Example 3:

Suppose materials are supplied by various suppliers to our company.

suppliers(sname, saddr, dno, item, qty, price)

when some supplier ceases to supply anything to the company (momentarily), will loose his address – deletion anomaly. Solutions to problems:

Example (1) Split empl_proj into

- emp(name, id, ..., dno).
- project(pno, pname, plocation, dno).
- e-p(id, pno, hours).

Example (2) Split emp-info into

- emp(name, id, ..., dno).
- dependents(id, ..., relationship).

Example (3) Split suppliers into

- supplierinfo(sname, saddr).
- supplyinfo(sname, dno, item, qty, price).

The problems go away upon splitting.

Moral: Split "big" relation schemes.

But how? Any splitting is good?

$$\text{suppliers} = \begin{cases} \frac{sname}{John} & \frac{saddr}{a_1} & \frac{dno}{d_1} & i_1 & 100 & p_1 \\ \frac{John}{John} & a_1 & d_2 & i_1 & 200 & p_1 \\ \frac{John}{John} & a_1 & d_2 & i_2 & 100 & p_2 \\ \frac{Mary}{Mary} & a_2 & d_1 & i_2 & 150 & p_3 \\ \frac{Mary}{Mary} & a_2 & d_2 & i_3 & 300 & p_4 \end{cases}$$

Consider splitting into

 R_1 (sname, addr, dno), and R_2 (dno, item, qty, price).

The decomposed relations will not represent the same info as the original relation — information loss.

Compare r with $\Pi_{R_1}(r) \bowtie \Pi_{R_2}(r)$.

Always $r \subseteq \Pi_{R_1}(r) \bowtie \Pi_{R_2}(r)$. Why?

However, $\Pi_{R_1}(r) \bowtie \Pi_{R_2}(r)$ contains some extra tuples.

- Tuples which are not true wrt r.

For example, $< John, a_1, d_1, i_2, 150, p_3 >$ (and many others) is such an extra tuple in $\Pi_{R_1}(r) \bowtie \Pi_{R_2}(r)$.

lossy join decomposition.

However,

 R_3 = supplierinfo(sname, saddr), and R_4 = supplyinfo(sname, dno, item, qty, price).

is a lossless join decomposition.

Intuition: Associated with each supplier is a unique saddr.

In general, a decomposition of a relation scheme is:

$$R \to \begin{cases} R_1 \\ \vdots \\ R_m \end{cases}$$

$$R_i \subseteq R$$
, and $\bigcup_{i=1}^m R_i = R$.

For a decomposition as above and for any instance r(R),

always
$$-r \subseteq \Pi_{R_1}(r) \bowtie \ldots \bowtie \Pi_{R_m}(r)$$
.

When $r \not\subseteq "RHS" \to \text{decomposition}$ is lossy join.

When r = "RHS", \forall instance r, decomposition is lossless join.

Note: If there are no constraints, all decompositions are lossy join!

For each "sname", \exists a unique "saddr" — an example of a constraint.

For all instances satisfying this constraint, the decomposition

$$suppliers \rightarrow \begin{cases} R_3 = supplierinfo(sname, saddr) \\ R_4 = supplyinfo(sname, dno, item, qty, price) \end{cases}$$

(on slide 7) is a lossless join.

 \Rightarrow Integrity constraints. — Functional Dependencies (FDs). \rightarrow a generalization of the notion of keys.

Example 4:

 $sname \rightarrow saddr$

Explanation (the connections between FDs and keys): In general, R – relation scheme.

$$X, Y \subseteq R$$
. $X \to Y$.

Example 5:

In emp(name, id, bdate, addr, gender, sal, dno)

```
\begin{split} id &\to name. \\ id &\to bdate. \\ \vdots \\ \{name, addr\} &\to id. \\ \{name, addr\} &\to bdate. \\ \vdots \end{split}
```

Let
$$X, Y \subseteq R$$
. $r(R)$ satisfies $X \to Y$ if $\forall t_i, t_j \in r$, $t_i[X] = t_j[X] \Rightarrow t_i[Y] = t_j[Y]$.

Example 6:

$$r = \begin{cases} \frac{A & B & C}{a_1 & b_1 & c_1} \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_2 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_3 \\ a_2 & b_3 & c_3 \end{cases}$$

r satisfies: $B \to A$ and $C \to A$.

