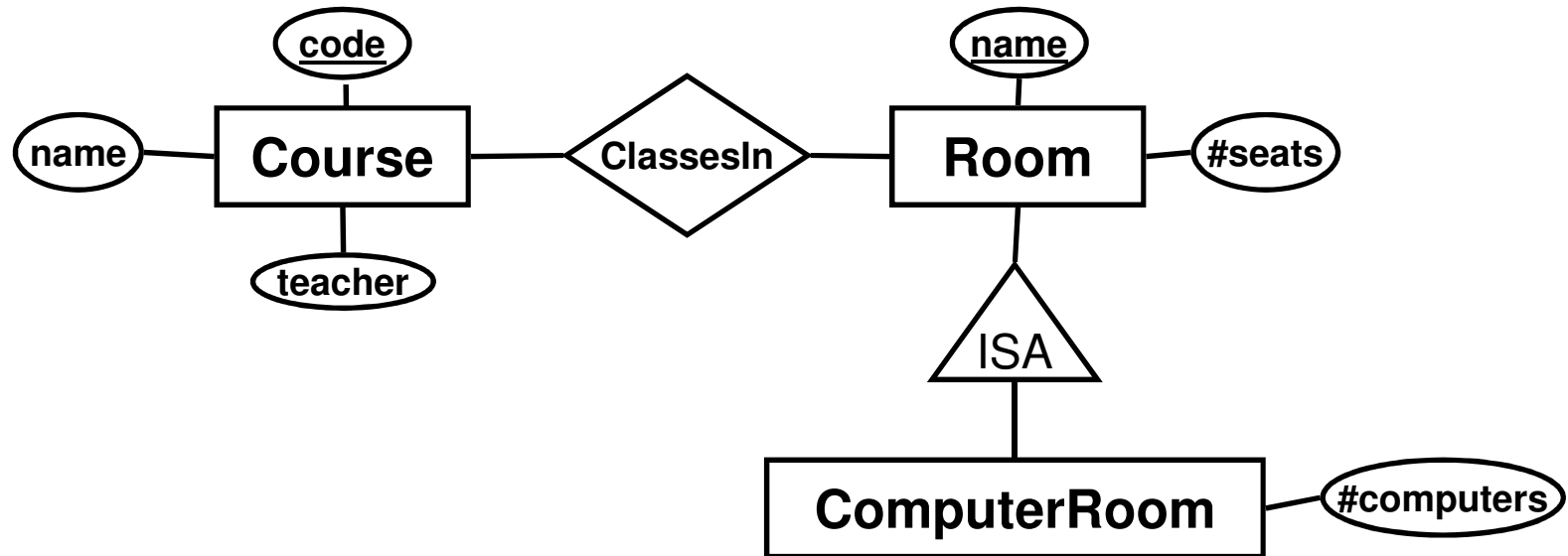


# Generalisation/Specialisation

- Subclass = sub-entity = special case.
- More attributes and/or relationships.
- A subclass shares the key of its parent.
  
- Drawn as an entity connected to the superclass by a special triangular relationship called *ISA*.  
Triangle points to superclass.
  - ISA = "is a"

Example:



- A computer room *is a* room.
- Not all rooms are computer rooms.
- Computer rooms share the extra property that they have a number of computers.

