# Information Systems (Informationssysteme) 

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## Schema Normalization

## Motivation

In the database design process, we tried to produce good relational schemata (e.g., by merging relations, slide 76).
$\rightarrow$ But what is "good," after all?
Let us consider an example:

## Students

| StudID | Name | Address | SeminarTopic |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $08-15$ | John Doe | 74 Main St | Databases |
| $08-15$ | John Doe | 74 Main St | Systems Design |
| $47-11$ | Mary Jane | 8 Summer St | Data Mining |
| $12-34$ | Dave Kent | 19 Church St | Databases |
| $12-34$ | Dave Kent | 19 Church St | Statistics |
| $12-34$ | Dave Kent | 19 Church St | Multimedia |

## Update Anomalies

Obviously, this is not an example of a "good" relational schema.
$\rightarrow$ Redundant information may lead to problems during updates:
Update Anomaly
If a student changes his address, several rows have to be updated.
Insert Anomaly
What if a student is not enrolled to any seminar?
$\rightarrow$ Null value in column SeminarTopic?
$(\rightarrow$ may be problematic since SeminarTopic is part of a key)
$\rightarrow$ To enroll a student to a course: overwrite null value (if student is not enrolled to any course) or create new tuple (otherwise)?

Delete Anomaly
Conversely, to un-register a student from a course, we might now either have to create a null value or delete an entire row.

## Decomposed Schema

Those anomalies can be avoided by decomposing the table:

| Students |  |  |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| StudID | Name | Address |
| $08-15$ | John Doe | 74 Main St |
| 47-11 | Mary Jane | 8 Summer St |
| $12-34$ | Dave Kent | 19 Church St |


| Students |  |
| :---: | :--- |
| StudID | SeminarTopic |
| $08-15$ | Databases |
| $08-15$ | Systems Design |
| $47-11$ | Data Mining |
| $12-34$ | Databases |
| $12-34$ | Statistics |
| $12-34$ | Multimedia |

No redundancy exists in this representation any more.

## Anomalies: Another Example

The previous example might seem silly. But what about this one:


Real-world constraints:
■ Each student may take only one exam with any particular professor.
■ For any course, all exams are done by the same professor.

## Anomalies: Another Example

Ternary relationship set $\rightarrow$ ternary relation:

| TakesExam |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Student | Professor | Course |
| John Doe | Prof. Smart | Information Systems |
| Dave Kent | Prof. Smart | Information Systems |
| John Doe | Prof. Clever | Computer Architecture |
| Mary Jane | Prof. Bright | Software Engineering |
| John Doe | Prof. Bright | Software Engineering |
| Dave Kent | Prof. Bright | Software Engineering |

■ The association Course $\rightarrow$ Professor occurs multiple times.
■ Decomposition without that redundancy?

## Functional Dependencies

Both examples contained instance of functional dependencies, e.g.,

$$
\text { Course } \rightarrow \text { Professor . }
$$

We say that
"Course (functionally) determines Professor."
meaning that when two tuples $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$ agree on their Course values, they must also contain the same Professor value.

## Notation

For this chapter, we'll simplify our notation a bit.
■ We use single capital letters $A, B, C, \ldots$ for attribute names.
■ We use a short-hand notation for sets of attributes:

$$
A B C \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\{A, B, C\}
$$

A functional dependency (FD) $A_{1} \ldots A_{n} \rightarrow B_{1} \ldots B_{m}$ on a relation schema $\operatorname{sch}(R)$ describes a constraint that, for every instance $R$ :

$$
t . A_{1}=s . A_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge t . A_{n}=s . A_{n} \Rightarrow t . B_{1}=s . B_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge t . B_{m}=s . B_{m}
$$

$\rightarrow$ A functional dependency is a constraint over one relation. $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, B_{1}, \ldots, B_{m}$ must all be in $\operatorname{sch}(R)$.

