Week 5: Functional Dependency and Normal Forms

L5.1: Relational Database Design Part - I

Features of Good Relational Design

- Reflects real-world structure of the problem
- Can represent all expected data over time
- · Avoids redundancy of data
- · Provides efficient access to data
- Supports the maintainance of data integrity over time
- Clean, consistent, and easy to understand
- Note: These objectives are sometimes contradictory.
 - o For example, redundancy can improve performance, but it can also lead to data integrity problems.

A Good Schema - Example:

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

into one relation

- section(course_id, sec_id, semester, year, building, room_number)
- No redundancy

Redundancy

- Redundancy is the repetition of data in multiple copies of same data in teh database.
 - o This problem arises when a database is not normalized.
 - o It leads to anomalies.

Anomaly

- Inconsistencies that can arise due to data changes in a database with insertion, deletion, and updation.
 - o These problems occurred in poorly planned, un-normalized databases where all the data is stored in one table.

Insertions Anomaly

- When the insertion of data record is not possible without adding some additional unrrelated data to the record.
- Example:
 - We have 3 tables, courses, students and enrollements.
 - We cannot add an enrollement record for a course which is not present in the courses table.

Deletion Anomaly

- When deletion of a data record results in losing some unrelated information that was stored as a part of the record that was
 deleted from a table.
- Example:
 - We have 3 tables, courses, students and enrollements.

- We cannot delete a course record from the courses table if there are enrollements for that course.
- We have to delete all the enrollements for that course first.

Updation Anomaly

- When a data is changed, which could involve many records having to be changed, leading to the possibility of some changes being made incorrectly.
- Example:
 - We have 3 tables, courses, students and enrollements.
 - We cannot update the course_name in the enrollements table without updating the course_name in the courses table.

```
Normalization \Longrightarrow Good decomposition \Longrightarrow Minimization of Dependency \Longrightarrow Redundancy \Longrightarrow Anomaly
```

Normalization is the process of decomposing a relation into smaller relations to minimize redundancy and avoid anomalies.

Decomposition

- Decomposition is the process of breaking down a relation into smaller relations based on functional dependencies.
- Example:
 - We have a relation customers(customer_id, name, address, city, state, pin_code, phone_number, email_id).
 - We can decompose it into 3 relations:
 - customers(customer_id, name)
 - customer_address(customer_id, address, city, state, pin_code)
 - customer_contact(customer_id, phone_number, email_id)

Functional Dependency

- A functional dependency is a relationship between two attributes in a table where the value of one attribute (*determinant*) determines the value of another attribute (*dependent*).
- Example:
 - o In the table students, the attribute student_id determines the values of the attributes name and age.
 - This is because each student has a unique student ID, and the name and age of a student is determined by their student
 ID.
- Example 2:
 - In table customers customer_id determines the values of the attributes name, address, city, state, pin_code,
 phone_number, email_id.

How to make good decompositions?

- Not all decompositions are good.
- A decomposition is good if it is lossless and dependency preserving.
- Example:
 - If we decompose the customers table into customers(customer_id, name and customer_address(name, address, city, state, pin_code), then this is a NOT a good decomposition.

Lossless Decomposition

A decomposition is lossless if we can join the decomposed relations and get the original relation.

Atomic Domain

A domain is atomic if it contains values that cannot be divided into smaller components.

Example:

- o customer_id is atomic because it cannot be divided into smaller components.
- o name is not atomic because it can be divided into first_name and last_name.

Frist Normal Form (1NF)

- A relation is in INF if it has no repeating groups, i.e. the domain of each attribute contains only atomic values.
- Example:
 - customers(customer_id, name, address, city, state, pin_code, phone_number, email_id) is not in 1NF because the domain of name is not atomic.
 - o customers(customer_id, first_name, last_name, address, city, state, pin_code, phone_number, email_id) is in 1NF because the domain of each attribute is atomic.
- Non-atomic values complicate storage and retrieval of data.

L5.2 & 3: Relational Database Design Part - II & III

Devise a Theory for Good Relations

- ullet We want to 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 $\{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n\}$ such that:
 - o each relation is in *good* form
 - the decomposition is *lossless-join decomposition*.

We have to focus on different types of dependencies that can exist between attributes of a relation.