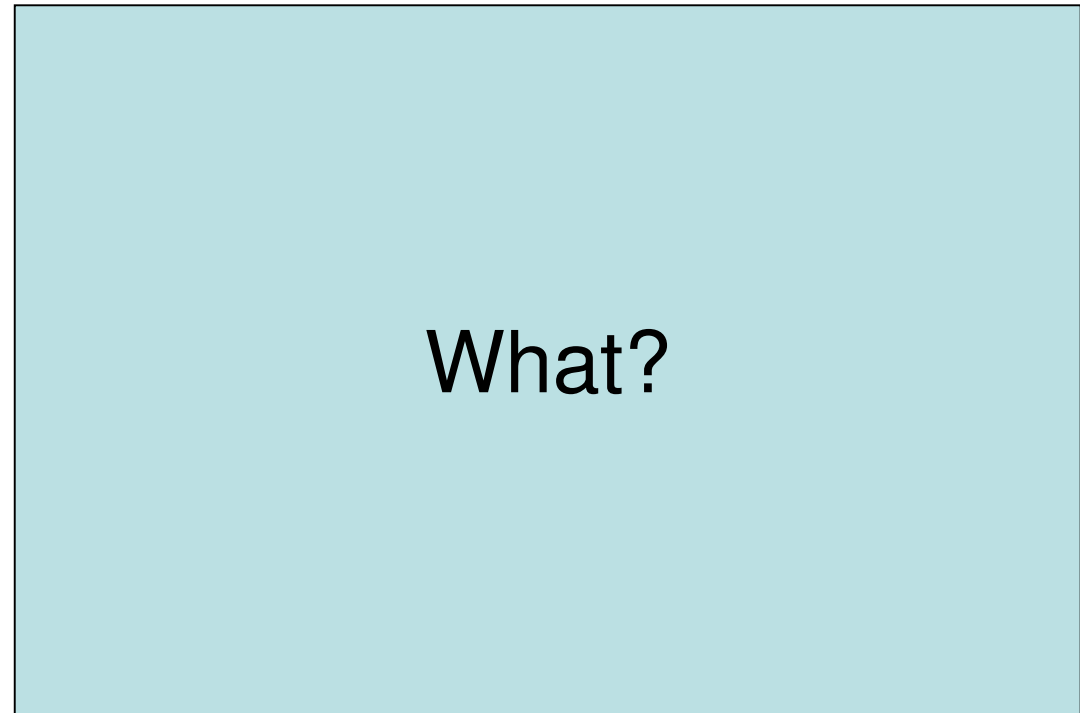
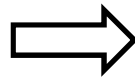
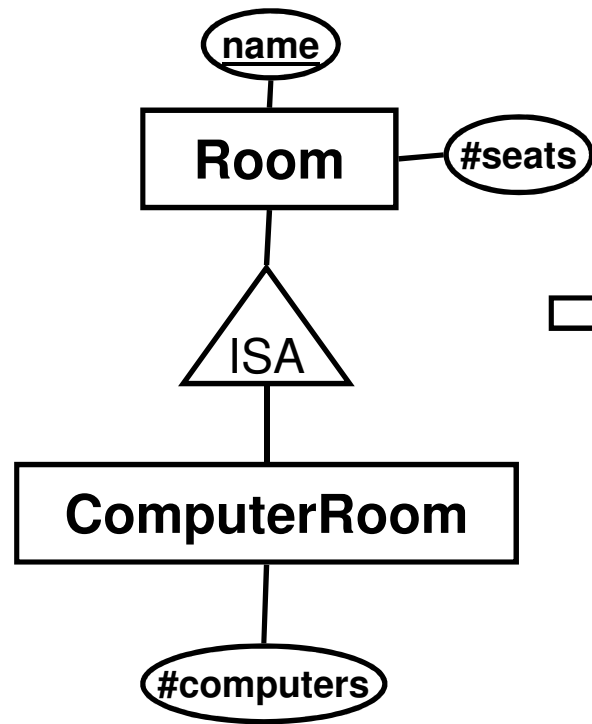
# Subclass/Superclass Hierarchy

- We assume that subclasses form a tree hierarchy.
  - A subclass has only one superclass.
  - Several subclasses can share the same superclass.
    - E.g. Computer rooms, lecture halls, chemistry labs etc. could all be subclasses of Room.
  - One class can have several (orthogonal) subclass hierarchies.