## Functional Dependencies $\leftrightarrow$ Keys

Functional dependencies are a generalization of key constraints:

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \text { is a key of relation } R\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, B_{1}, \ldots, B_{m}\right) . \\
\qquad A_{1} \ldots A_{n} \rightarrow B_{1} \ldots B_{m} \text { holds. }
\end{gathered}
$$

Conversely, functional dependencies can be explained with keys.

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{1} \ldots A_{n} \rightarrow B_{1} \ldots B_{m} \text { holds for } R . \\
\Leftrightarrow \\
A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \text { is a key of } \pi_{A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, B_{1}, \ldots B_{m}}(R) .
\end{gathered}
$$

$\rightarrow$ Functional dependencies are "partial keys".
$\rightarrow$ A goal of this chapter is to turn FDs into real keys, because key constraints can easily be enforced by a DBMS.

## Functional Dependencies

Functional dependencies in Students?

| Students |  |  |  |  |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| StudID | Name | Address | SeminarTopic |  |
| $08-15$ | John Doe | 74 Main St | Databases |  |
| $08-15$ | John Doe | 74 Main St | Systems Design |  |
| 47-11 | Mary Jane | 8 Summer St | Data Mining |  |
| $12-34$ | Dave Kent | 19 Church St | Databases |  |
| $12-34$ | Dave Kent | 19 Church St | Statistics |  |
| $12-34$ | Dave Kent | 19 Church St | Multimedia |  |

Functional dependencies in the TakesExam example?

## Functional Dependencies, Entailment

A functional dependency with $m$ attributes on the right-hand side

$$
A_{1} \ldots A_{n} \rightarrow B_{1} \ldots B_{m}
$$

is equivalent to the $m$ functional dependencies

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
A_{1} \ldots A_{n} & \rightarrow & B_{1} \\
\vdots & & \vdots \\
A_{1} \ldots A_{n} & \rightarrow & B_{m}
\end{array}
$$

Often, functional dependencies imply one another.
$\rightarrow$ We say that a set of FDs $\mathcal{F}$ entails another FD $f$ if the FDs in $\mathcal{F}$ guarantee that $f$ holds as well.
$\rightarrow$ If a set of FDs $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ entails all FDs in the set $\mathcal{F}_{2}$, we say that $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ is a cover of $\mathcal{F}_{2} ; \mathcal{F}_{1}$ covers (all FDs in) $\mathcal{F}_{2}$.

## Reasoning over Functional Dependencies

Intuitively, we want to (re-)write relational schemas such that
■ redundancy is minimized (and thus also update anomalies) and

- the system can still guarantee the same integrity constraints.

Functional dependencies allow us to reason over the latter.
E.g.,

■ Given two schemas $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ and their associated sets of FDs $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{2}$, are $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{2}$ "equivalent" ?

Equivalence of two sets of functional dependencies:
■ We say that two sets of FDs $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{2}$ are equivalent $\left(\mathcal{F}_{1} \equiv \mathcal{F}_{2}\right)$ when $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ entails all FDs in $\mathcal{F}_{2}$ and vice versa.

## Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

Given a set of functional dependencies $\mathcal{F}$, the set of all functional dependencies entailed by $\mathcal{F}$ is called the closure of $\mathcal{F}$, denoted $\mathcal{F}^{+}$:11

$$
\mathcal{F}^{+}:=\{\alpha \rightarrow \beta \mid \alpha \rightarrow \beta \text { entailed by } \mathcal{F}\}
$$

Closures can be used to express equivalence of sets of FDs:

$$
\mathcal{F}_{1} \equiv \mathcal{F}_{2} \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{F}_{1}^{+}=\mathcal{F}_{2}^{+}
$$

If there is a way to compute $\mathcal{F}^{+}$for a given $\mathcal{F}$, we can test
■ whether a given FD $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is entailed by $\mathcal{F}\left(\sim \alpha \rightarrow \beta \stackrel{?}{\in} \mathcal{F}^{+}\right)$
■ whether two sets of $\mathrm{FDs}, \mathcal{F}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{2}$, are equivalent.
${ }^{11}$ Let $\alpha, \beta, \ldots$ denote sets of attributes.

