

Chapter - 4

Database constraints and Normalization.

- 4.1 Integrity constraints and Domain constraints
- 4.2 Assertions and Triggering
- 4.3 Functional Dependencies
- 4.4 Multi-valued & joined Dependencies.
- 4.5 Different Normal Forms (1st, 2nd, 3rd, BCNF, DKNF)

Integrity constraints and Domain constraints

- ↳ Integrity constraints are set of rules. It is used to maintain quality of information.
- ↳ Integrity constraints ensure that the data insertion, updating, and other processes have to be performed in such a way that data integrity is not affected.
- ↳ Thus integrity constraints is used to guard against accidental damage to the database.

Types of integrity constraint

1. Domain Constraints:

- ↳ Domain constraints can be defined as the definition of a valid set of values for an attribute.

→ The data type of domain includes string, characters, integer, time, date, currency, etc. The value of the attribute must be available in the corresponding domain.

Example: cannot form a transaction

ID	NAME	SEMESTER	AGE
1000	Prabesh	1st	17
1001	Sudhir	2nd	24
1002	Akhil	5th	21
1003	Athul	3rd	19
1004	Jay	8th	A

Not allowed: AGE is an integer attribute.

2. Entity integrity constraints.

→ The entity integrity constraint states that primary key value can't be null.

→ This is because the primary key value is used to identify individual rows in relation and if the primary key has a null value, then we can't identify those rows.

→ A table can contain a null value other than primary key field.

Example:

Employee

EMP-ID	EMP-NAME	SALARY
123	Sudip	50000
142	Kundan	60000
164	Mithun	20000
	Vinod	27000

Not allowed as primary key can't contain a NULL value.

3. Referential integrity constraints.

- ↳ A referential integrity constraint is specified between two tables.
- ↳ In the referential integrity constraint, if a foreign key in Table 1 refers to the primary key of Table 2, then every value of the foreign key in Table 1 must be null or available in Table 2.

Example:

Table 1

Emp-id	NAME	AGE	D-NO
1	Psavin	20	11
2	Sumant	40	24

3	Nabin	27	18	→ Not allowed:
4	Bal Krishna	38	13	D-NO 18 is not defined as a primary key of Table2 and in Table1 D-NO is foreign key
Relationships				
Table2				
primary key		D-NO	D-Location	
		11	Mukti Nath	
		24	Itahari	
		13	Budhabare	

4. Key constraints

↳ keys are the entity set that is used to identify an entity within its entity set uniquely.

↳ An entity set can have multiple keys, but one key will be the primary key. A primary key can contain a unique value in the relational table.

Example:

ID	NAME	SEMESTER	AUE
1000	Prabesh	1st	17
1001	Sudhir	2nd	24
1002	Akhil	5th	21
1003	Athul	3rd	19
1002	Jay	8th	22

Not allowed because all row must be unique.

Assertions and Triggering:

Assertion:

- ↳ An assertion is a predicate expressing a condition that we wish the database always to satisfy.
- ↳ Domain constraints and referential-integrity constraints are special forms of assertions.
- ↳ There are many constraints that we cannot express by using only these special forms.

Two Examples of such constraints are:

- i. The sum of all loan amounts for each branch must be less than the sum of all account balances at the branch
- ii. Every loan has at least one customer who maintains an account with a minimum balance of 100000

Syntax:

```
create assertion <assertion-name> check  
      <predicate>
```

- ↳ Since SQL does not provide a "for all $x, P(x)$ "

assertion to demand that Birgunj based departments don't employ trainers: (create assertion No-trainers-in-Birgunj as CHECK
not exists (select 'trainees in Birgunj' from EMP e, DEPT d
where e.DEPTNO = d.DEPTNO and e.JOB = 'TRAINER' and d.LOC = 'Birgunj'))
construct (whose P is a predicate), we
are forced to implement the construct by the
equivalent "not exists" X such that not PC(X)"
construct.

create assertion sum-constraint check
(not exists (select * from branch
where (select sum(amount) from loan
where loan.branch-name = branch.branch-
name) >= (select sum(balance) from account
where account.branch-name = branch.branch-
name)));

create assertion balance-constraint check
(not exists (select * from loan
where not exists (select *
from borrower, depositor, account
where loan.loan-number = borrower.loan-number
and borrower.customer-name = depositor.customer-name
and depositor.account-number = account.account-
number
and account.balance >= 100000)))

↳ When an assertion is created, the system
tests it for validity. If the assertion is valid,
then any future modification to the database
is allowed only if it does not cause that
assertion to be violated.

