

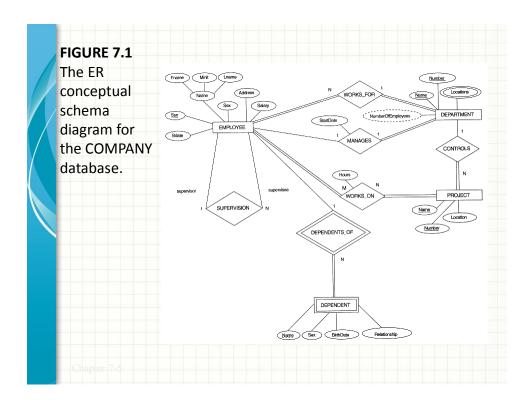
Chapter Outline • ER-to-Relational Mapping Algorithm Step 1: Mapping of Regular Entity Types Step 2: Mapping of Weak Entity Types Step 3: Mapping of Binary 1:1 Relation Types Step 4: Mapping of Binary 1:N Relationship Types. Step 5: Mapping of Binary M:N Relationship Types. Step 6: Mapping of Multivalued attributes. Step 7: Mapping of N-ary Relationship Types.

Outline

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 - 1.1Semantics of the Relation Attributes
 - 1.2 Redundant Information in Tuples and Update Anomalies
 - 1.3 Null Values in Tuples
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Outline

- 3 Normal Forms Based on Primary Keys
 - 3.1 Normalization of Relations
 - 3.2 Practical Use of Normal Forms
 - 3.3 Definitions of Keys and Attributes Participating in Keys
 - 3.4 First Normal Form
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- 4 BCNF (Boyce-Codd Normal Form)

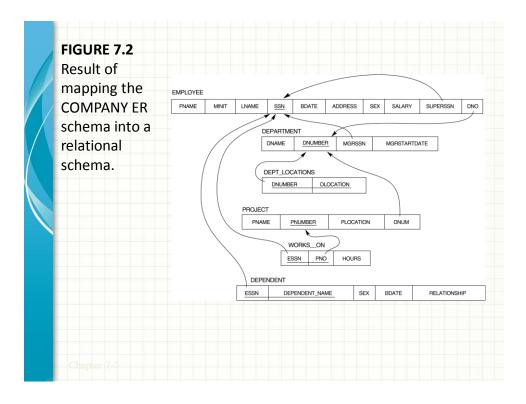


Step 1: Mapping of Regular Entity Types.

- For each regular (strong) entity type in the ER schema, create a relation R that includes all the simple attributes of E.
- Choose one of the key attributes of E as the primary key for the relation.

Example:

- We create the relations EMPLOYEE, DEPARTMENT, and PROJECT in the relational schema corresponding to the regular entities in the ER diagram.
- SSN, DNUMBER, and PNUMBER are the primary keys for the relations EMPLOYEE, DEPARTMENT, and PROJECT as shown.



Step 2: Mapping of Weak Entity Types

- For each weak entity type W in the ER schema with owner entity type E, create a relation R and include all attributes of the weak entity as attributes of the new relation R.
- Then, include the primary key of the owner entity as foreign key attributes of R.
- The primary key of R is the combination of the primary key(s) of the owner(s) and the partial key of the weak entity type W, if any.

Example:

- Create the relation DEPENDENT in this step to correspond to the weak entity type DEPENDENT. Include the primary key SSN of the EMPLOYEE relation as a foreign key attribute of DEPENDENT (renamed to ESSN).
- The primary key of the DEPENDENT relation is the combination (ESSN, DEPENDENT_NAME) because DEPENDENT_NAME is the partial key of DEPENDENT.

Step 3: Mapping of 1:1 Relation Types

For each 1:1 relationship type identify the entities participating in the relationship. There are two possible approaches below:

(1) Foreign Key approach:

- Choose one of the relations and include a foreign key in one relation (S) which is the primary key of the
 other relation (T). It is better to choose an entity type with total participation in the relationship in the role
 of S.
- Example: 1:1 relation MANAGES is mapped by choosing the participating entity type DEPARTMENT to serve in the role of S, because its participation in the MANAGES relationship type is total.

