CSc 134 **Database Management Systems** 7. Functional Dependencies and Normalization for **Relational Databases** Ying Jin **Computer Science Department** California state University, Sacramento

Introduction

What is relational database design? The grouping of attributes to form relation schemas

What are good relational design?

Formal measures

Functional Dependencies

FDs are constraints that are derived from meaning and interrelationships of the data attributes A functional dependency is a property of the semantics or meaning of the attributes.

Definition of functional dependency

A functional dependency, denoted by $X \rightarrow Y$, between two sets of attributes X and Y that are subsets of R specifies a constraint on the possible tuples that can form a relation state r of R. The constraint is that, for any two tuples t1 and t2 in r that have t1[X] = t2[X], they must also have t1[Y]=t2[Y].

FD example

A set of attributes X *functionally determines* a set of attributes Y if the value of X determines a unique value for Y.

 ◆Social security number functionally determines employee name
 SSN → ENAME

Notation of Functional Dependencies

 $\rightarrow Y$

- function dependency from X to Y
- Y is functionally dependent on X
- X: left hand side FD. Y: right hand side FD

♦ X → Y holds if whenever two tuples have the same value for X, they must have the same value for Y

A FD is a property of the relation schema R, not of a particular legal relation state r of R.

 $X \rightarrow Y$ in R specifies a *constraint* on **all** relation instances r(R)

Examples of FD

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

Infer additional FDs

Given a set of FDs F, we can infer additional FDs that hold whenever the FDs in F hold.

◆ Given a set of functional dependencies F
■ F = {SSN → ENAME
PNUMBER → {PNAME, PLOCATION}
{SSN, PNUMBER} → HOURS }

Infer?

- {ssn,bdata} → {ename,bdata}
- Pnumber → pname
- ssn \rightarrow hours

Inference Rules for FDs

Notation: XZ stands for {X,Z}

Armstrong's inference rules: **IR1. (Reflexive)** If $Y \subseteq X$, then $X \rightarrow Y$ **IR2. (Augmentation)** If $X \rightarrow Y$, then $XZ \rightarrow YZ$ **IR3. (Transitive)** If $X \rightarrow Y$ and $Y \rightarrow Z$, then $X \rightarrow Z$

Additional Inference Rules

IR 4:(**Decomposition**) If $X \rightarrow YZ$, then $X \rightarrow Y$ and $X \rightarrow Z$ IR 5: (**Union**) If $X \rightarrow Y$ and $X \rightarrow Z$, then $X \rightarrow YZ$ IR6: (**Psuedotransitivity**) If $X \rightarrow Y$ and $WY \rightarrow Z$, then $WX \rightarrow Z$

Deduced from IR1, IR2, and IR3

Closure

F⁺: Closure of F. The set of all dependencies that include F as well as all dependencies that can be inferred from f is called the closure of F.

X⁺: Closure of X under F. The set of attributes that are functionally determined by X based on F.

X + can be calculated by repeatedly applying IR1, IR2, IR3 using the FDs in F

Algorithm to calculate X⁺

Determining X+, the closure of x under F X+: =X; Repeat $oldX^+ := X^+;$ for each functional dependency Y->Z in F do if Y \subseteq X+ then X+ := X+ U Z; Until (X+ = $oldX^+$);

Example of calculate X⁺

 $F = \{ SSN - > ENAME,$ PNUMBER -> {PNAME, PLOCATION}, {SSN,PNUMBER} ->HOURS}

{SSN, PNUMBER} + = {SSN, PNUMBER,

ENAME, PNAME, PLOCATION, HOURS}

{SSN}+= {SSN, ENAME}

{PNUMBER} + = ?

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Equivalence of Sets of FDs

- Two sets of FDs F and G are equivalent if: - every FD in F can be inferred from G, and - every FD in G can be inferred from F F and G are equivalent if F + =G + Definition: F covers G if every FD in G can be inferred from F (i.e., if $G^+ \subseteq F^+$) F and G are equivalent if F covers G and
 - G covers F

Minimal Sets of FDs

- A set of FDs is **minimal** if it satisfies the following conditions:
- Every dependency in F has a single attribute for its right hand side.
- (2) We cannot replace any dependency $X \rightarrow A$ in F with a dependency $Y \rightarrow A$, where $Y \subseteq X$, and still have a set of dependencies that is equivalent to F.
- (3) We cannot remove any dependency from F and have a set of dependencies that is equivalent to F.