Functional Dependencies

- A functional dependency is a relationship between two attributes in a table where the value of one attribute (determinant) determines the value of another attribute (dependent).
- Example:
 - In the table students, the attribute student_id determines the values of the attributes name and age.
 - This is because each student has a unique student ID, and the name and age of a student is determined by their student
 ID.

Armstrong's Axioms

Armstrong's axioms are a set of inference rules used to infer all the functional dependencies on a relational database.

Reflexivity

- ullet If $Y \subseteq X$, then $X \to Y$.
- It means that if a set of attributes functionally determines another set of attributes, then the original set of attributes also functionally determines the subset.

Augmentation (Additivity)

- ullet If Y o Z, then XZ o XY.
- It means if two sets of attributes are functionally determined by the same set of attributes, then their combination is also functionally determined by that set.

Transitivity

- ullet If X o Y and Y o Z, then X o Z.
- It means that if two sets of attributes are functionally determined by different sets of attributes, and one set is a subset of the
 other, then the first set also functionally determines the second set.
 - By applying these axioms iteratively, you can find all the closure of a set of attributes, which represents all the functional dependencies that can be derived from the given set of functional dependencies.
 - These derived functional dependencies are essential for normalization and ensuring data integrity in a database.
 - The new FD obtained by applying the axioms is said to the logically implied by F.
 - ullet The process of generations of FDs terminate after finitely number of steps and we call it the **Closure Set F** $^+$ and $F\subseteq F^+$
 - These axioms are:
 - Sound: Generate only functional dependencies that are true in all cases.
 - o Complete: Eventually generate all functional dependencies that are true in all cases.

Example:

```
egin{aligned} \circ F &= \{A 
ightarrow B, B 
ightarrow C \} \ \circ F^+ &= \{A 
ightarrow B, B 
ightarrow C, A 
ightarrow C \} \end{aligned}
```

Additional Derived rules:

Union

ullet If X o Y and X o Z, then X o YZ.

Decomposition

ullet If X o YZ, then X o Y and X o Z.

Pseudotransitivity

ullet If X o Y and WY o Z, then WX o Z.

Closure of Attribute Sets

- The closure of an attribute set α under a set of functional dependencies F (denoted by α^+ is the set of all attributes that are functionally determined by α under F.
- ullet Algorithm to compute $lpha^+$, the closure of lpha under F

<u>Us</u>ecases

- Testing for superkey
- Testing functional dependencies
- ullet Computing the closure of F

Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF)

ullet A relation R is in BCNF with respect to a set F of FDs if for all FDs in F^+ of the form:

 $a \to b$, where $a \subseteq R$ and $b \subseteq R$ holds any of:

- ullet a
 ightarrow b is a trivial FD (i.e. $b \subseteq a$)
- $\circ \ a$ is a superkey of R
- Example:
 - \circ instr_dept(ID, name, salary, dept_name, building, budget) is not in BCNF because the non-trivial dependency dept_name $\to building, budget$ holds and dept_name is not a superkey.

Decomposition

- ullet If in schema R and a non-trivial dependency lpha oeta causes a violation of BCNF, we decompose R into:
 - $\circ \alpha \cup \beta$
 - $\circ R (\beta \alpha)$

Loseless Join

- If we decompose a relation R into R_1 and R_2 :
 - \circ Decomposition is **lossy** if $R \subset R_1 \Join R_2$
 - \circ Decomposition is lossless if $R_1 \Join R_2 = R$
- To check for lossless join decomposition using FD set, following must hold:
 - \circ Union of Attributes of R_1 and R_2 must be equal to R

$$R_1 \cup R_2 = R$$

 \circ Intersection of Attributes of R_1 and R_2 must not be NULL

$$R_1 \cap R_2 \neq \phi$$

Common attribute must be a key for at least one relation

$$R_1\cap R_2 o R_1 ext{ or } R_1\cap R_2 o R_2$$

Third Normal Form (3NF)

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

$$a o b\in F^+$$

- \circ at least one of the following holds: a o b is a trivial FD ($b\subseteq a$) a is a superkey of R Each attribute A in b-a is contained in a candidate key for R
- If a relation is in both BCNF then it is also in 3NF