(2) Merged relation option:

An alternate mapping of a 1:1 relationship type is possible by merging the two entity types and the
relationship into a single relation. This may be appropriate when both participations are total.

ER-to-Relational Mapping Steps

Step 4: Mapping of Binary 1:N Relationship Types.

- For each regular 1:N relationship type R, identify the relation S, which
 is the entity on the N-side of the relationship.
- Include as foreign key in S the primary key of the relation which is on the 1 side of the relationship.
- Include any simple attributes of the 1:N relation type as attributes of S.

Example:

 1:N relationship types WORKS_FOR, CONTROLS, and SUPERVISION in the figure. For WORKS_FOR we include the primary key DNUMBER of the DEPARTMENT relation as foreign key in the EMPLOYEE relation and call it DNO.

Step 5: Mapping of Binary M:N Relationship Types.

- For each M:N relationship type, create a new relation S to represent the relationship.
- Include as foreign key attributes in S the primary keys of the entities on each side
 of the relationship; the combination of the two primary keys will form the primary
 key of S.
- Also include any simple attributes of the M:N relationship type as attributes of S.

Example:

- The M:N relationship type WORKS_ON from the ER diagram is mapped by creating a relation WORKS_ON in the relational database schema. The primary keys of the PROJECT and EMPLOYEE relations are included as foreign keys in WORKS_ON and renamed PNO and ESSN, respectively.
- Attribute HOURS in WORKS_ON represents the HOURS attribute of the relation type.
 The primary key of the WORKS_ON relation is the combination of the foreign key attributes {ESSN, PNO}.

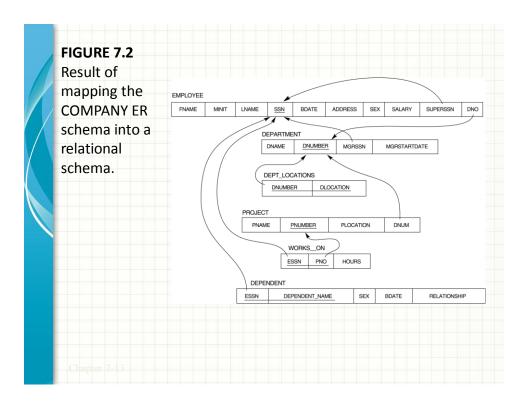
ER-to-Relational Mapping Steps

Step 6: Mapping of Multivalued attributes.

- For each multivalued attribute A, create a new relation. This relation will include
 an attribute corresponding to the multi-valued attribute, plus the primary key
 attribute of the relation that has the multi-valued attribute, K.
- The primary key attribute of the relation is the foreign key representing the relationship between the entity and the multi-valued relation.
- The primary key of R is the combination of A and K.

Example:

The relation DEPT_LOCATIONS is created. The attribute DLOCATION represents the
multivalued attribute LOCATIONS of DEPARTMENT, while DNUMBER-as foreign keyrepresents the primary key of the DEPARTMENT relation. The primary key of R is the
combination of {DNUMBER, DLOCATION}.



