

# DATABASE TECHNOLOGY - 1MB025

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An introductory course on database systems

<http://user.it.uu.se/~udbl/dbt-ht2005/>

alt. <http://www.it.uu.se/edu/course/homepage/dbastekn/ht05/>

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# Introduction to the Relational Model

Elmasri/Navathe ch 5, 7  
Padron-McCarthy/Risch ch 5, 6

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# The Relational Model



- The relational model was introduced by Dr. Edgar (Ted) F. Codd (1924-2003) in 1970.
  - Dr. Codd, a mathematician from Oxford (UK), was at that time working as an IBM researcher in the IBM San Jose Research Laboratory (USA).
- Many DBMS's are based on the relational data model.
- It support simple declarative, but yet powerful, languages for describing operations on data.
- Operations in the relational model applies to relations (tables) and produce new relations.
  - This means that an operation can be applied to the result of another operation and that several different operations can be combined.
  - Operations are described in an algebraic notation that is based on relational algebra.

# Relations as mathematical objects

- In set theory, a relation is defined as a subset of the product set (cartesian product) of a number of domains (value sets).
- The product set of the domains  $D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n$  is written as  $D_1 \times D_2 \times \dots \times D_n$ .
- $D_1 \times D_2 \times \dots \times D_n$  constitute the set of all ordered sets  $\langle v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \rangle$  such that  $v_i$  belongs to  $D_i$  for all  $i$ .
  - If  $n=2$ ,  $D_1=\{T, F\}$  and  $D_2=\{P, Q, R\}$  one gets the product sets:  
 $D_1 \times D_2 = \{\langle T, P \rangle, \langle T, Q \rangle, \langle T, R \rangle, \langle F, P \rangle, \langle F, Q \rangle, \langle F, R \rangle\}$   
 $D_2 \times D_1 = \{\langle P, T \rangle, \langle P, F \rangle, \langle Q, T \rangle, \langle Q, F \rangle, \langle R, T \rangle, \langle R, F \rangle\}$
  - For example, we have the relations:  
 $R_1 \subseteq D_2 \times D_1 \quad R_1 = \{\langle P, T \rangle, \langle Q, T \rangle, \langle R, T \rangle\}$   
 $R_2 \subseteq D_2 \times D_1 \quad R_2 = \{\langle P, T \rangle, \langle P, F \rangle\}$
- Members of a relation is called **tuples**. If the relation is of **degree**  $n$ , the tuples are called *n-tuples*.



## Relation schema and instance

- $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are attributes
- $R = (A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n)$  is a relation schema
  - *Customer-schema(customer-name, customer-street, customer-city)*
- $r(R)$  is a relation on the relation schema  $R$ 
  - *customer (Customer-schema)*
- The current values (*relation instance*) of a relation are specified by a table.
- An element  $t$  of  $r$  is a tuple - represented by a *row* in a table *customer*

*customer*

<i>customer-name</i>	<i>customer-street</i>	<i>customer-city</i>
Jones	Main	Harrison
Smith	North	Rye
Curry	North	Rye
Lindsay	Park	Pittsfield

a relation

an attribute

a tuple

# First Normal Form

- Only simple or atomic values are allowed in the relational model.
- Attributes is not allowed to have composite or multiple values.
- The theory for the relational model is based on these assumptions which is called:

*The first normal form assumption*

## Null values

- A special value, **null** or  $\perp$ , can sometimes be used as an attribute value.
- Every occurrence of null is unique. Thus, two occurrences of null is not considered to be equal even if they are represented by the same symbol.
- null is used:
  - when one does not know the actual value of an attribute.
  - when a certain attribute does not have a value.
  - when an attribute is not applicable.
- Examples of the use of null are showed later.

# Keys

- Because relations are sets, all tuples in the relation are different.
- There is usually a subset  $k$  of the attributes in a relation schema  $R$ , i.e.  $k \subseteq R$ , that has the characteristic that if the tuples  $t_1, t_2 \in r(R)$  and  $t_1 \neq t_2$ , the following holds:  
 $t_1[k] \neq t_2[k]$  (i.e. the value of  $k$  in  $t_1 \neq$  the value of  $k$  in  $t_2$ )
- Every such subset  $k$  is called a **superkey** for  $R$ .



## Keys - continued . . .

- A superkey  $k$  is *minimal* if there is no other superkey  $k'$  such that  $k' \subset k$ .
- Every minimal superkey (NOTE! there can be more than one) is called a **candidate key** for  $R$ .
- The candidate key chosen by the database designer as the key for  $R$  is called  $R$ 's **primary key** or just **key**.
- In addition, term **foreign key** is used when a tuple is referenced, from another relation, with its key.