Minimal Sets of FDs

 Every set of FDs has an equivalent minimal set
 There can be several equivalent minimal sets
 We can always find at least one minimal set using Algorithm 10.2 Algorithm 10.2 Finding a Minimal Cover F for a set of functional Dependencies E

- 1. Set F: = E;
- 2. Replace each functional dependency $X \rightarrow \{A1, A2, ..., An\}$ in F by the n functional dependencies $X \rightarrow A1, X \rightarrow A2, ..., X \rightarrow An$
- 3. For each functional dependency X →A in F
 for each attribute B that is an element of X
 if {{F-{X →A}} U {{x-{B}} →A} is equivalent to F
 then replace X → A with (X-{B}) → A in F
 4. For each remaining functional dependency X→A in F
 - if (F-{X \rightarrow A}) is equivalent to F,
 - then remove X \rightarrow A from F.

What is normalization?

Normalization: The process of decomposing unsatisfactory relations by breaking up their attributes into smaller relations Use keys FDs to certify whether a relation schema is in a particular normal form

Practical Use of Normal Forms

- Normalization is carried out so that the resulting designs are of high quality and meet the desirable properties
- The practical utility of these normal forms becomes questionable when the constraints on which they are based are hard to understand or to detect
- The database designers *need not* normalize to the highest possible normal form.
- Denormalization: the process of storing the join of higher normal form relations as a base relation —which is in a lower normal form

Definitions of Keys and Attributes Participating in Keys

..., A_n is a set of attributes $S \subseteq R$ with the property that no two tuples t_1 and t_2 in any legal relation state r of R will have $t_1[S] =$ $t_2[S]$ $(k)^{+} =$ 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.

Definitions of Keys and Attributes Participating in Keys (Cont.)

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.

First Normal Form

Disallows composite attributes, multivalued attributes

Disallows attributes whose values for an individual tuple are nonatomic

Considered to be part of the definition of relation

Figure 10.8 Normalization into 1NF

DEPARTME	NT			
DNAME	DNUMBER	DMGRSSN	DLOCATIONS	
A			^	
DEPARTME	NT			
DNAME	DNUMBER	DMGRSSN	DLOCATIONS	
Research Administration Headquarters	5 4 1	333445555 987654321 888665555	{Bellaire, Sugarland, Houston} {Stafford} {Houston}	

Normalization into 1 NF

Solution 1 (best)

- Department(dname,<u>dnumber</u>, dmgrssn)
- dept_loc(<u>dnumber</u>, <u>dlocation</u>)

Solution 2

 department(<u>dnumber,dlocation</u>,dname,dmgrs sn)

Solution 3

 department(<u>dnumber</u>,dname,dmgrssn, dlocation1,dlocation2,dlocation3)

Full functional dependency Full functional dependency

- a FD Y → Z, where removal of any attribute from Y means the FD does not hold any more
- e.g. $\{SSN, PNUMBER\} \rightarrow HOURS$
- Partial dependency
 - e.g. {SSN, PNUMBER} \rightarrow ENAME

2 NF

General definition

- Take into account relations with multiple candidate keys
- Prime attribute: An attribute that is part of any candidate key
- A relation schema R is in second normal form (2NF) if every nonprime attribute A in R is fully functionally dependent on every key of R.

2NF - Example



- property_id#
- {county_name,lot#}

Violate/satisfy? 2NF

LOTS



3NF

 $X \rightarrow Y$ is **trivial** if $Y \subset X$, otherwise, it is nontrival. A relation schema R is in third normal form (3NF) if, whenever a non-trivial FD X \rightarrow A holds in R, then either: (1) X is a superkey of R, or (2) A is a prime attribute of R

3NF - example





BCNF (Boyce-Codd Normal Form)

◆ A relation schema R is in Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF) if whenever an nontrivial FD X → A holds in R, then X is a superkey of R

- Each normal form is strictly stronger than the previous one
 - Every 2NF relation is in 1NF
 - Every 3NF relation is in 2NF
 - Every BCNF relation is in 3NF

There exist relations that are in 3NF but not in BCNF

BCNF - example





These slides are based on the textbook of: R. Elmaseri and S. Navathe, *Fundamentals of Database Systems*, 7th Edition, Addison-Wesley.