Create assertion AT-MOST-PRESIDENT as CHECK

((select count(*) from EMP E WHERE E.JOB='PRESIDENT') \leq 1)

An assertion to demand that there's no more than a single president among employees.

Triggers:

↳ A trigger is a statement that the system executes automatically as a side effect of a modification to the database.

↳ To design a trigger mechanism, we must meet two requirements.

i. Specify when a trigger is to be executed. This is broken up into an event that causes the trigger to be checked and a condition that must be satisfied for trigger execution to proceed.

ii. Specify the actions to be taken when the trigger executes.

↳ Three parts of trigger

i. Event (activates the trigger) insert, update or delete of the database.

ii. Condition : if the condition is true, the trigger executes otherwise skipped

iii. Action (what happens if the trigger runs) wide variety of options.

Syntax:

create trigger [trigger-name]

[before | after]

{insert | update | delete}

on [table-name]

[for each row]

[trigger-body]

- i. [create trigger [trigger-name]]: creates or replaces an existing trigger with the trigger-name.
- ii. [before|after]: This specifies when the trigger will be executed.
- iii. {insert|update|delete}?: This specifies the DML operation.
- iv. on [table-name]: This specifies the name of the table associated with the trigger.
- v. [for each row]: This specifies a row-level trigger, i.e., the trigger will be executed for each row being affected.
- vi. [triggers-body]: This provides the operation to be performed as trigger is fired.

Example:

Create trigger setnull-trigger before update on Y
referencing new row as nrow
for each row
when nrow.phone-number = ''
set nrow.phone-number = null.

Create trigger overdraft-trigger after update on account

referencing new row as nrow

for each row

when nrow.balance < 0

begin nrow.balance < 0

begin atomic

insert into borrows

(select customers-name, account-numbers from depositor
where nrow.account-numbers = depositor.account-numbers);

insert into loan values
(nrow.account-numbers, nrow.branch-name,
nrow.balance);

update account
set balance = 0

where account.account-numbers = nrow.account-numbers

end.

Example of triggers on MSSQL servers:

```
CREATE TRIGGER trgNoNewTables  
ON DATABASE-STUDENT  
FOR CREATE_TABLE  
AS  
BEGIN  
    PRINT 'No new tuples please'  
    ROLLBACK  
END
```

This trigger won't allow us to create a new table on database named 'DATABASE-STUDENT'

```
CREATE TRIGGER trgNoChangeTables  
ON DATABASE-STUDENT  
FOR CREATE_TABLE, ALTER_TABLE, DROP_TABLE  
AS  
BEGIN  
    PRINT 'No changes to table please'  
    ROLLBACK  
END.
```

To drop triggers.

```
DROP TRIGGER trgNoNewTables ON DATABASE-  
STUDENT;
```

To disable trigger.

DISABLE TRIGGER trgNochangeTables ON DATABASE - STUDENT

To enable trigger.

ENABLE TRIGGER trgNochangeTables ON DATABASE - STUDENT

To disable All triggers

DISABLE TRIGGER ALL ON DATABASE - STUDENT

To enable All triggers.

ENABLE TRIGGER ALL ON DATABASE - STUDENT

Examples:

CREATE TRIGGER MyTrigger

ON customers

AFTER INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE

AS

BEGIN

SELECT * from deleted

select * from inserted

end.

Functional Dependencies:

- ↳ Functional dependency is a relationship that exists when one attribute uniquely determines another attribute.
- ↳ If R is a relation with attributes X and Y, a functional dependency between the attributes is represented as $X \rightarrow Y$, which specifies Y is functionally dependent on X.
- ↳ Here X is a determinant set and Y is dependent attribute. Each value of X is associated with precisely one Y value.
- ↳ Functional dependency in a database serves as a constraint between two sets of attributes.
- ↳ Defining functional dependency is an important part of relational database design and contributes to aspect normalization.
- ↳ Functional dependency typically exists between the primary key and non-key attribute within a table.

$$X \rightarrow Y$$

The left side of FD is known as determinant, the right side of the production is known as dependent.

For example:

Assume we have an employee table with attributes: Emp-Id, Emp-Name, Emp-Address

These 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.

Types of Functional dependency:

- i. Trivial functional dependency
- ii. Non-trivial functional dependency.

i. Trivial functional dependency:

↳ $A \rightarrow B$ has trivial functional dependency if B is a subset of A .