But not: $A \to B \text{ and } A \to C$

Why?

- Specifier of a database application supplies integrity constraints in informal language.
- Designer formalizes (some of) them as FDs.
- Constraints are meant to be enforced all the time.
- FDs can be used to determine candidate keys, and the process can be automated for large applications.
- Need to study logical interaction of FDs and to reason about them.
- ⇒ Armstrong's Axiom Systems for FDs.

Logical implications of FDs

Example 7:

Let r(ABC) be a relation, and $F = \{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C\}.$

Claim: Every r satisfying F has to satisfy $A \rightarrow C$.

- informal argument (?).

In this case we write, $F \models A \rightarrow C$. (i.e., F logically implies $A \rightarrow C$).

- Given F, we need to know FDs implied by F in order to determine keys (and for other purposes too).
- Need a mechanism for determining these logical implications.

Armstrong's Axiom System for FDs

Let U = set of all attributes.

Axioms: trivial FDs.

Inference rules: what are they?

Axioms:

- Reflexivity: If $X, Y \subseteq U$ and $Y \subseteq X$, then $X \to Y$ always holds.

• Inference Rules:

- Augmentation: If $X \to Y$ and $Z \subseteq W \subseteq U$, then $XW \to YZ$.
- Transitivity: If $X \to Y$ and $Y \to Z$, then $X \to Z$.

This axiom system is sound (meaning?) and complete (meaning?).

Example 8:

Let
$$U = \{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, A_5\}$$
, and $F = \{A_1 \rightarrow A_2, A_2 \rightarrow A_3, A_2A_3 \rightarrow A_4, A_2A_3A_4 \rightarrow A_5\}$.

Prove: $F \models A_1 \rightarrow A_5$.

Proof:

(1)	$A_1 \rightarrow A_2$	given
(2)	$A_2 \rightarrow \overline{A_3}$	given
(3)	$\overline{A_1} \to A_3$	transitivity: 1, 2
(4)	$A_1 \rightarrow A_1 A_2$	augmentation: 1
(5)	$A_1A_2 \xrightarrow{\longrightarrow} A_2A_3$	augmentation: 3
(6)	$\overline{A_1 \to} A_2 A_3$	transitivity: 4, 5
(7)	$A_2A_3 \xrightarrow{\overline{A_4}}$	given
(8)	$A_2A_3 \to A_2A_3A_4$	augmentation: 7
(9)	$\overline{A_1 \to} A_2 A_3 A_4$	transitivity: 6, 8
(10)	$A_2A_3\overline{A_4 \to A_5}$	given
(11)	$\overline{A_1 \to A_5}$	transitivity: 9, 10

Example 9:

For F and U on slide 14, consider the FD $A_2A_3A_4A_5 \rightarrow A_1$.

Claim: $F \not\models A_2A_3A_4A_5 \rightarrow A_1$.

Proof: By counterexample.

$$r = \begin{cases} A_1 & A_2 & A_3 & A_4 & A_5 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{cases}$$

r satisfies every FD in F, but it violates

$$A_2A_3A_4A_5 \to A_1.$$

Additional Inference Rules for FDs

- Why need them?
 - convenience in making inferences.
- Additional inference rules
 - derivable from Armstrong inference system implications.

Let $X, Y, Z \subseteq U$.

Union Rule: If $X \to Y$ and $X \to Z$ hold, then $X \to YZ$ holds. Recall $YZ = Y \cup Z$.

Decomposition Rule: If $X \to YZ$ holds, then $X \to Y$ and $X \to Z$ hold. (Dual of union rule)

Pseudo-transitivity Rule: If $X \to Y$ and $YZ \to W$ hold, then $XZ \to W$ holds.

- Explain and derive.

Example 10: Revisit of Example 8.

Let
$$U = \{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, A_5\}$$
, and $F = \{A_1 \rightarrow A_2, A_2 \rightarrow A_3, A_2A_3 \rightarrow A_4, A_2A_3A_4 \rightarrow A_5\}$.

Prove: $F \models A_1 \rightarrow A_5$.