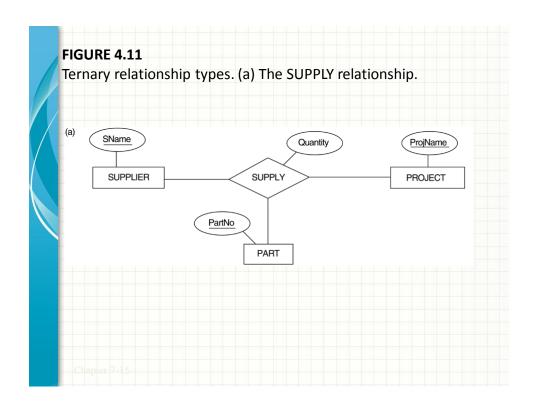
ER-to-Relational Mapping

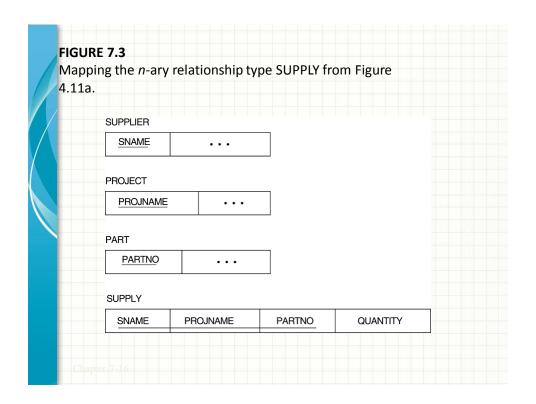
Step 7: Mapping of N-ary Relationship Types. (Non-binary relationships)

- For each n-ary relationship type R, where n>2, create a new relation S to represent the relationship.
- Include as foreign key attributes in S the primary keys of the relations that represent the participating entities.
- Also include any simple attributes of the n-ary relationship type as attributes of S.

Example:

 The relationship type SUPPY in the ER on the next slide. This can be mapped to the relation SUPPLY shown in the relational schema, whose primary key is the combination of the three foreign keys {SNAME, PARTNO, PROJNAME}





1 Informal Design Guidelines for Relational Databases (1)

- What is relational database design?
 - The grouping of attributes to form "good" relation schemas
- Two levels of relation schemas
 - The logical "user view" level
 - The storage "base relation" level
- Design is concerned mainly with base relations
- What are the criteria for "good" base relations?

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Informal Design Guidelines for Relational Databases (2)

- We first discuss informal guidelines for good relational design
- Then we discuss formal concepts of functional dependencies and normal forms
 - 1NF (First Normal Form)
 - 2NF (Second Normal Form)
 - 3NF (Third Normal Form)
 - BCNF (Boyce-Codd Normal Form)

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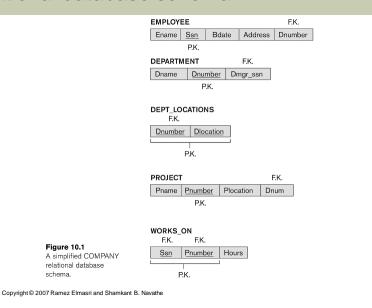
Slide 10- 18

1.1 Semantics of the Relation Attributes

- GUIDELINE 1: Informally, each tuple in a relation should represent one entity or relationship instance. (Applies to individual relations and their attributes).
 - Attributes of different entities (EMPLOYEEs, DEPARTMENTs, PROJECTs) should not be mixed in the same relation
 - Only foreign keys should be used to refer to other entities
 - Entity and relationship attributes should be kept apart as much as possible.
- Bottom Line: Design a schema that can be explained easily relation by relation. The semantics of attributes should be easy to interpret.

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Figure 10.1 A simplified COMPANY relational database schema



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1.2 Redundant Information in Tuples and Update Anomalies

- Information is stored redundantly
 - Wastes storage
 - Causes problems with update anomalies
 - Insertion anomalies
 - Deletion anomalies
 - Modification anomalies

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EXAMPLE OF AN UPDATE ANOMALY

- Consider the relation:
 - EMP_PROJ(Emp#, Proj#, Ename, Pname, No_hours)
- Update Anomaly:
 - Changing the name of project number P1 from "Billing" to "Customer-Accounting" may cause this update to be made for all 100 employees working on project P1.