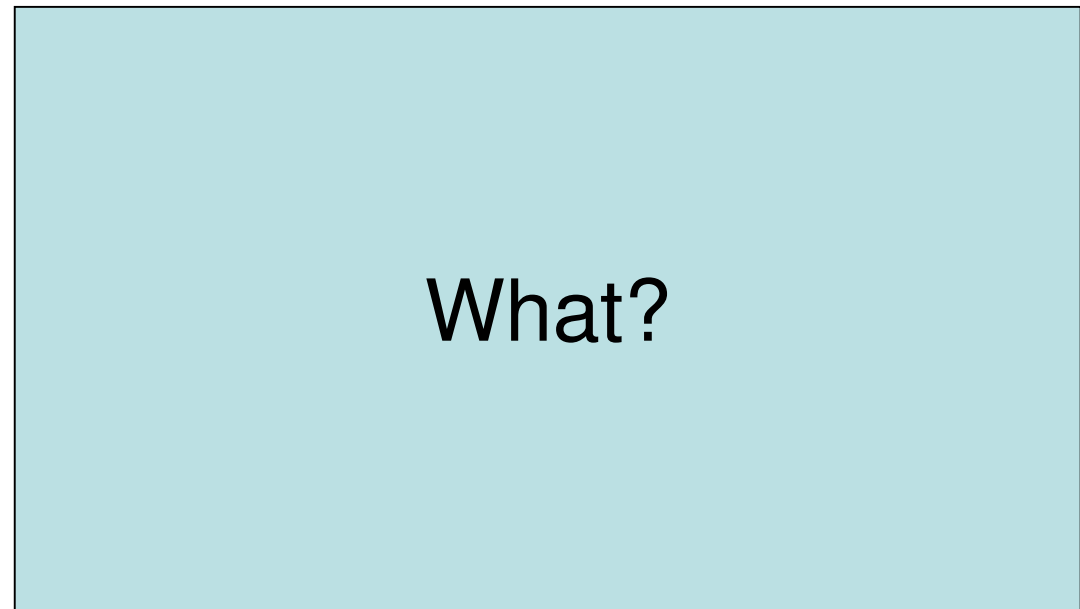
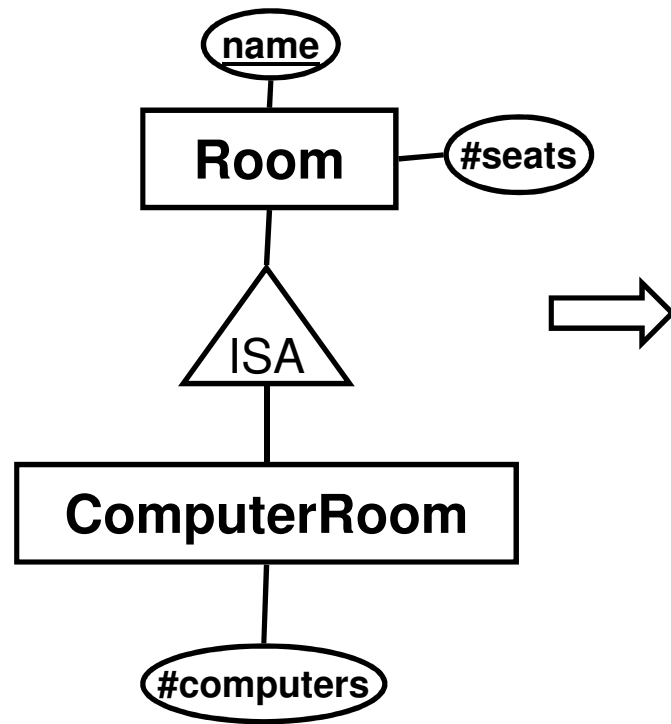
# Translating ISA to relations

- Three different approaches
  - *E-R*: An ISA relationship is a standard one-to-“exactly one” relationship. Each subclass becomes a relation with the key attributes of the superclass included.
  - *NULLs*: Join the subclass(es) with the superclass. Entities that are not part of the subclass use NULL for the attributes that come from the subclass.
  - *Object-oriented*: Each subclass becomes a relation with all the attributes of the superclass included. An entity belongs to either of the two, but not both.