Proof:

(1)
$$A_1 \rightarrow A_2$$
 given

(2)
$$A_2 \rightarrow \overline{A_3}$$
 given

(2)
$$\underline{A_2} \rightarrow \overline{A_3}$$
 given
(3) $A_1 \rightarrow A_3$ transitivity: 1, 2
(4) $A_1 \rightarrow \underline{A_2}A_3$ union: 1, 3

(4)
$$A_1 \to A_2 A_3$$
 union: 1, 3

(5)
$$\underline{A_2A_3} \xrightarrow{A_4}$$
 given

(6)
$$\overline{A_1 \rightarrow A_4}$$
 transitivity: 4, 5

(7)
$$A_1 \to A_2 A_3 A_4$$
 union: 4, 6

(8)
$$\underline{A_2A_3A_4} \rightarrow A_5$$
 given

(9)
$$\overline{A_1 \rightarrow A_5}$$
 transitivity: 7, 8

- much simpler than using only Armstrong's rules.

explanation.

Closure

F – a set of FDs.

$$F^* = \{X \to Y \mid F \models X \to Y\}.$$

- the logical (or consequence) closure of F
- explanation.

More importantly:

F – a set of FDs.

 $X \subseteq U$ — a set of attributes.

The <u>closure</u> of X wrt F is $X_F^+ = \{A \in U \mid F \models X \to A\}$

Recall: A – denotes individual attributes

Example 11:

Let
$$U = \{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, A_5\}$$
, $X = \{A_1\}$, and $F = \{A_1 \rightarrow A_2, A_2 \rightarrow A_3, A_2A_3 \rightarrow A_4, A_2A_3A_4 \rightarrow A_5\}$.

Then,

$$X_F^+ = (A_1)_F^+ = \{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, A_5\} = U$$

 $\Rightarrow A_1$ is a superkey of U (wrt F). In fact, will see that A_1 is a key.

Note: When F is understood, denote closure by X^+ .

Notice that closure \rightarrow superkeys \rightarrow keys

- closure related to keys.
- how to compute it?
 - inference system (e.g., Armstrong's) for FDs \rightarrow sound and complete.
 - useful in computing closure.

Algorithm Closure(X, F):

Input: set of FDs F, and set of attributes X; Output: X^+ ;

begin

- (1) closure := X;
- (2) while there is an FD: $W \to Z \in F$ such that $W \subseteq closure$ and $Z \not\subseteq closure$ do $closure := closure \cup Z$
- (3) return *closure*; end

Example 12:

$$F = \{A_1 \to A_2, A_2 \to A_3, A_2A_3 \to A_4, A_2A_3A_4 \to A_5\}.$$

$$X = \{A_1\}.$$

Compute
$$X^+$$
: $A_1 \stackrel{1}{\Rightarrow} A_1 A_2 \stackrel{2}{\Rightarrow} A_1 A_2 A_3$
 $\stackrel{3}{\Rightarrow} A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4 \stackrel{4}{\Rightarrow} A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4 A_5$

Remarks:

- (1) $A \in X^+$ iff $F \models X \to A$.
- (2) X is a superkey of U wrt F iff $X^+ = U$.
- We have a (yet another) very quick proof that $F \models A_1 \rightarrow A_5$.
- (3) Thus a key of U wrt FDs F is any minimal $X \subseteq U$ such that $X^+ = U$.

Determining all keys for a relation scheme wrt FDs

Example 13:

Let B = Broker, O = Office, I = Investor, S = Stock, Q = Quantity, and D = Dividend paid by a stock.

FDs: $F = \{S \to D, I \to B, IS \to Q, B \to Q\}.$

Find all keys of U = BOISQD. Justify your answer.

Idea: Start with the biggest superkey of U – which is U itself.

- Throw away an attribute A from current-set if (current-set $-\{A\}$)⁺ contains A.
- repeat until no change.

$$BOISQD$$
 \downarrow throw out Q since $Q \in (BOISD)^+$
 $BOISD$
 \downarrow throw out D since $D \in (BOIS)^+$
 $BOIS$
 \downarrow throw out B since $B \in (OIS)^+$
 OIS — can't discard any more attributes

What next:

- (1) Show OIS is a key.
- (2) Show it is the only key.