## Armstrong Axioms

$\mathcal{F}^{+}$can be computed from $\mathcal{F}$ by repeatedly applying the so-called Armstrong axioms to the FDs in $\mathcal{F}$ :

■ Reflexivity: ("trivial functional dependencies")

$$
\text { If } \beta \subseteq \alpha \text { then } \alpha \rightarrow \beta
$$

- Augmentation:

$$
\text { If } \alpha \rightarrow \beta \text { then } \alpha \gamma \rightarrow \beta \gamma .
$$

■ Transitivity:

$$
\text { If } \alpha \rightarrow \beta \text { and } \beta \rightarrow \gamma \text { then } \alpha \rightarrow \gamma .
$$

It can be shown that the three Amstrong axioms are sound and complete: exactly the FDs in $\mathcal{F}^{+}$can be generated from those in $\mathcal{F}$.

## Testing Entailment / Attribute Closure

Building the full $\mathcal{F}^{+}$for an entailment test can be very expensive:
■ The size of $\mathcal{F}^{+}$can be exponential in the size of $\mathcal{F}$.
■ Blindly applying the three Armstrong axioms to FDs in $\mathcal{F}$ can be very inefficient.

A better strategy is to focus on the particular FD of interest.

## Idea:

■ Given a set of attributes $\alpha$, compute the attribute closure $\alpha_{\mathcal{F}}^{+}$:

$$
\alpha_{\mathcal{F}}^{+}=\left\{X \mid \alpha \rightarrow X \in \mathcal{F}^{+}\right\}
$$

■ Testing $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \stackrel{?}{\in} \mathcal{F}^{+}$then means testing $\beta \stackrel{?}{\subseteq} \alpha_{\mathcal{F}}^{+}$.

## Attribute Closure

The attribute closure $\alpha_{\mathcal{F}}^{+}$can be computed as follows:

1 Algorithm: AttributeClosure
Input : $\alpha$ (a set of attributes); $\mathcal{F}$ (a set of FDs $\alpha_{i} \rightarrow \beta_{i}$ )
Output: $\alpha_{\mathcal{F}}^{+}$(all attributes functionally determined by $\alpha$ in $\mathcal{F}^{+}$)
$2 x \leftarrow \alpha$;
3 repeat
$4 \quad x^{\prime} \leftarrow x$;
foreach $\alpha_{i} \rightarrow \beta_{i} \in \mathcal{F}$ do if $\alpha_{i} \subseteq x$ then $x \leftarrow x \cup \beta_{i} ;$

8 until $x^{\prime}=x$;
9 return $x$;

## Example

Given

$$
\mathcal{F}=\{A B \rightarrow C, D \rightarrow E, A E \rightarrow G, G D \rightarrow H, I D \rightarrow J\}
$$

for a relation $R, \operatorname{sch}(R)=A B C D E F G H I J$.

- $A B D \rightarrow G H$ entailed by $\mathcal{F}$ ?
- $A B D \rightarrow H J$ entailed by $\mathcal{F}$ ?


## Minimal Cover

$\mathcal{F}^{+}$is the maximal cover for $\mathcal{F}$.
$\rightarrow \mathcal{F}^{+}$(even $\mathcal{F}$ ) can be large and contain many redundant FDs. This makes $\mathcal{F}^{+}$a poor basis to study a relational schema.