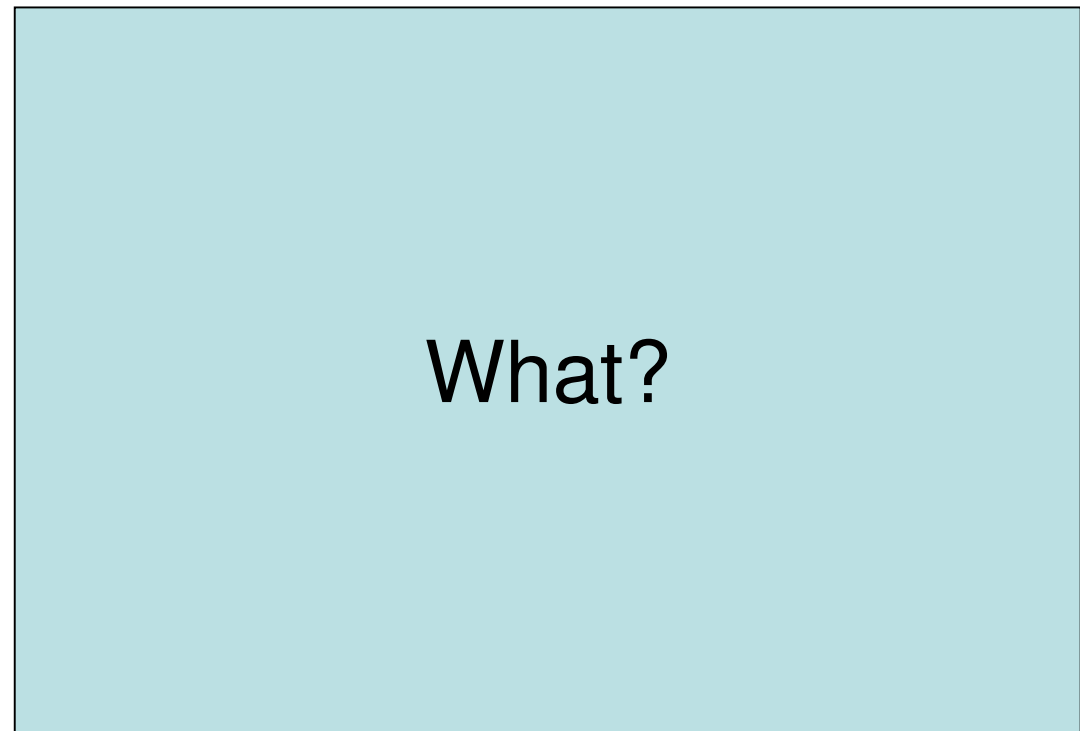
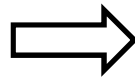
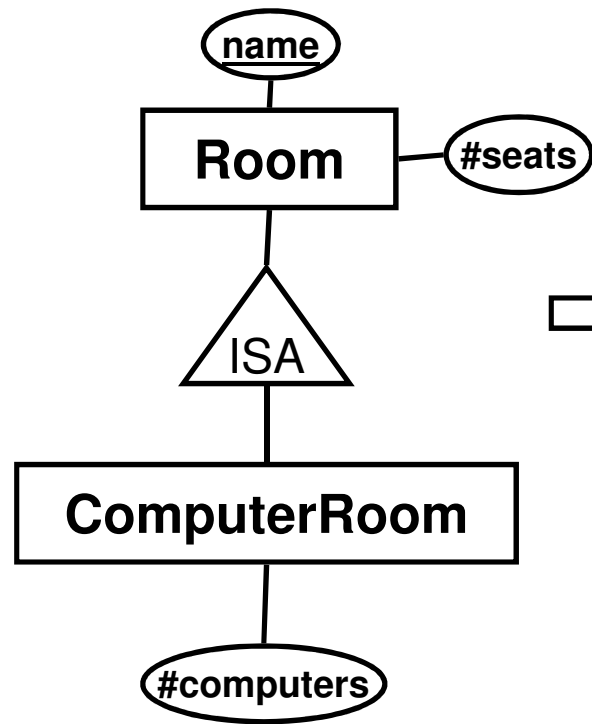
# The E-R approach:



# The NULLs approach:



# The object-oriented approach:



# Comparison

- E-R approach
  - Good when searching for general information about all entities in the class hierarchy.
    - *"List the number of seats in all rooms"*
- OO approach
  - Good when searching for information about entities in a subclass only.
    - *"List the number of seats in all computer rooms"*
- NULLs approach
  - Could save space in situations where most entities in the hierarchy are part of the subclass (e.g. most rooms have computers in them).
  - Reduces the need for *joins* (see later).