Knowledge about keys — essential for "normal forms"

(a) OIS is a superkey:

$$(OIS)^+$$
:
 $OIS \stackrel{1}{\Rightarrow} OISD \stackrel{2}{\Rightarrow} OISDB \stackrel{3}{\Rightarrow} OISDBQ = U.$

(b) OIS is a minimal superkey:

Sufficient to consider X-A for each $A\in X$ — why?

$$(OI)^+$$
: $OI \Rightarrow OIB \Rightarrow OIBQ \neq U$.

$$(OS)^+$$
: $OS \Rightarrow OSD \neq U$.

$$(IS)^+$$
: $IS \Rightarrow ISD \Rightarrow ISDB \Rightarrow ISDBQ \neq U$.

None of the above are superkeys

 $\Rightarrow OIS$ is a minimal superkey, and hence a key.

Covers of sets of FDs

- sets of FDs for an application come from a formalization of end user's informal specifications of the application.
- may contain some redundant information need not be compact.
- FDs used in
 - decomposition of relation schemes \rightarrow normalization.
 - determination of keys.
 - integrity maintenance.
- would be desirable to turn given FDs into equivalent compact form, so above activities can be done more efficiently.

Example 14:

$$F = \{A \to B, AB \to C, AB \to B, AC \to AD\}.$$

F is logically equivalent to

$$G = \{A \to B, A \to C, A \to D\}$$

- informal reasoning.
- -G is more compact than F.

Definition: Let F, G – sets of FDs. F is logically equivalent to G, i.e., $F \equiv G$, if $F^* = G^*$. That is, for every FD $X \to Y \in G$, $F \models X \to Y$ and for every FD $W \to Z \in F$, $G \models W \to Z$.

- equivalence can be tested using (attribute set) closure.
- if $F \equiv G$, they are called *covers* of each other.

Using closure to test if F and G are covers of each other: Revisit previous example.

- 1. $F \models X \rightarrow Y$, for each $X \rightarrow Y \in G$.
 - $(A)_F^+$ contains B.
 - $(A)_F^+$ contains C.
 - $(A)_F^+$ contains D.
- 2. $G \models W \rightarrow Z$, for each $W \rightarrow Z \in F$.
 - $(A)_G^+$ contains B.
 - $(AB)_G^+$ contains C.
 - $(AB)_G^+$ contains B (trivially).
 - $(AC)_G^{\perp}$ contains D.

$$\Rightarrow F \equiv G$$
.

What type of redundancies occur in FD sets (and can be eliminated):

- trivial FDs, like $AB \rightarrow A$ can be eliminated altogether.
- if the given set F has $ABCD \rightarrow E$ and $F \models AB \rightarrow E$, (say) then we can replace $ABCD \rightarrow E$ by $AB \rightarrow E$. This is called left-redundancy.
- in general, it is advantageous to have 1 (one) attribute on the RHS of FDs.
 - \rightarrow an application of the decomposition rule will do the job.

Review of Canonical Covers of FDs

Recall: A set of FDs F is canonical provided

- 1. each FD in F has a single attribute (only) on the RHS.
- 2. F is non-redundant, i.e., \forall FD $X \rightarrow A \in F$, $F \{X \rightarrow A\} \not\models X \rightarrow A$, and
- 3. F is left-reduced, i.e., \forall FD $X \rightarrow A \in F$, $F \not\models Y \rightarrow A$, for any $Y \not\subseteq X$.

 explanation.

Note: Eventhough a given set of FDs F may not be canonical, it always has a cover.

How to compute it?

Method:

- (1) Apply decomposition rule if necessary.
- (2) Remove redundant FDs.
- (3) Left-reduce FDs.

Example:

$$F = \{AB \to C, C \to A, BC \to D, ACD \to B, D \to GE, BE \to C, CG \to B, CE \to AG\}.$$

(1)
$$F \equiv F_1$$
, where $F_1 = \{AB \xrightarrow{1} C, C \xrightarrow{2} A, BC \xrightarrow{3} D, ACD \xrightarrow{4} B, D \xrightarrow{5} G, D \xrightarrow{6} E, BE \xrightarrow{7} C, CG \xrightarrow{8} B, CE \xrightarrow{9} A, CE \xrightarrow{10} G\}$

To see if an FD is redundant, compute the closure of its LHS WITHOUT using the FD.