Thus: Construct a minimal cover $\mathcal{F}^{-}$such that
■ $\mathcal{F}^{-} \equiv \mathcal{F}$, i.e., $\left(\mathcal{F}^{-}\right)^{+}=\mathcal{F}^{+}$.
■ In $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \in \mathcal{F}^{-}$, no attributes are redundant (in $\alpha$ or $\beta$ ):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \forall A \in \alpha:\left(\mathcal{F}^{-}-\{\alpha \rightarrow \beta\} \cup\{(\alpha-A) \rightarrow \beta\}\right) \not \equiv \mathcal{F}^{-} \\
& \forall B \in \beta:\left(\mathcal{F}^{-}-\{\alpha \rightarrow \beta\} \cup\{\alpha \rightarrow(\beta-B)\}\right) \not \equiv \mathcal{F}^{-}
\end{aligned}
$$

■ Every left-hand side in $\mathcal{F}^{-}$occurs only once. This is trivial to achieve, since $\{\alpha \rightarrow \beta, \alpha \rightarrow \gamma\} \equiv\{\alpha \rightarrow \beta \gamma\}$.

## Constructing a Minimal Cover

To construct the minimal cover $\mathcal{F}^{-}$:
1 Minimize left-hand sides:
$1 \mathcal{F}^{-} \leftarrow \mathcal{F}$;
2 foreach $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \in \mathcal{F}^{-}$do
3 foreach $A \in \alpha$ do
4
if $\beta \subseteq(\alpha-A)_{\mathcal{F}^{-}}^{+}$then A redundant in $\alpha$ ? Remove it.
$\left\lfloor\mathcal{F}^{-} \leftarrow \mathcal{F}^{-}-\{\alpha \rightarrow \beta\} \cup\{(\alpha-A) \rightarrow \beta\} ;\right.$

2 Minimize right-hand sides:
1 foreach $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \in \mathcal{F}^{-}$do
2 foreach $B \in \beta$ do

$$
\mathcal{F}^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{F}^{-}-\{\alpha \rightarrow \beta\} \cup\{\alpha \rightarrow(\beta-B)\}
$$

4
if $B \in \alpha_{\mathcal{F}^{\prime}}^{+}$then $\quad B$ redundant in $\beta$ ? Remove it.
$\left\lfloor\mathcal{F}^{-} \leftarrow \mathcal{F}^{\prime} ;\right.$

## Constructing a Minimal Cover

3 Eliminate all $\alpha \rightarrow \varnothing$ (which might have resulted from 2).
4 Combine all $\alpha \rightarrow \beta, \alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ into $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \gamma$.

## Minimal cover for the following FDs?

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
A B H \rightarrow C & F \rightarrow A & C \rightarrow E & E \rightarrow F \\
A \rightarrow D & F \rightarrow D & B G H \rightarrow F & B H \rightarrow E
\end{array}
$$

## Normal Forms

Normal forms try to avoid the anomalies that we discussed earlier.
Codd originally proposed three normal forms (each stricter than the previous one):

■ First normal form (1NF)

- Second normal form (2NF)
- Third normal form (3NF)

Later, Boyce and Codd added the
■ Boyce-Codd normal form (BCNF)
Toward the end of this chapter, we will briefly talk also about the
■ Fourth normal form (4NF).

## First Normal Form

The first normal form states that all attribute values must be atomic.
That is, relations like

## Students

| StudID | Name | Address | SeminarTopic |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
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| $47-11$ | Mary Jane | 8 Summer St | \{Data Mining\} |
| $12-34$ | Dave Kent | 19 Church St | \{Databases, Statistics, <br> Multimedia \} |

are not allowed.
$\rightarrow$ This characteristic is already implied by our definition of a relation.
Likewise, nested tables ( $\nearrow$ slide 90) are not allowed in 1NF relations.

## Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF)

Given a schema $\operatorname{sch}(R)$ and a set of FDs $\mathcal{F}, \operatorname{sch}(R)$ is in Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF) if, for every $\alpha \rightarrow A \in \mathcal{F}^{+}$any of the following is true:

- $A \in \alpha$ (i.e., this is a trivial FD)
- $\alpha$ contains a key (or: " $\alpha$ is a superkey")

Example: Consider a relation

> Courses(CourseNo, Title, InstrName, Phone)
with the FDs

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { CourseNo } \rightarrow \text { Title, InstrName, Phone } \\
& \text { InstrName } \rightarrow \text { Phone } .
\end{aligned}
$$

This relation is not in BCNF, because in InstrName $\rightarrow$ Phone, the left-hand side is not a key of the entire relation and the FD is not trivial.

## Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF)

A BCNF schema can have more than one key. E.g.,

- $\operatorname{sch}(R)=A B C D$,
- $\mathcal{F}=\{A B \rightarrow C D, A C \rightarrow B D\}$.

This relation is in BCNF, because the left-hand side of each of the two FDs in $\mathcal{F}$ is a key.

BCNF prevents all of the anomalies that we saw earlier in this chapter.
$\rightarrow$ By ensuring BCNF in our database designs, we can produce "good" relational schemas.

A beauty of BCNF is that its FDs can easily be checked by a database system.
$\rightarrow$ Only need to mark left-hand sides as key in the relational schema.

## Third Normal Form (3NF)

Given a schema $\operatorname{sch}(R)$ and a set of $\operatorname{FDs} \mathcal{F}, \operatorname{sch}(R)$ is in third normal form (3NF) if, for every $\alpha \rightarrow A \in \mathcal{F}^{+}$any of the following is true:

- $A \in \alpha$ (i.e., this is a trivial FD)
- $\alpha$ contains a key (or: " $\alpha$ is a superkey")

■ $A \in \kappa$ for some key $\kappa \subseteq \operatorname{sch}(R)$.

Observe how the third case relaxes $B C N F$.
$\rightarrow$ The TakesExam(Student, Professor, Course) relation on slide 215 is in 3NF:

| Student, Professor | $\rightarrow$ Course |
| :--- | :--- |
| Course | $\rightarrow$ Professor. |

$\rightarrow$ But TakesExam is not in BCNF.

## Third Normal Form (3NF)

Obviously, the additional condition allows some redundancy.
$\rightarrow$ What is the merit of that condition then?

## Answer:

1 There is none. 3NF was discovered "accidentally" in the search for BCNF.

2 As we shall see, relational schemas can always be converted into 3NF form losslessly, while in some cases this is not true for BCNF.

## Note:

■ We will not discuss 2NF in this course. It is of no practical use today and only exists for historical reasons.

## Schema Decomposition

As illustrated by example on slide 214 , redundancy can be eliminated by decomposing a schema into a collection of schemas:

$$
(\operatorname{sch}(R), \mathcal{F}) \sim\left(\operatorname{sch}\left(R_{1}\right), \mathcal{F}_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(\operatorname{sch}\left(R_{n}\right), \mathcal{F}_{n}\right)
$$

The corresponding relations can be obtained by projecting on columns of the original relation:

$$
R_{i}=\pi_{\operatorname{sch}\left(R_{i}\right)} R
$$

While decomposing a schema, we do not want to lose information.

## Lossless and Lossy Decompositions

A decomposition is lossless if the original relation can be reconstructed from the decomposed tables:

$$
R=R_{1} \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_{n} .
$$

For binary decompositions, losslessness is guaranteed if any of the following is true:

■ $\left(\operatorname{sch}\left(R_{1}\right) \cap \operatorname{sch}\left(R_{2}\right)\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{sch}\left(R_{1}\right) \in \mathcal{F}^{+}$
■ $\left(\operatorname{sch}\left(R_{1}\right) \cap \operatorname{sch}\left(R_{2}\right)\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{sch}\left(R_{2}\right) \in \mathcal{F}^{+}$
"The decomposition is guaranteed to be lossless if the intersection of attributes of the new tables is a key of at least one of the two relations."

## Dependency-Preserving Decompositions

For a lossless decomposition of $R$, it would always be possible to re-construct $R$ and check the original set of FDs $\mathcal{F}$ over the re-constructed table.
$\rightarrow$ But re-construction is expensive.
$\rightarrow$ We'd rather like to guarantee that FDs $\mathcal{F}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{n}$ over decomposed tables $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{n}$ entail all FDs in $\mathcal{F}$.