↳ The following dependencies are also trivial

$$A \rightarrow A, B \rightarrow B$$

Example:

Consider a table with two columns Employee-Id and Employee-Name.

$$\{ \text{Employee-Id}, \text{Employee-Name} \} \rightarrow \text{Employee-Id}$$

Compound Determinants:

If more than one attribute is necessary to determine another attribute in an entity, then such determinant is termed a composite determinant.

Full Functional Dependency:

only of relevance with composite determinants. This is the situation when it is necessary to use all the attributes of composite determinant to identify its object uniquely.

if A and B are attributes of a relation, B is fully functionally dependent on A if B is functionally dependent on A, but not on any proper subset of A.

Partial Functional Dependency:

This is situation that exists if it is necessary to only use a subset of the attributes of the composite determinant to identify its object uniquely.

A functional dependency $A \rightarrow B$ is a partially dependency if there are some attributes that can be removed from A & yet the dependency holds.

Date. 1. Trivial functional dependency.

The dependency of an attribute on a set of attributes is known as trivial functional dependency if the set of attributes includes that attribute.

$A \rightarrow B$ 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

$\{Employee-Id, Employee-Name\} \rightarrow Employee-Id$
is a trivial functional dependency as:

$Employee-Id$ is subset of $\{Employee-Id, Employee-Name\}$

Also $Employee-Id \rightarrow Employee-Id$
 $Employee-Name \rightarrow Employee-Name$
are trivial dependencies too.

ii. Non-trivial functional dependency.

$A \rightarrow B$ has non trivial functional dependency if B is not a subset of A .

When $A \cap B$ is NULL , then

$A \rightarrow B$ is called as complete non-trivial

Example:

i. $ID \rightarrow Name$

$Name \rightarrow DOB$

ii.

Company	CEO	Age
Microsoft	Satya Nadella	51
Google	Sundar Pichai	46
Apple	Tim Cook	58
Amazon	Jeff Bezos	55

$\{Company\} \rightarrow \{CEO\}$

But CEO is not a subset of company
and hence non-trivial functional dependency

Armstrong's Axioms property of functional dependency.

Armstrong's Axioms property was developed by William Armstrong in 1974 to reason out about functional dependencies.

The property suggests rules that hold true if the following are satisfied.

1. Transitivity

if $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$, then $A \rightarrow C$
i.e. transitive relation

2. Reflexivity

$A \rightarrow A$, if B is a subset of A

3. Augmentation

The last rule suggests: $AC \rightarrow BC$,
if $A \rightarrow B$

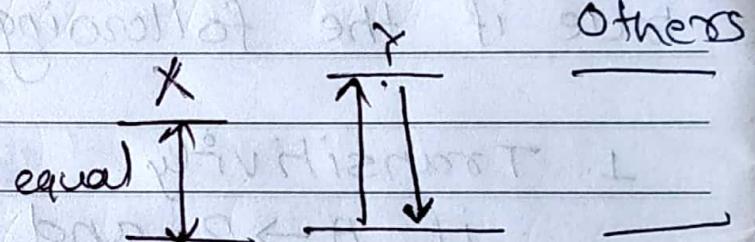
Characteristics of Functional Dependencies.

↳ There is a one-to-one relationship between the attribute(s) on the left hand side (determinant) and those on the

right-hand side of a functional dependency.

↳ Holds for all time

↳ The determinant has the minimal number of attributes necessary to maintain the dependency with the attribute(s) on the right hand-side.



Multivalued Dependency:

↳ Multivalued dependency occurs when two attributes in a table are independent of each other but, both depend on a third attribute.

↳ A multivalued dependency consists of at least two attributes that are dependent on a third attribute that's why it always requires at least three attributes.

Example: Suppose there is a bike manufacturer company which produces

For MVD refers mathematical definition too.

Date.

two colors (white and black) of each model every year

BIKE-MODEL	MANUF-YEAR	COLOR
M2001	2008	white
M2001	2008	black
M3001	2013	white
M3001	2013	black
M4006	2017	white
M4006	2017	black

Here columns COLOR and MANUF-YEAR are dependent on BIKE-MODEL and independent of each other.

These two columns can be called as multivalued dependent on BIKE-MODEL.

Representation of these dependencies is shown below:

BIKE-MODEL $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ MANUF-YEAR

BIKE-MODEL $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ COLOR

which can be read as "BIKE-MODEL

multidetermined MANUF-YEAR" and "BIKE-MODEL multidetermined COLOR".

Join Dependency:

↳ If a table can be re-created by joining multiple tables and each of these tables have a subset of the attributes of the table, then the table is in join dependency.

↳ Join dependency is a further generalization of multivalued dependencies.

↳ If the join of R_1 and R_2 over C is equal to relation R , then we can say that join dependency (JD) exists.