# E-R summary

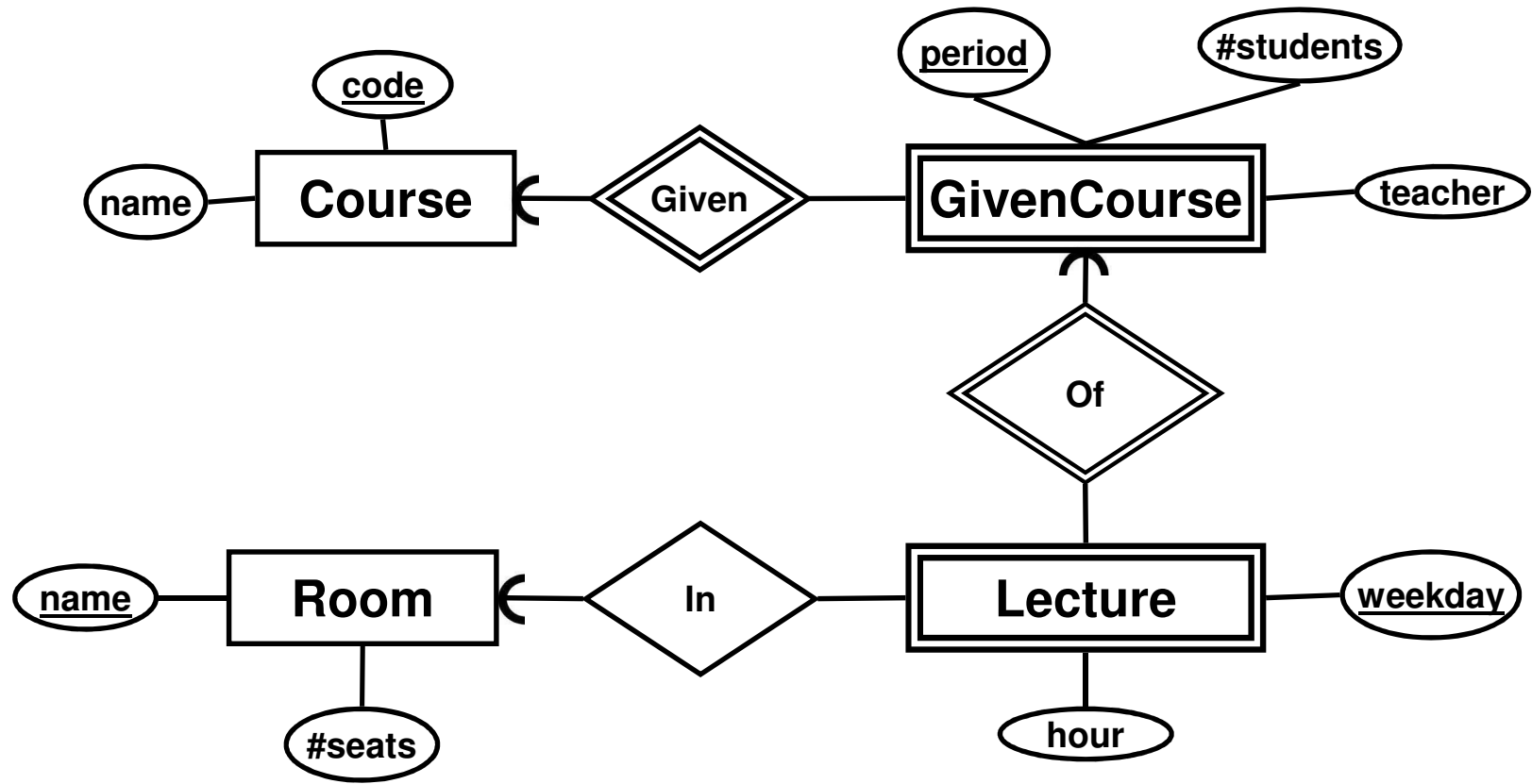
- Entities
- Attributes
- Relationships
  - Multiplicity
- Weak entities
- Generalisation/specialisation
  
- Translation to relations

# Scheduler database revisited

*“We want a database for an application that we will use to schedule courses. ...”*

- Course codes and names, and the period the courses are given
- The number of students taking a course
- The name of the course responsible
- The names of all lecture rooms, and the number of seats in them
- Weekdays and hours of lectures

# E-R diagram for Scheduler



# Translate to relations

Courses (code, name)

GivenCourses (course, period, #students, teacher)

course -> Courses.code

Lectures (course, period, room, weekday, hour)

(course, period) -> GivenCourses.(course, period)

room -> Rooms.name

Rooms (name, #seats)

Compare with the "good" one from the previous lecture – we've reached the same conclusion using the structured and well-defined method.

# Exam – E-R diagrams

*”A small train company wants to design a booking system for their customers. ...”*

- Given the problem description above, construct an E-R diagram.
- Translate the E-R diagram into a database schema.