## Determining keys from E-R types

- **Strong entity type.** The primary key of the entity type becomes the primary key of the relation.
- **Weak entity type.** The primary key of the relation consists of the union of the primary key of the strong entity type and the discriminator of the weak entity type.
- **Relationship type.** The union of the primary keys of the related entity types becomes a super key of the relation.
  - For binary many-to-many relationship types, above super key is also the primary key.
  - For binary many-to-one relationship types, the primary key of the “many” entity type becomes the relation’s primary key.
  - For one-to-one relationship types, the relation’s primary key can be that of either entity type.



# Integrity constraints

## for a relational database schema

- 1. Domain constraint
  - attribute values for attribute  $A$  shall be atomic values from  $\text{dom}(A)$
- 2. Key constraint
  - candidate keys for a relation must be unique
- 3. Entity integrity constraint
  - no primary key is allowed to have a null value
- 4. Referential integrity constraint
  - a tuple that refers to another tuple in another relation must refer to an existing tuple
- 5. Semantic integrity constraint
  - e.g. “an employee’s total work time per week can not exceed 40 hours for all projects taken all together”



## Steps in translation from E-R model to relational model

- Translation of entity types and their attributes
  - Step 1) Entity types
  - Step 2) Weak entity types
- Translation of relationships
  - Step 3) 1-1 Relationship
  - Step 4) 1-N Relationship
  - Step 5) M-N Relationship
- Translation of multivalued attributes and relationships
  - Step 6) Multivalued attributes
  - Step 7) Multivalued relationships



## Translating entity types and their attributes

- Step 1: Entity types - a strong entity type reduces to a table with the same attributes.
  - Key attributes (primary key - pk) is made the primary key column(s) for the table. Each attribute gets their own column.
  - Composite attributes are normally represented by their simple components.
  - Example customer schema and table:

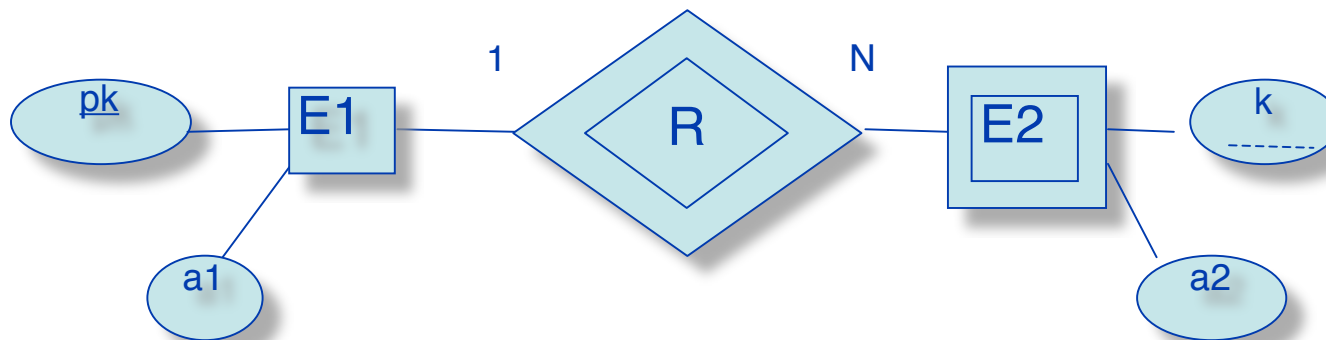
pk

*Customer(social-security, customer-name, c-street, c-city)*

<i><u>social-security</u></i>	<i>customer-name</i>	<i>c-street</i>	<i>c-city</i>
321-12-3123	Jones	Main	Harrison
019-28-3746	Smith	North	Rye
677-89-9011	Hayes	Main	Harrison

## Translating entity types cont. . .

- Step 2: **Weak entity types** - a weak entity type becomes a table that includes a column for the primary key of the identifying strong entity type .



<u>pk</u>	a1

<u>pk</u>	<u>---k---</u>	a2

## Translating entity types cont. . .

- The table corresponding to a relationship type linking a weak entity type to its identifying strong entity type is redundant.
- Example of the payment schema and table:
  - The payment table already contains the information that would appear in the loan-payment table (i.e., the columns loan-number and payment-no).