- (1) To see if $AB \to C$ is redundant, compute $(AB)_{F_1-\{1\}}^+ = AB \Rightarrow 1$ is not redundant. So keep it.
- (2) $(C)_{F_1-\{2\}}^+ = C \Rightarrow 2$ is not redundant.
- (3) $(BC)_{F_1-\{3\}}^+ = BCA \Rightarrow 3$ is not redundant.
- (4) $(ACD)_{F_1-\{4\}}^+ = ACDGE\underline{B} \Rightarrow 4$ is redundant. So, remove it. $\rightarrow F_1 := F_1 \{4\}$.

Similarly, can check that 5-8 are not redundant.

- (9) $(CE)_{F_1-\{9\}}^+ = CE\underline{A}G... \Rightarrow 9$ is redundant. $\to F_1 := F_1 - \{9\}.$
- (10) 10 is not redundant.

Resulting
$$F_1 = \{AB \to C, C \to A, BC \to D, D \to G, D \to E, BE \to C, CG \to B, CE \to G\}.$$

To test left-redundancy:

Take each FD $X \to A \in F_1$. See $F_1 \models (X - B) \to A, \forall B \in X$.

(1) $F_1 \not\models A \to C$ since $(A)_{F_1}^+ \not\ni C$. $F_1 \not\models B \to C$ since $(B)_{F_1}^+ \not\ni C$.

In this example, none of the FDs in F_1 are left-redundant.

So, F_1 is a canonical cover of F.

Example:

$$F = \{A \to B, B \to A, B \to C, AC \to D, AD \to G, BG \to H, BD \to E\}.$$

Can check that none of the FDs in F are redundant.

How about left-redundancy?

(1) is not left-redundant, since $F \not\models \emptyset \rightarrow B$, i.e., $B \not\in \emptyset^+$.

Similarly, (2) and (3) are not left-redundant.

(4) $AC \rightarrow D$.

 $F \not\models C \to D$ since $D \not\in (C)^+$ – not left-redundant. $F \models A \to D$ since $D \in (A)^+ = ABCD...$ – it is left-redundant.

Since $F \models A \rightarrow D$ and F contains the FD $AC \rightarrow D$, this FD is left-redundant. So, replace it by $A \rightarrow D$.

(5)
$$AD \rightarrow G$$
.

 $F \not\models D \to G$ since $G \not\in (D)^+$ – not left-redundant. $F \models A \to G$ since $G \in (A)^+ = ABCDG...$ – it is left-redundant.

So, replace $AD \to G$ by $A \to G$.

Similarly, replace $BG \to H$ by $B \to H$, and $BD \to E$ by $B \to E$.

The resulting set of FDs is

$$F' = \{A \to B, B \to A, B \to C, A \to D, A \to G, B \to H, B \to E\}.$$

Now can check no FD is left-redundant $\Rightarrow F'$ is a canonical cover of F.

Example:

$$F = \{A \xrightarrow{1} B, A \xrightarrow{2} C, AB \xrightarrow{3} C, ABC \xrightarrow{4} D\}.$$

Can check:

Only (3) is redundant. – Why?

- (4) is left-redundant.
- (4) may be initially replaced by say $AB \rightarrow D$. This is still left-redundant.
- \Rightarrow replaced by $A \rightarrow D$
- ⇒ A canonical cover is

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

Design Theory of Relational Databases (Continued)

- A sufficient condition for a (binary) decomposition to be lossless-join.
 Give examples.
- A motivation for *normal forms*.
 - 1NF.
 - 3NF.
 - motivating examples.
- 3NF definition and example.
- Algorithm for a lossless-join 3NF decomposition.
- Preservation of dependencies an example and definition.
- BCNF an example.
- Algorithm for BCNF decomposition.
- Discussion.

A sufficient condition for a (binary) decomposition to be lossless-join.

Binary decomposition of a scheme R with a given set of FDs F.

$$R \to \begin{cases} S_1 \\ S_2 \end{cases}$$

Suppose that $S_1 \cap S_2 \to S_1$ or $S_1 \cap S_2 \to S_2$ is logically implied by F. Then the decomposition above is lossless-join.

Why? - Explain.