Goals of Normalization

- ullet Decide whether a relation schema R is in "good" form
- ullet In the case that R is not in "good" form, decompose R into a collection of schemas that are in "good" form such that:
 - o each relation schema is in good form
 - o the decomposition is lossless-join decomposition
 - Preferably, the decomposition is dependency preserving

Problems with Decomposition

- Maybe impossible to reconstruct the original relation
- · Dependency checking may require joins
- Some queries are more expensive



L5.4: Relational Database Design Part - IV

Attribute set closure

- R = (A, B, C, G, H, I)
- $F = \{A \rightarrow B, A \rightarrow C, CG \rightarrow H, CG \rightarrow I, B \rightarrow H\}$
- $(AG)^{+}$
 - a) result = AG
 - b) result = ABCG $(A \rightarrow C \text{ and } A \rightarrow B)$
 - c) result = ABCGH ($CG \rightarrow H$ and $CG \subseteq AGBC$)
 - d) result = ABCGHI (CG \rightarrow I and CG \subseteq AGBCH)
- Is AG a candidate key?
 - a) Is AG a super key?
 - i) Does $AG \rightarrow R? == \text{Is } (AG)^+ \supseteq R$
 - b) Is any subset of AG a superkey?
 - i) Does $A \rightarrow R? == \text{Is } (A)^+ \supseteq R$
 - ii) Does $G \to R? == \operatorname{Is} (G)^+ \supseteq R$

Extraneous Attributes

- The attributes in a relation that do not contribute to the functional dependencies of the relation.
- In other words, these attributes are not part of any candidate key or do not play a role in determining other attributes.
- These are also known as non-prime attributes.
- During the process of normalization, one of the goals is to eliminate redundancy and ensure that each attribute is fully functionally dependent on the candidate keys. Attributes that are not functionally dependent on the candidate keys are considered extraneous and should be removed to achieve a higher normal form.
- ullet Consider a set F of FDs and the FD lpha
 ightarrow eta in F.
 - \circ Attribute A is **extraneous** in lpha if $A \in lpha$ and F logically implies:

$$(F - \{lpha
ightarrow eta\}) \cup \{(lpha - A)
ightarrow eta\}$$

- Example:
 - o Consider a relation Employee with attributes {EmployeeID, EmployeeName, Department, DepartmentLocation}. If we find

that the attribute DepartmentLocation is not functionally dependent on EmployeeID or EmployeeName and it is not part of any candidate key, then DepartmentLocation is considered an extraneous attribute and can be removed from the **Employee** relation to eliminate redundancy.

Tests

- ullet Consider a set F of FDs and the FD a o b in F.
- To test if attribute $A \in a$ is extraneous in a.
 - 1. Compute $(\{a\}-A)^+$ using the dependencies in F.
 - 2. Check that $(\{a\} A)^+$ contains b, if it does, A is extraneous in a.
- ullet To test if attribute $X\in b$ is extraneous in b.
 - 1. Compute a^+ using only the dependencies in:

$$F'=(F-\{a o b\})\cup\{a o (b-X)\}$$

2. Check that a^+ contains X, if it does, X is extraneous in b.

Equivalence of Sets of Functional Dependencies

- Equivalence of sets of functional dependencies refers to the concept that two sets of functional dependencies have the same closure, and therefore, they represent the same set of constraints on a relation.
- In other words, if two sets of functional dependencies lead to the same set of attributes being functionally determined, they are equivalent.
- Let F&G are two FDs.
 - \circ These two sets F&G are equivalent if $F^+=G^+$, means:

$$(F^+ = G^+) \iff (F^+ \implies G \text{ and } G^+ \implies F)$$

- Equivalence means that every functional dependency in F can be inferred from G, and every functional dependency in G can be inferred from F.
- ullet F and G are equal only if
 - \circ **F** covers **G**: Means that all FDs of G are logically members of FDs $F \implies G \subseteq F^+$
 - \circ **G covers F**: Means that all FDs of F are logically members of FDs $G \implies F \subseteq G^+$

Condition	CASES										
F covers G	True	True	False	False							
G covers F	True	False	True	False							
Result	F=G	$G\subset F$	$F\subset G$	No comparison							

Example:

Consider a relation ${f Student}$ with attributes {StudentID, StudentName, Course, CourseInstructor} .

We want to determine the functional dependencies in this relation and check if two sets of functional dependencies are equivalent.