Where R_1 and R_2 are the decompositions $R_1(A, B, C)$ and $R_2(C, D)$ of given relations $R(A, B, C, D)$.

Example:

<Employee>

EmpName	EmpSkills	EmpJob
Arijun	Networking	EJ001
Toni	Web Development	EJ002
Aswin	Programming	EJ002

The above table can be decomposed into following three tables.

<Employeeskills>

EmpName	EmpSkills
Arijun	Networking
Toni	Web Development
Aswin	Programming

<EmployeeJob>

EmpName	EmpJob
Arijun	EJ001
Toni	EJ002
Aswin	EJ002

<Job Skills>

EmpSkills	EmpJob		
Networking	EJ001		
Web Development	EJ002		
Programming	EJ002		

Join Dependency:

$\{(\text{EmpName}, \text{EmpSkills}), (\text{EmpName}, \text{EmpJob}),$
 $(\text{EmpSkills}, \text{EmpJob})\}$ is equal to
 the relation <Employee>

Normalization:

↳ Database normalization is the process of removing redundant data from tables to improve storage efficiency, data integrity and scalability.

↳ Database normalization is a technique of organizing the data in the database.

↳ Normalization generally involves

splitting existing tables into multiple ones, which must be rejoined or linked each time a query is issued.

↳ Normalization is multi-step process

↳ Normalization is the process of efficiently organizing data in database with two goal:

1. Eliminate redundant data

2. Ensure data dependencies make sense.

↳ Data normalization also may improve data consistency and simplify future extension of the logical data model.

↳ The formal classifications used for describing a relational database's level of normalization are called normal forms.

↳ Normal Forms is abbreviated as NF

1NF	2NF	3NF	4NF	5NF	6NF
first normal form	second normal form	third normal form	4th normal form	5th normal form	6th normal form
second normal form	3rd normal form	4th normal form	5th normal form	6th normal form	

anomalies \rightarrow 6th that deviates from what is standard.

Date.

What happens without Normalization?

- ↳ A non-normalized database can suffer from data anomalies.
- ↳ A non-normalized database may store data representing a particular referent in multiple locations.
- ↳ An update to such data in some but not all of those locations results in an update anomaly, yielding inconsistent data.
- ↳ A non-normalized database may have inappropriate dependencies, i.e. relationships between data with no functional dependencies.

Example:

Student-Table

Roll-No	Name	Branch	HOD	Office-Tel
1	Taddish	BCT	Hasi	01-5337
2	Yagy	BCT	Hasi	01-5337

3	suman	BCT	Hari	0153337
4	shankar	BCT	Hari	0153337

Insestion Anomaly.

↳ supposed for a new admission, until and unless a student opts for a branch, data of the student cannot be inserted or else we will have to set the branch information as NULL.

↳ if we have to insert data of 100 students of same branch, then the branch information will be repeated for all those 100 students.

Updation Anomaly.

↳ if Hari is no longer the HOD of computer department or what if Hari leaves the college?

↳ In that case all student records will have to be updated, and if by mistake we miss any record, it will lead to data inconsistency.

Deletion Anomaly:

In our student table, two different informations are kept together, student information and Branch information. Hence, at the end of the academic year, if student records are deleted, we will also lose the branch information. This is Deletion anomaly.

Advantages of Normalization.

- ↳ Elimination of redundant data storage
- ↳ Closed modeling of real world entities, processes and their relationship.
- ↳ Structuring of data so that model is flexible.
- ↳ Less storage space.
- ↳ Easier to add data and avoid certain updating anomalies.

↳ Facilitate the enforcement of data constraints.

Normalized database.

↳ Normalized databases have a design that reflects the true dependencies.

↳ Instead of attempting to lump all information into one table, data is spread out logically into many tables.

↳ Normalizing the data is decomposing a single relation into a set of smaller relations which satisfy the constraints of the original relation.

↳ Redundancy can be solved by decomposing the tables. However certain new problems are caused by decomposition.

↳ Normalization helps us to make a conscious decision to avoid redundancy keeping the pros and cons in mind.

- ↳ One can only describe a database as having a normal form if the relationships between quantities have been clearly defined.
- ↳ It is possible to use set theory to express this knowledge once a problem domain has been fully understood; but most database designers model the relationship in terms of an "idealized schema" (The mathematical support came back into play in proofs regarding the process of transforming from one form to another.)
- ↳ The transformation of conceptual model to computer representation format is known as Normalization.

Stages of Normalization!

