

The Relational Data Model

Functional Dependencies

1

Functional Dependencies

- ◆ $X \rightarrow A$ is an assertion about a relation R that whenever two tuples of R agree on all the attributes of X , then they must also agree on the attribute A .
 - ◆ Say " $X \rightarrow A$ holds in R ."
 - ◆ Notice convention: \dots, X, Y, Z represent sets of attributes; A, B, C, \dots represent single attributes.
 - ◆ Convention: no set formers in sets of attributes, just ABC , rather than $\{A, B, C\}$.

2

Example

- ◆ Drinkers(name, addr, beersLiked, manf, favBeer).
- ◆ Reasonable FD's to assert:
 1. name \rightarrow addr
 2. name \rightarrow favBeer
 3. beersLiked \rightarrow manf

3

Example Data

name	addr	beersLiked	manf	favBeer
Spock	Enterprise	Wicked Ale	Pete's	Bud

Because name \rightarrow addr

Because name \rightarrow favBeer

Because beersLiked \rightarrow manf

4

FD's With Multiple Attributes

- ◆ No need for FD's with > 1 attribute on right.
 - ◆ But sometimes convenient to combine FD's as a shorthand.
 - ◆ Example: name \rightarrow addr and name \rightarrow favBeer become name \rightarrow addr favBeer
- ◆ > 1 attribute on left may be essential.
 - ◆ Example: bar beer \rightarrow price

5

Keys of Relations

- ◆ K is a *key* for relation R if:
 1. Set K functionally determines all attributes of R
 2. For no proper subset of K is (1) true.
- ◆ If K satisfies (1), but perhaps not (2), then K is a *superkey*.
- ◆ Note E/R keys have no requirement for minimality, as in (2) for relational keys.

6

Example

- ◆ Consider relation Drinkers(name, addr, beersLiked, manf, favBeer).
- ◆ {name, beersLiked} is a superkey because together these attributes determine all the other attributes.
 - ◆ name -> addr favBeer
 - ◆ beersLiked -> manf

7

Example, Cont.

- ◆ {name, beersLiked} is a **key** because neither {name} nor {beersLiked} is a superkey.
 - ◆ name doesn't -> manf; beersLiked doesn't -> addr.
- ◆ In this example, there are no other keys, but lots of superkeys.
 - ◆ Any superset of {name, beersLiked}.

8

E/R and Relational Keys

- ◆ Keys in E/R are properties of entities
- ◆ Keys in relations are properties of tuples.
- ◆ Usually, one tuple corresponds to one entity, so the ideas are the same.
- ◆ But --- in poor relational designs, one entity can become several tuples, so E/R keys and Relational keys are different.

9

Example Data

name	addr	beersLiked	manf	favBeer
Janeway	Voyager	Bud	A.B.	WickedAle
Janeway	Voyager	WickedAle	Pete's	WickedAle
Spock	Enterprise	Bud	A.B.	Bud

Relational key = name beersLiked
But in E/R, name is a key for Drinkers, and beersLiked is a key for Beers.
Note: 2 tuples for Janeway entity and 2 tuples for Bud entity.

10

Where Do Keys Come From?

1. We could simply assert a key K . Then the only FD's are $K \rightarrow A$ for all attributes A , and K turns out to be the only key obtainable from the FD's.
2. We could assert FD's and deduce the keys by systematic exploration.
 - ◆ E/R gives us FD's from entity-set keys and many-one relationships.

11

FD's From "Physics"

- ◆ While most FD's come from E/R keyness and many-one relationships, some are really physical laws.
- ◆ Example: "no two courses can meet in the same room at the same time" tells us: hour room -> course.

12

Inferring FD's: Motivation

- ◆ In order to design relation schemas well, we often need to tell what FD's hold in a relation.
- ◆ We are given FD's $X_1 \rightarrow A_1, X_2 \rightarrow A_2, \dots, X_n \rightarrow A_n$, and we want to know whether an FD $Y \rightarrow B$ must hold in any relation that satisfies the given FD's.
 - ◆ Example: If $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$ hold, surely $A \rightarrow C$ holds, even if we don't say so.

13

Inference Test

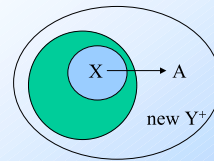
- ◆ To test if $Y \rightarrow B$, start assuming two tuples agree in all attributes of Y .
- ◆ Use the given FD's to infer that these tuples must also agree in certain other attributes.
- ◆ If B is eventually found to be one of these attributes, then $Y \rightarrow B$ is true; otherwise, the two tuples, with any forced equalities form a two-tuple relation that proves $Y \rightarrow B$ does not follow from the given FD's.

14

Closure Test

- ◆ An easier way to test is to compute the *closure* of Y , denoted Y^+ .
- ◆ Basis: $Y^+ = Y$.
- ◆ Induction: Look for an FD's left side X that is a subset of the current Y^+ . If the FD is $X \rightarrow A$, add A to Y^+ .