# Programming Assignment

- Write a "student portal" application in Java
  - Part I: **Design**
    - Given a domain description, design a database schema using an E-R diagram and functional dependencies.
  - Part II: **Construction** and **Usage**
    - Implement the schema from Part I in Oracle.
    - Insert relevant data.
    - Create views.
  - Part III: **Construction**
    - Create triggers.
  - Part IV: Interfacing from external **Application**
    - Write a Java application that uses the database from Part III.

# Programming Assignment

- Each task must be completed and approved before the next can be started.
  - Submit in good time!
- Preferably, work in pairs.

# System Specification

- Your final application should have the following functionality:
  - Info: A student should be able to ask the system for info about herself, including what courses she has read or is registered to.
  - Register: A student should be able to register for a course. If there is no room on the course, she should be put in a waiting list.
  - Unregister: A student should be able to withdraw a registration. If some other student is on the waiting list, that student should be registered instead.



# Part I - Design

- Design the database schema by drawing an E-R diagram of the domain, and then translating your diagram to relations.
- Verify your schema by identifying all functional dependencies that you expect to hold on the domain, and check them against the schema.

# Part I - Design

- Hand in:
  - a diagram
  - a database schema
  - the FDs of the domain
  - a text report where you argue the correctness of your solution.
- Submission deadline: 18 November 2014

# Database design II

Functional Dependencies

BCNF

# Design theory for relational databases

- Offers ways to “improve” a relational design
- (“improve” usually means reducing the amount of redundancy)
- Chapter 3 of the textbook introduces the concepts:
  - functional dependencies
  - normalization

# Functional dependencies (FDs)

- $X \rightarrow A$ 
  - "X determines A", "X gives A"
  - "A depends on X"
- X is a set of attributes, A is a single attribute
- Examples:
  - **code**  $\rightarrow$  **name**
  - **code, period**  $\rightarrow$  **teacher**

# Why "functionally" dependent?

- $X \rightarrow A$  is a (deterministic) function from  $X$  to  $A$ . Given values for the attributes in the set  $X$ , we get the value of  $A$ .
- Example:
  - **code**  $\rightarrow$  **name**
  - imagine a function  $f(\text{code})$  which returns the name associated with a given code.

# A note on syntax

- A **functional dependency** exists between attributes in the same relation  
e.g. in relation Courses we have FD:  
**code → name**
- A **reference** exists between attributes in two different relations, e.g. for relation GivenCourses we have reference:  
**course → Courses . code**
- Two completely different things, but with similar syntax. Clear from the context which is intended.

# Assertions on a schema

- $X \rightarrow A$  is an assertion about a schema  $R$ 
  - If two tuples in  $R$  agree on the values of the attributes in  $X$ , then they must also agree on the value of  $A$ .
- Example: **code, period  $\rightarrow$  teacher**
  - If two tuples in the GivenCourses relation have the same course code and period, then they must also have the same teacher.



# Quiz!

*What are reasonable FDs for the scheduler domain?*

**Schedules (code, name, period, #students,  
teacher, room, #seats, weekday, hour)**

<i>code</i>	<i>name</i>	<i>per.</i>	<i>#st</i>	<i>teacher</i>	<i>room</i>	<i>#seats</i>	<i>day</i>	<i>hour</i>
TDA357	Databases	2	87	Niklas Broberg	VR	216	Monday	13:15
TDA357	Databases	2	87	Niklas Broberg	HB1	184	Thursday	10:00
TDA357	Databases	4	93	Rogardt Heldal	HB1	184	Tuesday	08:00
TDA357	Databases	4	93	Rogardt Heldal	HB1	184	Friday	08:00
TIN090	Algorithms	1	64	Devdatt Dubhashi	HC1	126	Wednesday	08:00
TIN090	Algorithms	1	64	Devdatt Dubhashi	HA3	94	Thursday	13:15