EXAMPLE OF AN INSERT ANOMALY

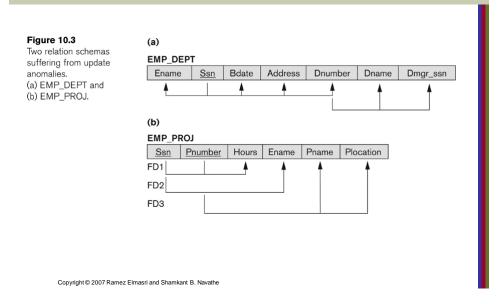
- Consider the relation:
 - EMP_PROJ(Emp#, Proj#, Ename, Pname, No_hours)
- Insert Anomaly:
 - Cannot insert a project unless an employee is assigned to it.
- Conversely
 - Cannot insert an employee unless an he/she is assigned to a project.

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EXAMPLE OF AN DELETE ANOMALY

- Consider the relation:
 - EMP_PROJ(Emp#, Proj#, Ename, Pname, No_hours)
- Delete Anomaly:
 - When a project is deleted, it will result in deleting all the employees who work on that project.
 - Alternately, if an employee is the sole employee on a project, deleting that employee would result in deleting the corresponding project.

Figure 10.3 Two relation schemas suffering from update anomalies



Guideline to Redundant Information in Tuples and Update Anomalies

■ GUIDELINE 2:

- Design a schema that does not suffer from the insertion, deletion and update anomalies.
- If there are any anomalies present, then note them so that applications can be made to take them into account.

1.3 Null Values in Tuples

GUIDELINE 3:

- Relations should be designed such that their tuples will have as few NULL values as possible
- Attributes that are NULL frequently could be placed in separate relations (with the primary key)

Reasons for nulls:

- Attribute not applicable or invalid
- Attribute value unknown (may exist)
- Value known to exist, but unavailable

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1.4 Spurious Tuples

- Bad designs for a relational database may result in erroneous results for certain JOIN operations
- The "lossless join" property is used to guarantee meaningful results for join operations

GUIDELINE 4:

- The relations should be designed to satisfy the lossless join condition.
- No spurious tuples should be generated by doing a natural-join of any relations.

Spurious Tuples (2)

- There are two important properties of decompositions:
 - a) Non-additive or losslessness of the corresponding join
 - b) Preservation of the functional dependencies.
- Note that:
 - Property (a) is extremely important and cannot be sacrificed.

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2.1 Functional Dependencies (1)

- Functional dependencies (FDs)
 - Are used to specify formal measures of the "goodness" of relational designs
 - And keys are used to define normal forms for relations
 - Are constraints that are derived from the meaning and interrelationships of the data attributes
- A set of attributes X functionally determines a set of attributes Y if the value of X determines a unique value for Y

Functional Dependencies (2)

- X -> Y holds if whenever two tuples have the same value for X, they must have the same value for Y
 - For any two tuples t1 and t2 in any relation instance r(R): If t1[X]=t2[X], then t1[Y]=t2[Y]
- X -> Y in R specifies a constraint on all relation instances r(R)
- Written as X -> Y; can be displayed graphically on a relation schema as in Figures. (denoted by the arrow:).
- FDs are derived from the real-world constraints on the attributes

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Examples of FD constraints (1)

- Social security number determines employee name
 - SSN -> ENAME
- Project number determines project name and location
 - PNUMBER -> {PNAME, PLOCATION}
- Employee ssn and project number determines the hours per week that the employee works on the project
 - {SSN, PNUMBER} -> HOURS

Examples of FD constraints (2)

- An FD is a property of the attributes in the schema R
- The constraint must hold on every relation instance r(R)
- If K is a key of R, then K functionally determines all attributes in R
 - (since we never have two distinct tuples with t1[K]=t2[K])

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2.2 Inference Rules for FDs (1)

- Given a set of FDs F, we can infer additional FDs that hold whenever the FDs in F hold
- Armstrong's inference rules:
 - IR1. (Reflexive) If Y subset-of X, then X -> Y
 - IR2. (Augmentation) If X -> Y, then XZ -> YZ
 - (Notation: XZ stands for X U Z)
 - IR3. (Transitive) If X -> Y and Y -> Z, then X -> Z
- IR1, IR2, IR3 form a sound and complete set of inference rules
 - These are rules hold and all other rules that hold can be deduced from these