15



16

Finding All Implied FD's

- ◆ Motivation: "normalization," the process where we break a relation schema into two or more schemas.
- ◆ Example: $ABCD$ with FD's $AB \rightarrow C, C \rightarrow D$, and $D \rightarrow A$.
 - ◆ Decompose into ABC, AD . What FD's hold in ABC ?
 - ◆ Not only $AB \rightarrow C$, but also $C \rightarrow A$!

17

Basic Idea

- ◆ To know what FD's hold in a projection, we start with given FD's and find all FD's that follow from given ones.
- ◆ Then, restrict to those FD's that involve only attributes of the projected schema.

18

Simple, Exponential Algorithm

1. For each set of attributes X , compute X^+ .
2. Add $X \rightarrow A$ for all A in $X^+ - X$.
3. However, drop $XY \rightarrow A$ whenever we discover $X \rightarrow A$.
 - ◆ Because $XY \rightarrow A$ follows from $X \rightarrow A$.
4. Finally, use only FD's involving projected attributes.

19

A Few Tricks

- ◆ Never need to compute the closure of the empty set or of the set of all attributes.
- ◆ If we find $X^+ =$ all attributes, don't bother computing the closure of any supersets of X .

20

Example

- ◆ ABC with FD's $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$. Project onto AC .
 - ◆ $A^+ = ABC$; yields $A \rightarrow B$, $A \rightarrow C$.
 - We do not need to compute AB^+ or AC^+ .
 - ◆ $B^+ = BC$; yields $B \rightarrow C$.
 - ◆ $C^+ = C$; yields nothing.
 - ◆ $BC^+ = BC$; yields nothing.

21

Example, Continued

- ◆ Resulting FD's: $A \rightarrow B$, $A \rightarrow C$, and $B \rightarrow C$.
- ◆ Projection onto AC : $A \rightarrow C$.
 - ◆ Only FD that involves a subset of $\{A, C\}$.

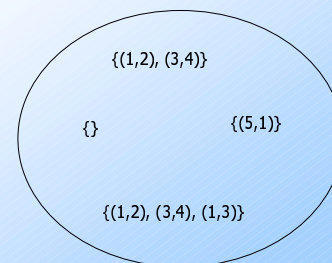
22

A Geometric View of FD's

- ◆ Imagine the set of all instances of a particular relation.
- ◆ That is, all finite sets of tuples that have the proper number of components.
- ◆ Each instance is a point in this space.

23

Example: $R(A,B)$



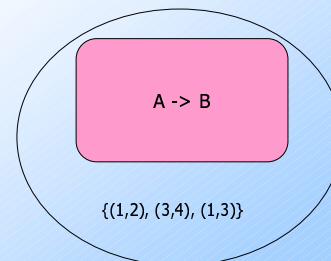
24

An FD is a Subset of Instances

- ◆ For each FD $X \rightarrow A$ there is a subset of all instances that satisfy the FD.
- ◆ We can represent an FD by a region in the space.
- ◆ *Trivial FD*: an FD that is represented by the entire space.
 - ◆ Example: $A \rightarrow A$.

25

Example: $A \rightarrow B$ for $R(A,B)$



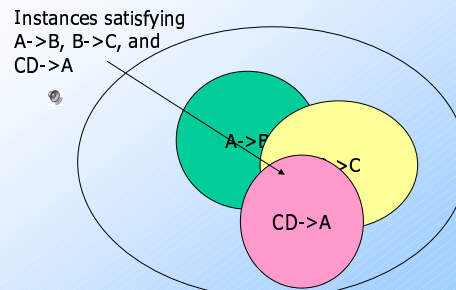
26

Representing Sets of FD's

- ◆ If each FD is a set of relation instances, then a collection of FD's corresponds to the intersection of those sets.
 - ◆ Intersection = all instances that satisfy all of the FD's.

27

Example



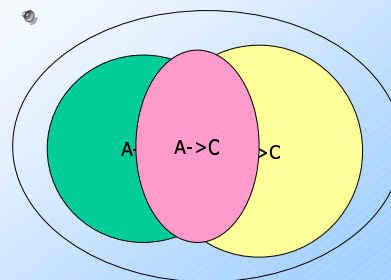
28

Implication of FD's

- ◆ If an FD $Y \rightarrow B$ follows from FD's $X_1 \rightarrow A_1, \dots, X_n \rightarrow A_n$, then the region in the space of instances for $Y \rightarrow B$ must include the intersection of the regions for the FD's $X_i \rightarrow A_i$.
 - ◆ That is, every instance satisfying all the FD's $X_i \rightarrow A_i$ surely satisfies $Y \rightarrow B$.
 - ◆ But an instance could satisfy $Y \rightarrow B$, yet not be in this intersection.

29

Example



30