A decomposition is dependency-preserving if

$$
\mathcal{F}_{1} \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{F}_{n} \equiv \mathcal{F}
$$

## Example

Consider a zip code directory
ZipCodes(Street, City, State, ZipCode) ,
where

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { ZipCode } & \rightarrow \text { City, State } \\
\text { Street, City, State } & \rightarrow \text { ZipCode } .
\end{array}
$$

A lossless decomposition would be

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Streets(ZipCode, Street) } \\
& \text { Cities(ZipCode, City, State) . }
\end{aligned}
$$

However, the FD Street, City, State $\rightarrow$ ZipCode cannot be assigned to either of the two relations. This decomposition is not dependency-preserving.

## Algorithm for BCNF Decomposition

BCNF can be obtained by repeatedly decomposing a table along an FD that violates BCNF:

1 Algorithm: BCNFDecomposition Input : $(\operatorname{sch}(R), \mathcal{F})$
Output: Schema $\left\{\left(\operatorname{sch}\left(R_{1}\right), \mathcal{F}_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(\operatorname{sch}\left(R_{n}\right), \mathcal{F}_{n}\right)\right\}$ in BCNF
2 Decomposed $\leftarrow\{(\operatorname{sch}(R), \mathcal{F})\}$;
3 while $\exists\left(\operatorname{sch}(S), \mathcal{F}_{S}\right) \in$ Decomposed that is not in BCNF do
$4 \quad$ Let $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ be an FD in $\mathcal{F}_{S}$ that violates BCNF;
5 L Decompose $S$ into $S_{1}(\alpha \beta)$ and $S_{2}((S-\beta) \cup \alpha)$;
6 return Decomposed;

## © Example

Consider

## $R(A B C D E F G H)$

with

| $A B H$ | $\rightarrow$ | $C$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $A$ | $\rightarrow$ | $D E$ |
| $B G H$ | $\rightarrow$ | $F$ |
| $F$ | $\rightarrow$ | $A D H$ |
| $B H$ | $\rightarrow$ | $G E$ |

## Properties of BCNF Decomposition

Algorithm BCNFDecomposition always yields a lossless decomposition.
■ Attribute set $\alpha$ is contained in $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ (line 5).
■ $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \in \mathcal{F}_{S}$ (line 4), so $\alpha \rightarrow \operatorname{sch}\left(S_{1}\right)$.

We already saw that BCNF decomposition is not always dependency-preserving.

BCNF decomposition is not deterministic. Different choices of FDs in line 4 might lead to different decompositions.
$\rightarrow$ Those different decompositions might even preserve more or less dependencies!

## 3NF Decomposition Through Schema Synthesis

The 3NF synthesis algorithm produces a 3NF schema that is always lossless and dependency-preserving:

1 Compute the minimal cover $\mathcal{F}^{-}$of the given set of FDs $\mathcal{F}$.
2 For each $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \in \mathcal{F}^{-}$create a table $R_{\alpha}(\alpha \beta)$.
3 If none of the constructed tables from step 2 contains a key of the original relation $R$, add one relation $R_{\kappa}(\kappa)$, where $\kappa$ is a (candidate) key in $R$.
4 Steps 2 and 3 might lead to relations $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$, where $R_{1}$ is contained in $R_{2}$. If this is the case, discard $R_{1}$.

## Example

Given a table $R(A B C D E F G H)$ with the FDs

$$
\begin{array}{lllllll}
A B H & \rightarrow C & A & \rightarrow & D E & B G H & \rightarrow
\end{array}
$$

determine a corresponding 3NF schema.

## Example (cont.)

## Normal Forms

Normal forms are increasingly restrictive.
$\rightarrow$ In particular, every BCNF relation is also 3NF.


■ Our decomposition algorithms produce lossless decompositions.
$\rightarrow$ It is always possible to losslessly transform a relation into 1NF, 2NF, 3NF, BCNF.

- BCNF decomposition might not be dependency-preserving. Preservation of dependencies can only be guaranteed up to 3NF.


