

Chapter 7: Relational Database Design. Part 1.

1. Pitfalls in Relational Database Design

- . Relational database design requires that we find a “good” collection of relation schemas. A bad design may lead to
 - . Repetition of Information.
 - . Inability to represent certain information.
- . Design Goals:
 - . Avoid redundant data
 - . Ensure that relationships among attributes are represented
 - . Facilitate the checking of updates for violation of database integrity constraints.

Example

- . Consider the relation schema:
Lending-schema = (*branch-name*, *branch-city*, *assets*, *customer-name*, *loan-number*, *amount*)

branch-name	branch-city	assets	customer-name	loan-number	amount
Downtown	Brooklyn	9000000	Jones	L-17	1000
Redwood	Palo Alto	2100000	Smith	L-23	2000
Perryridge	Horseneck	1700000	Hayes	L-15	1500
Downtown	Brooklyn	9000000	Jackson	L-14	1500

Problems:

- . Redundancy:
 - . Data for *branch-name*, *branch-city*, *assets* are repeated for each loan that a branch makes
 - . Wastes space
 - . Complicates updating, introducing possibility of inconsistency of *assets* value
- . Null values
 - . Cannot store information about a branch if no loans exist
 - . Can use null values, but they are difficult to handle.

2. Decomposition

- . Decompose the relation schema *Lending-schema* into:
Branch-schema = (*branch-name*, *branch-city*, *assets*)
Loan-info-schema = (*customer-name*, *loan-number*, *branch-name*, *amount*)

- All attributes of an original schema (R) must appear in the decomposition (R_1, R_2):

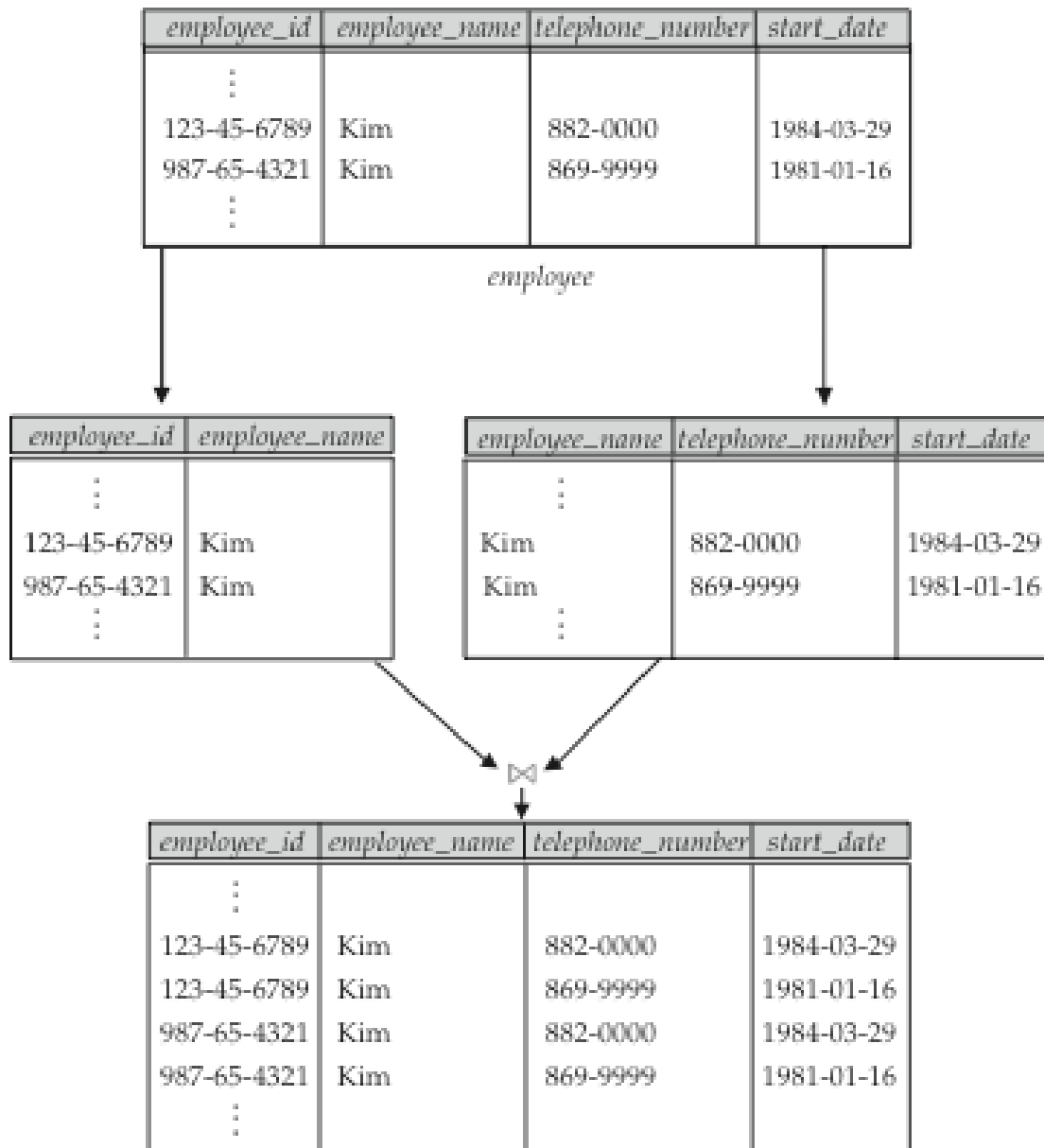
$$R = R_1 \cup R_2$$

- **Lossless-join decomposition.**

For all possible relations r on schema R

$$r = \prod_{R_1}(r) \bowtie \prod_{R_2}(r)$$

3. A Lossy Decomposition. Example.



Problem: How to distinguish?