# Quiz: (an) answer

*What are reasonable FDs for the scheduler domain?*

`code → name`

`code, period → #students`

`code, period → teacher`

`room → #seats`

`code, period, weekday → hour`

`code, period, weekday → room`

`room, period, weekday, hour → code`

# Where do FDs come from?

- "Keys" of entities
  - If code is the key for the entity Course, then all other attributes of Course are functionally determined by code, e.g. **code** → **name**
- Relationships
  - If all courses hold lectures in just one room, then the key for the Course entity also determines all attributes of the Room entity, e.g. **code** → **room**
- Physical reality
  - No two courses can have lectures in the same room at the same time, e.g. **room, period, weekday, hour** → **code**

# Multiple attributes on RHS

- $X \rightarrow A, B$ 
  - Short for  $X \rightarrow A$  and  $X \rightarrow B$
  - If we have both  $X \rightarrow A$  and  $X \rightarrow B$ , we can combine them to  $X \rightarrow A, B$ .
  - **course, period  $\rightarrow$  teacher, #students**
- Multiple attributes on LHS can be crucial!
  - **course, period  $\rightarrow$  teacher**
    - **course  $\not\rightarrow$  teacher**
    - **period  $\not\rightarrow$  teacher**

# Quiz!

- What's the difference between the LHS of a FD, and a key?
  - both uniquely determine the values of other attributes.
  - ...but a key must determine *all* other attributes in a relation!
  - We use FDs when determining keys of relations (will see how shortly).

# Trivial FDs

- A FD is *trivial* if the attribute on the RHS is also on the LHS.
  - Example: `course, period → course`

Quiz: Is this a trivial FD?

`course, period → course, name`

Shorthand for

`course, period → course` (trivial)

`course, period → name` (not trivial)

# Armstrong's axioms

Suppose  $X$ ,  $Y$  and  $Z$  are sets of attributes in relation  $R$ .

## 1. Reflexivity.

If  $Y$  is a subset of  $X$ , then  $X \rightarrow Y$  is a trivial FD.

## 2. Augmentation.

If  $X \rightarrow Y$  holds, then  $XZ \rightarrow YZ$  holds.

## 3. Transitivity.

If  $X \rightarrow Y$  and  $Y \rightarrow Z$  hold, then  $X \rightarrow Z$  holds.

# Basis

Suppose  $S$  is a set of FDs that hold for a given relation.

- A *basis* for  $S$  is any set of FDs that is equivalent to  $S$ .
- $S$  and  $B$  are equivalent if and only if  $S$  follows from  $B$  and  $B$  follows from  $S$ .



# Minimal basis

B is a *minimal basis* if:

1. All FDs in B have a single attribute on the right side.
2. The result of removing any FD from B is not a basis.
3. The result of removing any attribute from the left side of any FD in B is not a basis.

# Closure of a set of attributes

- Computing the *closure* of  $X$  means finding all FDs that have  $X$  as the LHS.
- If  $A$  is in the closure of  $X$ , then  $X \rightarrow A$ .
- The closure of  $X$  is written  $X^+$ .

# Computing the closure

- Given a set of FDs,  $F$ , and a set of attributes,  $X$ :
  1. Start with  $X^+ = X$ .
  2. For all FDs  $Y \rightarrow B$  in  $F$  where  $Y$  is a subset of  $X^+$ , add  $B$  to  $X^+$ .
  3. Repeat step 2 until there are no more FDs that apply.

# Quiz!

*What is the closure of  
{code, period, weekday}?*

`code → name`

`code, period → #students`

`code, period → teacher`

`room → #seats`

`code, period, weekday → hour`

`code, period, weekday → room`

`room, period, weekday, hour → code`

`{code, period, weekday}+ =`

`{code, period, weekday, name, #students,  
teacher, hour, room, #seats}`

# What are FDs really?

- Functional dependencies represent a special kind of constraints of a domain – dependency constraints.
- We can use FDs to verify that our design indeed captures the constraints we expect.

# Finding keys

- For a relation  $R$ , any subset  $X$  of attributes of  $R$  such that  $X^+$  contains all the attributes of  $R$  is a *superkey* of  $R$ .
  - Intuitively, a superkey is any set of attributes that determine all other attributes.
  - The set of all attributes is a superkey.
- A *key* for  $R$  is a *minimal* superkey.
  - A superkey  $X$  is minimal if no proper subset of  $X$  is also a superkey.
    - Minimal – no subset is a key
    - Minimum – the smallest, i.e. the one with the fewest number of attributes

# Using attribute closures to find all FDs, superkeys and keys (1)

Suppose we have relation  $R(A,B,C)$  and FDs  $AB \rightarrow C$  and  $C \rightarrow A$ .