## BCNF vs. 3NF

BCNF decomposition is non-deterministic.
$\rightarrow$ Some decompositions might be dependency-preserving, some might not.

## Decomposition strategy:

1 Establish 3NF schema (through synthesis; dependency preservation guaranteed).
2 Decompose resulting schema to obtain BCNF.
$\rightarrow$ This strategy typically leads to "good" (dependency-preserving if possible) BCNF decompositions.

## Fourth Normal Form (4NF)

Not all redundancies can be explained through functional dependencies.

| Books |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| ISBN | Author | Keyword |
| 3486598341 | Kemper | Databases |
| 3486598341 | Kemper | Computer Science |
| 3486598341 | Eickler | Databases |
| 3486598341 | Eickler | Computer Science |
| 0321268458 | Kifer | Databases |
| 0321268458 | Bernstein | Databases |
| 0321268458 | Lewis | Databases |

$\rightarrow$ There is no clear association between authors and keywords, and no functional dependencies exist for this table.
$\rightarrow$ This relation is in BCNF!

## Join Dependencies

Observe that the relation satisfies the following property:

$$
\text { Books }=\pi_{I S B N, \text { Author }}(\text { Books }) \bowtie \pi_{I S B N, \text { Keyword }}(\text { Books }) .
$$

A join dependency, written as

$$
\operatorname{sch}(R)=\alpha \bowtie \beta
$$

is a constraint specifying that, for any legal instance of $R$,

$$
R=\pi_{\alpha}(R) \bowtie \pi_{\beta}(R)
$$

## Fourth Normal Form (4NF)

Given a schema $\operatorname{sch}(R)$ and a set of join and dependencies $\mathcal{J}$ and $\mathcal{F}$, $\operatorname{sch}(R)$ is in fourth normal form (4NF) if, for every join dependency $\operatorname{sch}(R)=\alpha \bowtie \beta$ entailed by $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{J}$, either of the following is true:

- The join dependency is trivial, i.e., $\alpha \subseteq \beta$.
$\square \alpha \cap \beta$ contains a key of $R$ (or: " $\alpha$ is a superkey of $R$ ").
(Relation Books is not in 4NF, because ISBN is not a key.)


## 4NF relations are also BCNF:

■ Suppose $\operatorname{sch}(R)$ with $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is in 4NF (and $\alpha \cap \beta=\varnothing$ ).

- Then, $R=\pi_{\alpha \beta}(R) \bowtie \pi_{\text {sch }(R)-\beta}(R)$ ( $\nearrow$ slide 238).

■ Thus, $\alpha \beta \cap(\operatorname{sch}(R)-\beta)=\alpha$ is a superkey of $R$ (4NF property).
■ BCNF requirement satisfied.

## Multi-Valued Dependencies (MVDs)

Join dependencies are also called multi-valued dependencies.
The MVD

$$
\alpha \rightarrow \beta
$$

is another notation for the join dependency

$$
\operatorname{sch}(R)=\alpha \beta \bowtie \alpha(\operatorname{sch}(R)-\beta)
$$

Intuitively,
"The set of values in columns $\beta$ associated with every $\alpha$ is independent of all other columns."

Note:
■ MVDs always come in pairs. If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds, then $\alpha \rightarrow(\operatorname{sch}(R)-\beta)$ automatically holds as well.

## Obtaining 4NF Schemas

Decomposing a schema

$$
R\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, B_{1}, \ldots, B_{m}, C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}\right)
$$

into

$$
R_{1}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, B_{1}, \ldots, B_{m}\right) \text { and } R_{2}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}\right)
$$

is lossless if and only if ( $\nearrow$ slide 238)

$$
A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \rightarrow B_{1}, \ldots B_{m} \quad\left(\text { or } A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \rightarrow C_{1}, \ldots B_{k}\right)
$$

Thus: (intuition for obtaining 4NF)
■ Whenever there is a lossless (non-trivial) decomposition, decompose.