3 Normal Forms Based on Primary Keys

- 3.1 Normalization of Relations
- 3.2 Practical Use of Normal Forms
- 3.3 Definitions of Keys and Attributes Participating in Keys
- 3.4 First Normal Form
- 3.5 Second Normal Form
- 3.6 Third Normal Form

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3.1 Normalization of Relations (1)

Normalization:

 The process of decomposing unsatisfactory "bad" relations by breaking up their attributes into smaller relations

Normal form:

 Condition using keys and FDs of a relation to certify whether a relation schema is in a particular normal form

Normalization

Normalization

We discuss four normal forms: first, second, third, and Boyce-Codd normal forms
1NF, 2NF, 3NF, and BCNF

Normalization is a process that "improves" a database design by generating relations that are of higher normal forms.

The *objective* of normalization:

"to create relations where every dependency is on the key, the whole key, and nothing but the key".

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Normalization

- Normalization is the process of efficiently organizing data in a database with two goals in mind
- First goal: eliminate redundant data
 - for example, storing the same data in more than one table
- Second Goal: ensure data dependencies make sense
 - for example, only storing related data in a table

Benefits of Normalization

- Less storage space
- Quicker updates
- Less data inconsistency
- Clearer data relationships
- Easier to add data
- Flexible Structure

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The Solution: Normal Forms

- Bad database designs results in:
 - redundancy: inefficient storage.
 - anomalies: data inconsistency, difficulties in maintenance
- 1NF, 2NF, 3NF are some of the early forms in the list that address this problem

Normalization of Relations (2)

- 2NF and 3NF
 - based on keys and FDs of a relation schema
- Additional properties may be needed to ensure a good relational design

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3.2 Practical Use of Normal Forms

- Normalization is carried out in practice so that the resulting designs are of high quality and meet the desirable properties
- The database designers need not normalize to the highest possible normal form
 - (usually up to 3NF, BCNF or 4NF)
- Denormalization:
 - The process of storing the join of higher normal form relations as a base relation—which is in a lower normal form

3.3 Definitions of Keys and Attributes Participating in Keys (1)

- A superkey of a relation schema R = {A1, A2,, An} is a set of attributes S subset-of R with the property that no two tuples t1 and t2 in any legal relation state r of R will have t1[S] = t2[S]
- A key K is a superkey with the additional property that removal of any attribute from K will cause K not to be a superkey any more.

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Definitions of Keys and Attributes Participating in Keys (2)

- If a relation schema has more than one key, each is called a candidate key.
 - One of the candidate keys is arbitrarily designated to be the primary key, and the others are called secondary keys.
- A Prime attribute must be a member of some candidate key
- A Nonprime attribute is not a prime attribute that is, it is not a member of any candidate key.

3.2 First Normal Form

- Disallows
 - composite attributes
 - multivalued attributes
 - nested relations; attributes whose values for an individual tuple are non-atomic
- Considered to be part of the definition of relation

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Figure 10.8 Normalization into 1NF

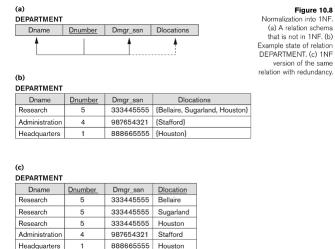
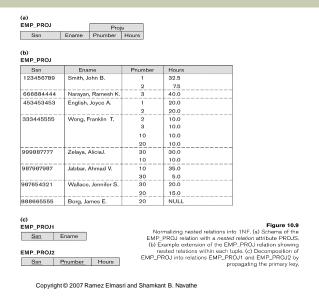


Figure 10.9 Normalization nested relations into 1NF



3.3 Second Normal Form (1)

- Uses the concepts of FDs, primary key
- Definitions
 - Prime attribute: An attribute that is member of the primary key K
 - Full functional dependency: a FD Y -> Z where removal of any attribute from Y means the FD does not hold any more
- Examples:
 - {SSN, PNUMBER} -> HOURS is a full FD since neither SSN
 -> HOURS nor PNUMBER -> HOURS hold
 - {SSN, PNUMBER} -> ENAME is not a full FD (it is called a partial dependency) since SSN -> ENAME also holds