A systematic way to find all other FDs is to consider the closures of all sets of attributes:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \{A\}^+ = \{A\} & \{A,B\}^+ = \{A,B,C\} & \{A,B,C\}^+ = \{A,B,C\} \\ \{B\}^+ = \{B\} & \{A,C\}^+ = \{A,C\} & \\ \{C\}^+ = \{A,C\} & \{B,C\}^+ = \{A,B,C\} & \end{array}$$

One extra (non-trivial) FD:  $BC \rightarrow A$

# Using attribute closures to find all FDs, superkeys and keys (2)

$$\begin{array}{lll} \{A\}^+ = \{A\} & \{A,B\}^+ = \{A,B,C\} & \{A,B,C\}^+ = \{A,B,C\} \\ \{B\}^+ = \{B\} & \{A,C\}^+ = \{A,C\} & \\ \{C\}^+ = \{A,C\} & \{B,C\}^+ = \{A,B,C\} & \end{array}$$

- Superkeys:  $\{A,B\}$ ,  $\{B,C\}$ ,  $\{A,B,C\}$
- Keys:  $\{A,B\}$ ,  $\{B,C\}$
- $\{A,B,C\}$  is not a key, since subset(s) of it's attributes are (super)keys.



# Primary keys

- There can be more than one key for the same relation.
- We choose one of them to be the *primary key*, which is the key that we actually use for the relation.
- Other keys could be asserted through uniqueness constraints.
  - E.g. for the self-referencing relation

## Example:

For NextTo we have both

- **left** → **right**
- **right** → **left**

```
Rooms (name, #seats)
NextTo (right, left)
    right -> Rooms.name
    left  -> Rooms.name
    left  unique
```

Both **left** and **right** are keys, but we have chosen **right** to be the primary key for **NextTo**. We can add a constraint stating that **left** should be unique.

Note: The syntax for constraints is not well specified. Both the reference syntax, as well as the uniqueness assertion, are my suggestions only (but they're rather good).

# Quiz!

*What is the key of Schedules?*

```
Schedules(code, name, period, #students,  
          teacher, room, #seats, weekday, hour)
```

```
code → name
```

```
code, period → #students
```

```
code, period → teacher
```

```
room → #seats
```

```
code, period, weekday → hour
```

```
code, period, weekday → room
```

```
room, period, weekday, hour → code
```

Example:

- $X = \{\text{code}, \text{period}, \text{weekday}, \text{hour}\}$  is a superkey of the relation Schedules since  $X^+$  is the set of all attributes of Schedules.
- However,  $Y = \{\text{code}, \text{period}, \text{weekday}\}$  is also a superkey, and is a subset of  $X$ , so  $X$  is not a key of Schedules.
- No subset of  $Y$  is a superkey, so  $Y$  is also a key.

Two keys exist:

$\{\text{code}, \text{period}, \text{weekday}\}$

$\{\text{room}, \text{period}, \text{weekday}, \text{hour}\}$

# Make reality match theory

- In some cases reality is not suitably deterministic. We may need to invent key attributes in order to have a key at all.

Quiz: Give examples of this phenomenon from reality!

Social security numbers, course codes, product numbers, user names etc.

# Quiz time!

What's wrong with this schema?

`Courses (code, period, name, teacher)`

`code → name`

`code, period → teacher`

```
{ ('TDA356', 2, 'Databases', 'Niklas Broberg'),  
  ('TDA356', 4, 'Databases', 'Rogardt Heldal') }
```

**Redundancy!**

# Using FDs to detect anomalies

- Whenever  $X \rightarrow A$  holds for a relation  $R$ , but  $X$  is not a key for  $R$ , then values of  $A$  will be redundantly repeated!

**Courses** (code, period, name, teacher)

```
{ ('TDA356', 2, 'Databases', 'Niklas Broberg'),  
  ('TDA356', 4, 'Databases', 'Rogardt Haldal') }
```

`code`  $\rightarrow$  `name`

`code, period`  $\rightarrow$  `teacher`

Quiz: What kind of anomaly could this relational schema lead to?

# Next Lecture

BCNF decomposition

3NF, 4NF