Un normalized form (UNF)

→ Remove repeating groups

First normal form (1NF)

→ Remove partial dependency

Second normal form (2NF)

→ Remove transitive dependencies

Third normal form (3NF)

→ Remove remaining functional dependency anomalies

Boyce-Codd normal form (BCNF)

→ Remove multivalued dependency

Fourth normal form (4NF)

→ non-trivial join dependency is implied by a candidate key

Fifth normal form (5NF)

→ Every constraint is a consequence of domain constraints & key constraints

Domain-Key normal form (DKNF)

First Normal Form (1NF)

- ↳ First Normal form (1NF) lays the groundwork for an organized database design.
- ↳ A relational schema R is in first normal form if the domains of all attributes of R are atomic. Domain is atomic if its elements are considered to be indivisible units.
- ↳ Ensure that each table has a primary key: minimal set of attributes which can uniquely identify a record.
- ↳ In each column the values stored must be of the same kind or type.
- ↳ Each column is a table should have unique name.
- ↳ Eliminate repeating groups! categories of data would seem

to be required a different numbers of times on different records) by defining keyed and non-keyed attributes appropriately

Example:

roll-no	name	Subject
101	Ramesh	OS, CN
103	Hira	Java
102	Narendra	C, C++

101 and 102 have opted for more than one subject.

roll-no	name	Subject
101	Ramesh	OS
101	Ramesh	CN
103	Hira	Java
102	Narendra	C
102	Narendra	C++

1 NF increases data redundancy

Second Normal Form (2NF)

- ↳ For a table to be in 2NF, it must satisfy two conditions
 - i. The table should be in 1NF
 - ii. There should be no partial dependency
- ↳ if a table has a composite key, all attributes must be related to the whole key.
- ↳ A relation R is in 2NF if R is in 1NF and all non-prime attributes are fully dependent on the candidate keys.
- ↳ Data which is redundantly duplicated across multiple rows of a table is moved out to a separate table.

Converting from 1NF to 2NF

- i. Identify the primary key for the 1NF relation.
- ii. Identify the functional dependencies

in the relation.

iii. If partial dependencies exist on the primary key remove them by placing them in new relation along with a copy of their determinant.

Example:

Subject-Table

Subject-Id	Subject-Name
1	Java
2	C++
3	PHP

Score-Table.

Score-Id	Student-Id	Subject-Id	Marks	Teacher
1	10	1	70	Karthick
2	10	2	75	Ranjit
3	11	1	68	Karthick

Student-Id + Subject-Id forms a candidate key.

↳ Teachers name only depends on subject, hence the subject-Id & has nothing to do with student-Id.

Partial Dependency:

It is a condition where an attribute in a table depends on only part of the primary key and not the whole key.

↳ Remove column teacher from score table and add it to the subject-Table.

Subject-Table

Subject-Id	Subject-Name	Teacher
1	Java	Karthick
2	C++	Ranjit
3	PHP	Arun
4	DBMS	Shiva

Score-Table

Score-Id	Student-Id	Subject-Id	Marks
4	10	1	70
2	10	2	75
3	11	1	68

Closure of a set of functional dependencies.

↪ A closure is a set of all possible FDs that can be derived from given set of FD's

↪ Closure set is also referred as a complete set of FD's.

↪ If F is used to denote the set of FDs for relation R , then a closure of a set of FDs implied by F is denoted by F^+ .

↪ Let's consider the set F of functional dependencies given below:

$$F = \{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, C \rightarrow D\}$$

from F it is possible to derive following dependenues.

$$A \rightarrow A$$

$$A^+ \rightarrow ABCD \text{ (Union)}$$

$$A \rightarrow B$$

Closure of A under F

$$A \rightarrow C$$

$$A \rightarrow D$$

$$A \rightarrow ABCD$$

All such type of FDs derived from each FD of F form a closure of F .

Additional Rules:

Union rule:

If $\alpha \rightarrow B$ holds and $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ holds then
 $\alpha \rightarrow B\gamma$ holds.

Decomposition rule:

If $\alpha \rightarrow B\gamma$ holds, then $\alpha \rightarrow B$ and
 $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ holds.

Pseudotransitivity rule:

If $\alpha \rightarrow B$ holds and $\gamma B \rightarrow \delta$ holds
then $\alpha \gamma \rightarrow \delta$ holds.

Steps to determine F⁺:

i. Determine each set of attributes x^+ that appears as a left hand side of some FD in F .

ii. Determine the set x^+ of all attributes that are dependent on x .

iii. All such sets of x^+ , in combine form closure of F .