Example 1:

Let C= Course, G= Grade, S= Student, and T= Teacher. Let $R=\{CGST\}$ and $F=\{CS\to G,\ C\to T\}$.

$$R = CSGT \to \begin{cases} S_1 = CSG \\ S_2 = CST \end{cases}$$

 $F \models CS \rightarrow G$, $S_1 \cap S_2 = CS$, and thus $F \models CS \rightarrow CSG$. Hence the above decomposition is lossless-join.

A Motivation for Normal Forms

Normal forms – formalization of design anomalies (in insertion, deletion and representation) and their solution.

How many normal forms are there?

```
First Normal Form (1NF)√
Second Normal Form (2NF)
Third Normal Form (3NF)√
Fourth Normal Form (4NF)
Fifth Normal Form (5NF)
Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF)√
Project-Join Normal Form (PJNF)
```

 $\sqrt{\ }$: dealt with in this course.

First Normal Form (1NF)

A relation is in 1NF if each attribute in it has only atomic values (rather than set or tuple values).

Example 2:

Let $R = \{emp, child\}$ and r(R) be

emp	child
Peter	Jeromy
	Joan
	Mary

emp	child
Peter	Jeromy
Peter	Joan
Peter	Mary

Fig 1. Fig 2.

The structuring in Fig 1 is not allowed since \underline{child} has a set value here.

In essence only "normal" tuples are allowed. For example, in 1NF the above information would be represented as in Fig 2.

Third Normal Form (3NF)

Example 3:

Let $R = \{name, id, addr, sal, dno, dname, mgrid\}$ and

```
F = \{\{name, addr\} \rightarrow id, \\ id \rightarrow \{name, addr, sal, dno, dname, mgrid\}, \\ dno \rightarrow \{dname, mgrid\}\}
```

Candidate keys = {name, addr} and id (only keys)

In dno \rightarrow dname, mgrid,

- dno is *not* a superkey.
- dname (mgrid too) is not an element of any candidate key.

What does it mean?

Well those FDs signify some design anomalies:

- * department info (dname and mgrid) wastefully repeated for each emp working in the department. (We are assuming each emp works for one department.)
- * Info about a new emp cannot be stored (without using null values) unless her department (info) is known.

Definition: R – a relation scheme. F – given FDs for R. (Can assume each FD is of the form $X \to A$.)

R is in 3NF, if for each FD $X \rightarrow A$ in F

- ullet either $A \in X$ (in this case, the FD is *trivial*, or
- \bullet X is a superkey of R, or
- A belongs to some candidate key of R.

Example 4:

Let C= Course, G= Grade, S= Student, and T= Teacher. Let $R=\{CGST\}$ and $F=\{C\to T,\ CS\to G\}.$

Assume only one section per course.

Candidate keys = CS (only key).

Consider the FDs:

 $CS \to G$ — no problem wrt 3NF. $C \to T$ — <u>violates</u> 3NF requirement. Why?

Decompose R = CSGT into $S_1 = CT$ and $S_2 = CSG$.

Note: This decomposition is different from the earlier decomposition for R.

- The decomposition is lossless-join (why?).
- S_1 and S_2 are both in 3NF (why?).

Algorithm For Generating a Lossless-Join 3NF Decomposition

Input: a relation scheme R and a set of FDs F on R.

Output: A set S of relation schemes $\{R_1, \ldots, R_m\}$ such that each R_i is in 3NF and the decomposition is lossless-join.

begin

- 1. obtain a canonical cover G for F;
- 2. Let S = ;
- 3. for each FD $X \rightarrow A \in G$ do
 - (a) if none of the relation schemes in S contains XA then create a relation scheme XA and add it to the set S;
- 4. if no relation scheme added in S in step (3) is a superkey, then add some cadidate key K to S;
- 5. Return S; end.

Example 5:

$$F = \{AB \to C, C \to A, BC \to D, ACD \to B, D \to GE, BE \to C, CG \to B, CE \to AG\}.$$

You may check that H below is a canonical cover of F.

$$H = \{AB \to C, C \to A, BC \to D, D \to G, D \to E, BE \to C, CG \to B, CE \to G\}.$$

So, following the algorithm, $\underline{R} = \{ABC, BCD, DG, DE, BEC, CGB, CEG\}$ is the output set of relation schemes.