Set of Functional Dependencies F:

F: {StudentID o StudentName, Course o CourseInstructor}

Set of Functional Dependencies G:

G: {StudentID o StudentName, StudentID o Course, Course o CourseInstructor}

Step 1: Find <code>Closure(F)</code> or F^+

 F^+ = {StudentID o StudentName, Course o CourseInstructor, StudentID o Course} (StudentID o StudentName) is already in F.

 F^+ = {StudentID o StudentName, Course o CourseInstructor, StudentID o Course} Step 2: Find <code>Closure(G)</code> or G^+ G^+ = {StudentID → StudentName, Course → CourseInstructor, StudentID → Course, Course → StudentName, Course → CourseInstructor} (StudentID \rightarrow StudentName, Course \rightarrow CourseInstructor, StudentID \rightarrow Course) are already in G. Using Transitivity (Course → StudentName) , we can derive Course → StudentName . Therefore, G^+ = { StudentID → StudentName, Course → CourseInstructor, StudentID → Course, Course → StudentName, Course → CourseInstructor} Step 3: Check Equivalence Since both F^+ and G^+ are identical, F and G are equivalent sets of functional dependencies. This means that the two sets represent the same set of constraints on the **Student** relation. Canonical Cover Sets of FDs may have redundant dependencies that can be inferred from the others. • A canonical cover is a set of dependencies that is equivalent to the original set of dependencies, but has no redundant dependencies. ullet A **canonical cover** for F is a set of dependencies F_c , such that **ALL** the following properties are satisfied: $\circ F^{+} = F_{c}^{+}$: • F logically implies all dependencies in F_c . • F_c logically implies all dependencies in F. \circ No FD in F_c contains extraneous attributes. \circ Each left side of an FD in F_c is unique. Intuitively, a **Canonical cover** of F is a *minimal* set of FDs: • Equivalent to F. Having no redundant dependencies. • No redundant parts of FDs. • For example: $A \to C$ is redundant in: $\{A \to B, B \to C, A \to C\}$ Parts of a functional dependency may be redundant o For example: on RHS: $\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow CD\}$ can be simplified to $\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow D\}$ - In the forward: (1) $A \rightarrow CD \Rightarrow A \rightarrow C$ and $A \rightarrow D$ (2) $A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C \Rightarrow A \rightarrow C$ - In the reverse: (1) $A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C \Rightarrow A \rightarrow C$ (2) $A \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow D \Rightarrow A \rightarrow CD$ \circ For example: on LHS: $\{ A o B, B o C, AC o D \}$ can be simplified to $\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow D\}$ - In the forward: (1) $A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C \Rightarrow A \rightarrow C \Rightarrow A \rightarrow AC$ $(2) A \rightarrow AC, AC \rightarrow D \Rightarrow A \rightarrow D$ param302.bio.link

Using Transitivity (Course o CourseInstructor and StudentID o Course), We can derive <code>StudentID</code> o Course.

- In the reverse: $A \rightarrow D \Rightarrow AC \rightarrow D$

Computing Canonical Cover

```
Use the union rule to replace any dependencies in F
a1 → b1 and a1 → b2 with a1 → b1b2
Find a FD a → b with an extraneous attribute either in a or in b
If an extraneous attribute in found, delete in from a → b
until F does not change
```

Prime attributes

Attribute set that belongs to any candidate key are called *Prime attributes*.

- If is union of all the candidate key attribute $\{CK_1 \cup CK_2 \cup \dots\}$
- If Prime attribute determined by other attribute set, then more than one candidate key is possible.
- ullet Example: If A is a Candidate key and X o A, then X is a also a candidate key.

Non-Prime attributes

Attribute set does not belong to any candidate key are called Non-Prime attributes.