Examples:

For given FD, find all possible F^+

$$R = \{ A, B, C, G, H, I \}$$

$$F = \{ A \rightarrow B, A \rightarrow C, CG \rightarrow H, GI \rightarrow I, B \rightarrow H, CGI \rightarrow I \}$$

Some members of F^+

$A \rightarrow H$ from $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow H$ by transitivity

$AG \rightarrow I$ by augmenting $A \rightarrow C$ with G , to get $AG \rightarrow CG$ and then transitivity with $CG \rightarrow I$

$CG \rightarrow HI$ by ~~augmenting~~

Problem 1: For given FD

$$R = \{ A, B, C, D, E, G, H, I, J \}$$

$$F = \{ AB \rightarrow E, AG \rightarrow J, BE \rightarrow I, E \rightarrow G, GI \rightarrow H \}$$

- i. List all possible F^+
- ii. Does $AB \rightarrow GH$?

Problem 2: For given FD

$$R = (A, B, C, D, E, F, G)$$

$$F = \{ A \rightarrow B, ABCD \rightarrow E, EF \rightarrow G \}$$

- i. List all possible F^+
- ii. Does $ACDF \rightarrow G$, implied by the set of FD's?

Problem 3: For given two set of $F_1 \& F_2$ for a relation

$$F_1 = \{ A \rightarrow B, AB \rightarrow C, D \rightarrow AC, D \rightarrow E \}$$

$$F_2 = \{ A \rightarrow BC, D \rightarrow AE \}$$

F_1 & F_2 are equivalent or not?

Problem 4: Let $R = (A, B, C, D, E, F)$

$$F = \{ A \rightarrow BC, B \rightarrow E, CD \rightarrow EF \}$$

- i. List all possible F^+

- ii. Does $AD \rightarrow F$ implied by the set of FD's?

Uses of Attribute closure.

Date.

↳ Testing for super key -

To test, if α is a super key, we compute α^+ , and check if α^+ contains all attributes of R. Then, α is a super key of R

↳ Testing functional dependencies.

For example: to check whether a FD like $A \rightarrow B$ holds in a relation, find the A^+ . If B is in A^+ , then functional dependency $A \rightarrow B$ is valid.

Example:

For given FD, find closure of $(A \cup I)^+$

$$R = (A, B, C, G, H, I)$$

$$F = \{ A \rightarrow B, A \rightarrow C, CG \rightarrow H, GI \rightarrow I, B \rightarrow H, \\ \{ GI \rightarrow I \} \}$$

Solution:

$$\text{result} = A \cup I$$

$$= ABCGI \quad (A \rightarrow C \text{ and } A \rightarrow B)$$

$$= ABCGHI \quad (GI \rightarrow H \text{ and } GI \subseteq ABCGI)$$

$$= ABCGHI \quad (CG \rightarrow I \text{ and } CG \subseteq ABCGHI)$$

Date.

Here $A\cup$ is the candidate key because closure of $A\cup$ contains all attributes of R

Problem 5:

Let $R = (A, B, C, D, E)$

$F = \{B \rightarrow CD, B \rightarrow A, E \rightarrow C, AD \rightarrow B, D \rightarrow E\}$

is $B \rightarrow E$ in F^+ ?

List out all possible super keys and candidate key of above given problems.
(i.e 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

canonical cover

↳ set of functional dependencies may have redundant dependencies that can be inferred from the others.

For example: $A \rightarrow C$ is redundant in
 $\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow C\}$

↳ parts of a functional dependency maybe redundant.

$(AB) \rightarrow (BC)$ is redundant in $(AB) \rightarrow (AC)$

$(CD) \rightarrow (AD)$ is redundant in $(CD) \rightarrow (AC)$

Eg: on RHS

$\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow CD\}$ can be simplified
to $\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow D\}$

Eg: on LHS

$\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, AC \rightarrow D\}$ can be simplified
to $\{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A \rightarrow D\}$

↳ A canonical cover of F is a "minimal" set of functional dependencies equivalent to F , having no redundant dependencies or redundant parts of dependencies.

Third Normal Form (3NF)

↳ A table is said to be in third normal form when

- i. It is in second normal form.
- ii. And it doesn't have Transitive dependency.

↳ 3NF requires the data stored in a

table be dependent only on the primary key, and not on any other field in the table.

↳ Converting 2NF to 3NF

i. Identify the primary key in the 2NF relation.

ii. Identify functional dependencies in the relation.

iii. If transitive dependencies exist on the primary key, remove them by placing them in a new relation along with a copy of their determinant.