Also, $(ABC)_H^+ = ABC \stackrel{3}{\Rightarrow} ABCD \stackrel{4}{\Rightarrow} ABCDG \stackrel{5}{\Rightarrow} ABCDEG$.

 \Rightarrow ABC is a superkey.

 $\Rightarrow \underline{R}$ is a lossless-join 3NF decomposition of R = ABCDEG.

Example 5: (Continued)

Further refinements.

• DG and DE were created using FDs $D \rightarrow G$ and $D \rightarrow E$. Both have the same LHS. So, can combine these two into DGE.

Finally, the (output) required lossless-join 3NF decomposition is:

 $\underline{R} = \{ABC, BCD, DGE, BEC, CGB, CEG\}$

Preservation of Dependencies

A Motivating Example

Let R = CSZ, where C =City, S =Street, and Z =Zip code.

$$F = \{CS \to Z, \ Z \to C\}.$$

Suppose R is decomposed into CZ and ZS (notice that this is lossless join). The info for R is maintained in the 2 relations CZ and ZS.

- FDs should be preserved against updates.
 explain.
- Using CZ, we can always preserve $Z \to C$.
- Using ZS, can only "preserve" trivial FDs, like $ZS \rightarrow Z, \dots$
- Only way to see if an insertion violates $CS \to Z$ is to join CZ and ZS and check. — Quite costly

In the previous example, FDs (wrt F) "captured" by ZC are $\{Z \to C\}$, and FDs "captured" by ZS are \emptyset .

Formally, for a decomposition

$$R \to \begin{cases} S_1 \\ S_2 \end{cases}$$

and FDs F for R,

 $\Pi_{S_i}(F) = \{X \to A | A \not\in X \text{ and } XA \subseteq S_i \text{ and } F \models X \to A \text{ (i.e., } A \in X^+)\}, i = 1, 2.$

$$\Pi_{ZC}(F) = \{Z \to C\}.$$

$$\Pi_{ZS}(F) = \emptyset.$$

Note: Always $F \models \Pi_{S_1}(F) \cup \Pi_{S_2}(F)$. Whenever $\Pi_{S_1}(F) \cup \Pi_{S_2}(F) \models F$, we say that the decomposition preserves FDs.

In the above example, $\Pi_{S_1}(F) \cup \Pi_{S_2}(F) \not\models CS \rightarrow Z$. So, this FD is lost.

Note: In the above, we could have

$$R \to \begin{cases} S_1 \\ S_2 \\ \vdots \\ S_n \end{cases} \quad \text{instead of} \quad R \to \begin{cases} S_1 \\ S_2 \end{cases}$$

Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF)

Example

Let R = CSZ, and $F = \{CS \rightarrow Z, Z \rightarrow C\}$.

Only candidate keys = CS and ZS.

In $Z \to C$, Z is not a superkey. Yet, $C \in a$ candidate key, i.e., C is a prime attribute.

 $\Rightarrow CSZ$ is in 3NF.

However, City (name) is repeated once for each Street in the City.

- Redundancy.
- Can't store City info without Street info.

$$\text{In } CSZ \to \left\{ \begin{array}{l} CZ \\ \\ ZS \end{array} \right. \text{ redundancy is avoided.}$$

$$\begin{split} &\Pi_{ZC}(F) = \{Z \to C\}. \\ &\Pi_{ZS}(F) = \emptyset. \\ &Z - \text{a candidate key for } CZ. \end{split}$$

Definition: Let R be a relation scheme, and F be a set of FDs on R. (can assume each FD is of the form $X \to A$.) R is in Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF) if for each $X \to A$ in F,

- \bullet either $A \in X$, i.e., $X \to A$ is a trivial FD, or
- \bullet X is a superkey of R.

Example

CZ and ZS are each in BCNF wrt their FDs, viz., $\{Z \to C\}$ and \emptyset , respectively.

Note: If R is in BCNF wrt F then R is definitely in 3NF wrt F.

- Why?