Tutorial 5.4: Super Keys and Candidate Keys

L5.5: Relational Database Design Part - V

Lossless Join Decomposition

ullet For the case of $R=(R_1,R_2)$, we require that for all possible relations r on schema R: $r=\pi_{R_1}(r)\bowtie \pi_{R_2}(r)$

Example:

- Consider Supplier_Parts schema: Supplier_Parts(S#, Sname, City, P#, Qty)
 - ullet Having dependencies: S# o Sname, S# o City, (S#, P#) o Qty
 - Decompose as: Supplier(S#, Sname, City, Qty): Parts(P#, Qty)
 - Take Natural Join to reconstruct: Supplier ⋈ Parts

S#	Sname	City	P#	Qty	S#	Sname	City	Qty	P#	Qty	S#	Sname	City	P #	Qty
3	Smith	London	301	20	3	Smith	London	20	301	20	3	Smith	London	301	20
5	Nick	NY	500	50	5	Nick	NY	50	500	50	5	Nick	NY	500	50
2	Steve	Boston	20	10	2	Steve	Boston	10	20	10	5	Nick	NY	20	10
5	Nick	NY	400	40	5	Nick	NY	40	400	40	2	Steve	Boston	20	10
5	Nick	NY	301	10	5	Nick	NY	10	301	10	5	Nick	NY	400	40
											5	Nick	NY	301	10
											2	Steve	Boston	301	10

- We get extra tuples! Join is Lossy!
- Common attribute Qty is not a superkey in Supplier or in Parts
- Does not preserve (S#, P#) → Qty

Example 2:

- Consider Supplier_Parts schema: Supplier_Parts(S#, Sname, City, P#, Qty)
- ullet Having dependencies: S# o Sname, S# o City, (S#, P#) o Qty
- Decompose as: Supplier(S#, Sname, City): Parts(S#, P#, Qty)
- Take Natural Join to reconstruct: Supplier ⋈ Parts

S#	Sname	City	P#	Qty	S#	Sname	City	S#	P #	Qty	S#	Sname	City	P#	Qty
3	Smith	London	301	20	3	Smith	London	3	301	20	3	Smith	London	301	20
5	Nick	NY	500	50	5	Nick	NY	5	500	50	5	Nick	NY	500	50
2	Steve	Boston	20	10	2	Steve	Boston	2	20	10	2	Steve	Boston	20	10
5	Nick	NY	400	40	5	Nick	NY	5	400	40	5	Nick	NY	400	40
5	Nick	NY	301	10	5	Nick	NY	5	301	10	5	Nick	NY	30 1	10

- We get back the original relation. Join is Lossless.
- Common attribute S# is a superkey in Supplier
- Preserves all dependencies

Dependency Preservation

- ullet Left F_i be the set of dependencies F^+ that include only attributes in R_i
 - \circ 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.

Example:

• R (A, B, C, D, E, F)

$$\mathbf{F} = \{A \rightarrow BCD, A \stackrel{\checkmark}{\rightarrow} EF, BC \rightarrow AD, BC \rightarrow E, BC \rightarrow F, B \rightarrow F, D \rightarrow E\}$$

- Decomposition: R1(A, B, C, D)
 R2(B, F)
 R3(D, E)
 - \circ $A \rightarrow BCD, BC \rightarrow AD$ are preserved on table R1
 - \circ $B \to F$ is preserved on table R2
 - O $D \rightarrow E$ is preserved on table R3
 - O We have to check whether the remaining FDs: $A \rightarrow E$, $A \rightarrow F$, $BC \rightarrow E$, $BC \rightarrow F$ are preserved or not.

F₁={
$$\mathbf{A} \to ABCD$$
, $\mathbf{B} \to B$, $\mathbf{C} \to C$, $\mathbf{D} \to D$,
 $\mathbf{AB} \to ABCD$, $\mathbf{BC} \to ABCD$, $\mathbf{CD} \to CD$, $\mathbf{AD} \to ABCD$
 $\mathbf{ABC} \to ABCD$, $\mathbf{ABD} \to ABCD$, $\mathbf{ACD} \to ABCD$
 $\mathbf{BCD} \to ABCD$ }

- $\circ F' = F_1 \cup F_2 \cup F_3.$
- Checking for: $\mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{E}$, $\mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{F}$ in \mathbf{F}'^+
 - $\triangleright A \rightarrow D$ (from R1), $D \rightarrow E$ (from R3) : $A \rightarrow E$ (By Transitivity)
 - \triangleright $A \rightarrow B$ (from R1), $B \rightarrow F$ (from R2) : $A \rightarrow F$ (By Transitivity)
- Checking for: RC \(\triangle F\) RC \(\triangle F\) in \(\frac{F'^+}{param302.bio.link}\)

Tutorials

5.1: Lossless Join Decomposition

5.2: Canonical Cover

5.3: Dependency Preservation