Second Normal Form (2)

- A relation schema R is in second normal form (2NF) if every non-prime attribute A in R is fully functionally dependent on the primary key
- R can be decomposed into 2NF relations via the process of 2NF normalization

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Figure 10.10 Normalizing into 2NF and 3NF

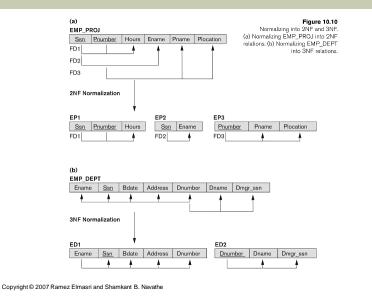
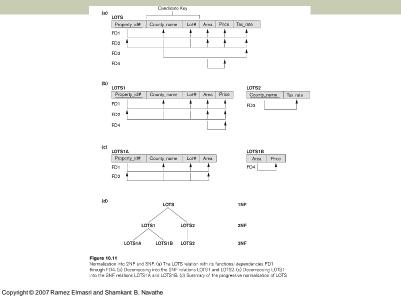


Figure 10.11 Normalization into 2NF and 3NF



3.4 Third Normal Form (1)

- Definition:
 - Transitive functional dependency: a FD X -> Z that can be derived from two FDs X -> Y and Y -> Z
- Examples:
 - SSN -> DMGRSSN is a transitive FD
 - Since SSN -> DNUMBER and DNUMBER -> DMGRSSN hold
 - SSN -> ENAME is non-transitive
 - Since there is no set of attributes X where SSN -> X and X -> ENAME

Third Normal Form (2)

- A relation schema R is in third normal form (3NF) if it is in 2NF and no non-prime attribute A in R is transitively dependent on the primary key
- R can be decomposed into 3NF relations via the process of 3NF normalization
- NOTE:
 - In X -> Y and Y -> Z, with X as the primary key, we consider this a problem only if Y is not a candidate key.
 - When Y is a candidate key, there is no problem with the transitive dependency.
 - E.g., Consider EMP (SSN, Emp#, Salary).
 - Here, SSN -> Emp# -> Salary and Emp# is a candidate key.

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Normalisation so Far

- First normal form
 - All data values are atomic
- Second normal form
 - In 1NF plus no non-key attribute is partially dependent on a candidate key
- Third normal form
 - In 2NF plus no non-key attribute depends transitively on a candidate key

Normalization Exercise 2

INVOICE

HILLTOP ANIMAL HOSPITAL

DATE: JAN 13/2002

INVOICE # 987

MR. RICHARD COOK 123 THIS STREET MY CITY, ONTARIO

Z5Z 6G6 <u>PET</u>

PROCEDURE

<u>AMOUNT</u>

ROVER MORRIS RABIES VACCINATION RABIES VACCINATION

30.00 24.00

TOTAL

54.00

AMOUNT OWING

4.32

58.32

UNF:

invoice [<u>invoice_no</u>, invoice_date, cust_name, cust_addr, (pet_name, procedure, amount)]

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Exercises

Click Here.....

BRANCH (Branch#, Branch_Addr, (ISBN, Title, Author, Publisher, Num_copies))

CLIENT (Client#, Name, Location, Manager#, Manager_name, Manager_location, (Contract#, Estimated_cost, Completion_date, (Staff#, Staff_name, Staff_location)))

PATIENT (Patient#, Name, DOB, Address, (Prescription#, Drug, Date, Dosage, Doctor, Secretary))

DOCTOR (Doctor#, DoctorName, Secretary, (Patient#, PatientName, PatientDOB, PatientAddress, (Prescription#, Drug, Date, Dosage)))