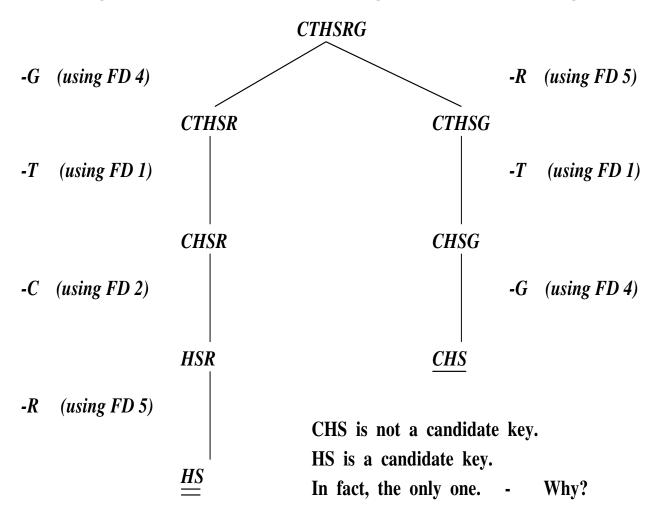
Algorithm for A Lossless-Join BCNF Decomposition of ${\cal R}$

```
Input: R and F
Output: \underline{R} - lossless-join BCNF decomposi-
tion of R.
begin
  let R = \{R\};
  over := false;
  repeat
    if there is a relation scheme S in R that is
     not in BCNF wrt \Pi_S(F) then
       begin
         let X \to A in \Pi_S(F) be the FD
            violating BCNF;
         replace S in \underline{R} by S_1 = XA and
            S_2 = S - A;
       end
    else
       over := true;
  until over;
end;
```

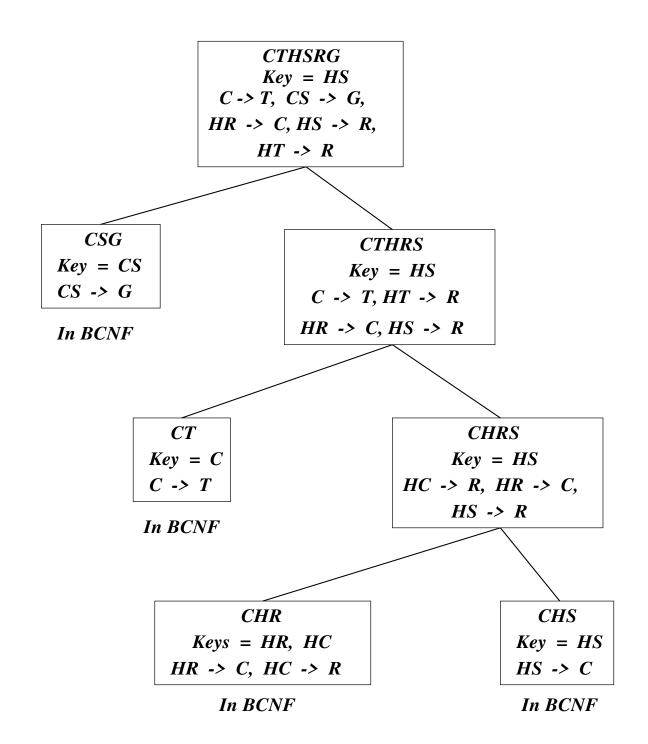
Example

Let R = CTHRSG where C = Course, T = Teacher, H = Hour, R = Room, S = Student, and G = Grade. Let $F = \{C \rightarrow T, HR \rightarrow C, HT \rightarrow R, CS \rightarrow G, HS \rightarrow R\}$.

Step 1: Find **all** candidate keys and prove that what you have are the only candidate keys.



Step 2: Develop the decomposition tree.



Output:

$$\underline{R} = \{CSG, CT, CHR, CHS\}$$

$$\Pi_{CSG}(F) = \{CS \to G\}.$$

$$\Pi_{CT}(F) = \{C \to T\}.$$

$$\Pi_{CHR}(F) = \{CH \to R, HR \to C\}.$$

$$\Pi_{CHS}(F) = \{HS \to C\}.$$

 $\Pi_{CSG}(F) \cup \Pi_{CT}(F) \cup \Pi_{CHR}(F) \cup \Pi_{CHS}(F) \not\models HT \rightarrow R$, where $HT \rightarrow R \in F$.

⇒ This FD is not preserved by decomposition. In other words, this is not a dependency preserving decomposition.