Student-Table

Student-Id	Name	Reg-No	Branch	Address
10	Hari	07-WY	BCT	Beni
11	Shyam	08-WY	BEX	Baglung
12	Santosh	09-WY	BEX	Musikot

Subject-Table

subject-Id	Subject-Name	Teacher
1	Java	Karthick
2	C++	Ranjit
3	PHP	Arun

Score-Table

Score-id	Student-Id	Subject-Id	Marks
1	10	1	70
2	10	2	75
3	11	1	65

Let's add 2 more columns to score table.

Score-Id	Student-Id	Subject-Id	Marks	Exam-name

total-marks

Primary key:

Composite key → Student-Id + Subject-Id

Total-marks depends on exam name as with exam type and total score changes

Date.

For example: practicals are of less marks while theory exams are of more marks. exam-name is not a primary key but total marks depend on it.

This is transitive dependency. When a non prime attribute depends on other non prime attributes rather than depending upon the prime attributes or primary key.

Score-Table: In 3rd Normal Form

Score-Id	student-Id	Subject-Id	marks	exam-id

The new Exam table

exam-id	exam-name	Total-marks
1	workshop	200
2	Mains	70
3	Practicals	30

Advantages of removing transitive dependency:

- i. Amount of data duplication is reduced
- ii. Data integrity is achieved.

Boyce-Codd normal form (BCNF)

↳ A relation is in BCNF if and only if, every determinant is a candidate key.

↳ R must be in 3NF

↳ For each functional dependency $X \rightarrow Y$, X should be a super key.

X cannot be non-prime attribute, if Y is a prime attribute.

↳ If table contains only one candidate key, the 3NF and BCNF are equivalent

↳ BCNF is a special case of 3NF.

Example:

student-Id	subject	Professor
101	Java	Arya
101	C++	Sansa
102	Java	Brendon
103	C#	John
104	Java	Tyrion

In the above table:

one student can enroll for multiple subjects. like. Fava

There can be multiple professors teaching one subject.

Here

student-Id + subject together form the primary key, because using student-Id and subject, we can find all columns of the table.

↳ There is dependency between subject & professor here, where subject depends on the professor name.

Date.

To make this table satisfy BCNF, we will decompose this table into two tables, a student table and professor table.

Student - Table

Student-ID	P-ID
101	1
101	2
102	3

And Professor - Table

P-id	professor	subject
1	Arya	Java
2	Sansa	C++

Fourth Normal Form (4NF)

For a table to satisfy fourth normal form, it should satisfy following two conditions.

- i. It should be in BCNF
- ii. And, the table should not have any Multi-valued dependency.

S-Id	course	hobby
1	Science	cricket
1	Maths	Hockey
2	C#	cricket
2	php	Hockey

S-Id 1 has opted for two courses, science and Maths and has two hobbies, cricket & Hockey. which will lead to following table.

S-Id	course	hobby	t ₁ 1 Science
1	Science	cricket	t ₂ 1 Science
1	Maths	Hockey	Hockey
1	Science	Hockey	
1	Maths	cricket	

These course and hobby are independent of each other.

courseopted Table

S-Id	course
1	Science
1	Maths
2	C#
2	php

Hobbies Table

Date.

S-ID	hobby
1	Cricket
1	Hockey
2	Cricket
2	Hockey

Domain Key Normal form (DKNF)

A relation will be in DKNF if and only if every content of the relation is a logical sequence of domain constraints or key constraint

Domain constraint :

EMPID	EmpName	EmpAge
0921	Mahesh	33
0922	Bipin	31

Attributes should have some set of values, for example EMPID should be four digits long.

key constraint,

An attribute or its combination is a candidate key.

General constraint predicate on the set of all relations.

More examples:

INF

i. LiveIN

Name	Address	city	Year-Move-in	Years-left
Ram	kathmandu		2000	2010

Normalized Table:

Name	city	Year-Move-IN	Years-Left
Ram	kathmandu	2000	2010

ii. ORDER(order-no, order-date, cust-no, cust-name, cust-add, order-total)

PRODUCTS-DES (orderno, prod-no, prod-des, unit-price, order-qty, line-total)

iii

T_1 (Patient-Num, F-name, L-name, ward.num,
ward.Name)

T_2 (Patient-Num, Prescription-date, Drug-code,
drug.Name, Dosage, length-of-Treatment)

qNF:

i. ORDER (order-no, order-date, cust-no, cust-name,
cust-add, order-total)

PRODUCT-2 (prod-no, prod-desc, unit-price)

ORDER-LINE-2 (order-no, prod-no, ord-qty, line-total)

ii: T_1 (Patient-Num, F-name, L-name, ward.num,
ward.Name)