4. Goal — Devise a Theory for the Following

- . 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
 - . each relation is in good form
 - . the decomposition is a lossless-join decomposition

5. Review: domain.

Domain is **atomic** if its elements are considered to be indivisible units

- . Examples of non-atomic domains: set of names, composite attributes
- . In relational schema all domains are usually assumed to be atomic

6. First Normal Form

- . A relational schema R is in **first normal form** if the domains of all attributes of R are atomic

We assume all relations are in first normal form

If a relational schema is in first normal form, can we say that it is a “good” scheme. No. Let’s go on.

7. Functional Dependencies

- . We’ll build our theory on functional dependencies.
- . **Functional Dependency** is a constraint that requires that the value for a certain set of attributes determines uniquely the value for another set of attributes.

A functional dependency is a generalization of the notion of a *key*.

8. Review: keys.

- . K is a superkey for relation schema R if and only if $K \rightarrow R$
- . K is a candidate key for R if and only if
 - . $K \rightarrow R$, and
 - . for no $\alpha \subset K$, $\alpha \rightarrow R$
- . Functional dependencies allow us to express constraints that cannot be expressed using superkeys. Consider the schema:

Loan-info-schema = (*customer-name*, *loan-number*, *branch-name*, *amount*).

We expect this set of functional dependencies to **hold** (be satisfied):

loan-number \rightarrow *amount*

loan-number \rightarrow *branch-name*

but would not expect the following to hold:

loan-number \rightarrow *customer-name*

9. Use of Functional Dependencies

- . We use functional dependencies to:
 - . test relations to see if they are legal under a given set of functional dependencies.
 - ▶ If a relation r is legal under a set F of functional dependencies, we say that r **satisfies** F .
 - . specify constraints on the set of legal relations
 - ▶ We say that F **holds on** R if all legal relations on R satisfy the set of functional dependencies F .

Note: A specific instance of a relation schema may satisfy a functional dependency even if the functional dependency does not hold on all legal instances. For example, a specific instance of *Loan-schema* may, by chance, satisfy

loan-number \rightarrow *customer-name*

10. Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- . A functional dependency is **trivial** if it is satisfied by all instances of a relation
 - . E.g.
 - ▶ *customer-name, loan-number* \rightarrow *customer-name*
 - ▶ *customer-name* \rightarrow *customer-name*

In general, $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial if $\beta \subseteq \alpha$

11. Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

- . Given a set F of functional dependencies, there are certain other functional dependencies that are logically implied by F .
 - . E.g. If $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$, then we can infer that $A \rightarrow C$
- . The set of all functional dependencies logically implied by F is the **closure** of F .
- . We denote the **closure** of F by F^+ .
- . We can find all of F^+ by applying Armstrong's Axioms:
 - . if $\beta \subseteq \alpha$, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ **(reflexivity)**
 - . if $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, then $\gamma \alpha \rightarrow \gamma \beta$ **(augmentation)**
 - . if $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, and $\beta \rightarrow \gamma$, then $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ **(transitivity)**
- . These rules are
 - . **sound** (generate only functional dependencies that actually hold) and
 - . **complete** (generate all functional dependencies that hold).

- . **Example**
- . $R = (A, B, C, G, H, I)$
- . $F = \{$
 - $A \rightarrow B$
 - $A \rightarrow C$
 - $CG \rightarrow H$
 - $CG \rightarrow I$
 - $B \rightarrow H\}$
- . some members of F^+
 - . $A \rightarrow H$
 - ▶ by transitivity from $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow H$
 - . $AG \rightarrow I$
 - ▶ by augmenting $A \rightarrow C$ with G, to get $AG \rightarrow CG$ and then transitivity with $CG \rightarrow I$
 - . $CG \rightarrow HI$
 - ▶ from $CG \rightarrow H$ and $CG \rightarrow I$: “union rule” can be inferred from definition of functional dependencies, or:
 - (1) augmentation of $CG \rightarrow I$ to infer $CG \rightarrow CGI$,
 - (2) augmentation of $CG \rightarrow H$ to infer $CGI \rightarrow HI$, and then
 - (3) transitivity.

12. Closure of Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- . We can further simplify manual computation of F^+ by using the following additional rules.
 - . If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds and $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ holds, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \gamma$ holds (**union**)
 - . If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \gamma$ holds, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds and $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ holds (**decomposition**)
 - . If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds and $\gamma \beta \rightarrow \delta$ holds, then $\alpha \gamma \rightarrow \delta$ holds (**pseudotransitivity**)
- . The above rules can be inferred from Armstrong’s axioms.

13. Look back at our goal: lossless-join decomposition (#4 and #2).

- . All attributes of an original schema (R) must appear in the decomposition (R_1, R_2):

$$R = R_1 \cup R_2$$
- . Lossless-join decomposition.

For all possible relations r on schema R

$$r = \prod_{R_1}(r) \bowtie \prod_{R_2}(r)$$

14. How do we know that decomposition is a lossless join?

- . A decomposition of R into R_1 and R_2 is lossless join if and only if
- . **at least one of** the following dependencies is in F^+ :

$$R_1 \cap R_2 \rightarrow R_1$$

$$R_1 \cap R_2 \rightarrow R_2$$

Example: Lossless join.

Decompose the relation schema *Lending-schema* into:

Branch-schema = (*branch-name*, *branch-city*, *assets*)

Loan-info-schema = (*customer-name*, *loan-number*, *branch-name*, *amount*)

Example: A Lossy Decomposition (Kim example)

Decompose the relation schema *Employee-schema* = (*employee_id*, *employee_name*, *telephone_number*, *start_date*) into:

Employee-id-schema = (*employee_id*, *employee_name*)

Employee-info-schema = (*employee_name*, *telephone_number*, *start_date*)