T_2 (Patient-Num, Prescription-date, Drug-code,
Dosage, length-of-Treatment)

T_3 (Drug-code, Drug-Name)

3NF:

i. PRODUCT-2 (prod-no, prod-desc, unit-price)

ORDER-LINE-2 (order-no, prod-no, ord-qty, line-total)

CUSTOMER-3 (order-no, order-date, cust-no, order-total)

ii. T₁ (Patient-Num, F-name, L-name, Ward-num)

T₂ (Patient-Num, prescription-date, Drug-code, dosage, length-of-treatment)

T₄ (ward-num, ward-name)

BCNF:

Relation R and functional dependency F

R = (branch-name, branch-city, assets, customers-name, loan-numbers, amount)

F = { branch-name → assets, branch-city,

$\text{loan-number} \rightarrow \text{amount branch-name}$

key = { loan-number, customer-name }

$R_1 = (\text{branch-name}, \text{branch-city}, \text{assets})$

$R_2 = (\text{branch-name}, \text{loan-numbers}, \text{amount})$

$R_3 = (\text{customer-name}, \text{loan-number})$

4NF:

Employee (Ename, Pname, Dname)

Ename $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ Pname

Pname $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ Dname.

Ename multi determines Pname ($1:N$), i.e single value of Ename associated with multiple value of Pname.

Pname multi determines Dname ($1:N$); i.e single value of Pname associated with multiple value of Dname.

Employee:		Ename	Pname	Dname
Sita		X		Ram
Sita		Y		Rita
Sita		X		Rita
sita		Y		Ram Date

EMP- Project

EMP- Dependant

Ename	Pname
Sita	X
Sita	Y

Ename	Dname
Sita	Ram
Sita	Rita

Relational Decomposition.

- ↳ When a relation in the relational model is not in appropriate normal form then the decomposition of relation is required.
- ↳ In database, tables are broken into multiple tables.
- ↳ If the relation has no proper decomposition, then it may lead to problems like loss of information.
- ↳ Decomposition is used to eliminate some of the problems of bad design like anomalies, inconsistencies, and redundancy.

Types of Decomposition:

- i. Lossless Decomposition
- ii. Dependency Preservation.

Lossless Decomposition:

- ↳ If the information is not lost from the relation that is decomposed, then the decomposition will be lossless.
- ↳ The lossless decomposition guarantees that the join of relations will result in the same relation as it was decomposed.
- ↳ The relation is said to be lossless decomposition if natural joins of all the decomposition give the original relation.

Example:

Employee-Department table:

EMP-ID	EMP-NAME	EMP-AGE	EMP-CITY	DEPLID
22	Dinesh	28	Mahendranagar	827
33	Alina	25	Dipyal	498

Date: _____
Sales
Marketing

46	Sambuddhi	30	Baglung	869	Finance
52	Kamal	36	Mustang	575	Production
60	Jamuna	40	Nepalganj	678	Testing

The above relation is decomposed into two relations EMPLOYEE and DEPARTMENT

EMPLOYEE

EMP-ID	EMP-NAME	EMP-AGE	EMP-CITY
22	Dinesh	28	Mahendranagar
33	Alina	25	Dipayal
46	Sambuddhi	30	Baglung
52	Kamal	36	Mustang
60	Jamuna	40	Nepalganj

DEPARTMENT

DEPT-ID	EMP-ID	DEPT-NAME
827	22	Sales
438	33	Marketing
869	46	Finance
575	52	Production
678	60	Testing

Now, when these two relations are joined on the common column "EMP-ID", then

the resultant relation will be equivalent to Employee-Department table

$$\text{Employee} \bowtie \text{Department} \equiv \text{Employee-Department}$$

Hence, the decomposition is lossless join decomposition.

Dependency Preservation.

↪ A decomposition $D = \{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n\}$ of R is dependency-preserving with respect to F if the union of the projections of F on each R_i in D is equivalent to F .

i.e

$$\text{if } (F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \dots \cup F_n)^+ = F^+$$

↪ If a relation R is decomposed into Relation R_1 and R_2 , then the dependencies of R either must be part of R_1 or R_2 or must be derived from the combination of functional dependencies of R_1 and R_2 .

Example:

Suppose there is a relation $R(A, B, C, D)$ with functional dependency set $A \rightarrow BC$.

Date.

The relation R is decomposed into $R_1(ABC)$ and $R_2(AD)$ which is dependency preserving because $F \models A \rightarrow BC$ is a part of relation $R_1(ABC)$