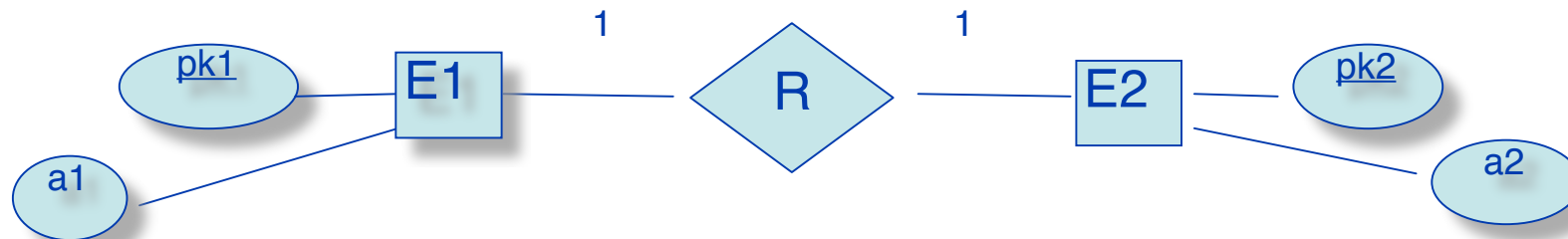
*Payment(loan-number, payment-no, pay-date, amount)*

<u>loan-number</u>	<u>payment-no</u>	pay-date	amount
L-17	5	10 May 1996	50
L-23	11	17 May 1996	75
L-15	22	23 May 1996	300



## Translating relationship types

- Step 3: 1-1 Relationship types
  - The foreign key column (fk) is a copy of the other entity's primary key column (pk). The values in a fk-column point to unique row in the other table, and thus implement the relationship.



Alt 1:

<u>pk1</u>	a1

<u>pk2</u>	a2	f k1

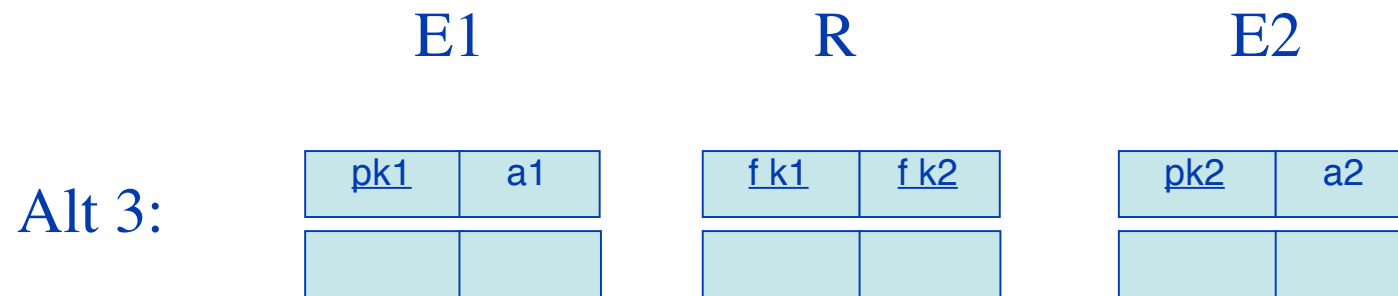
Alt 2:

<u>pk1</u>	a1	f k2

<u>pk2</u>	a2

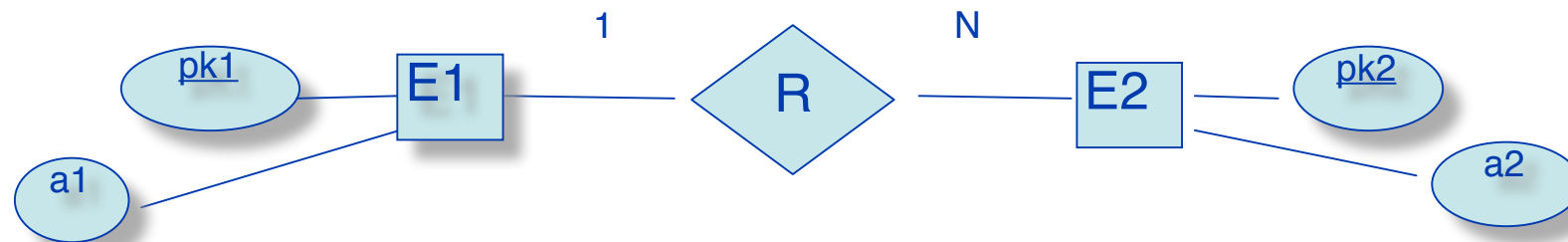


## Translating 1-1 relationship types cont. . .



## Translating relationship . . . cont. . .

- Step 4: 1-N Relationship types
  - Include the primary key of the “1-side” as a foreign key on the “N-side”, (i.e. the foreign key column is placed on the entity on the N-side).
  - Alternatively, an extra table (R) is created whose primary key is a foreign key composed by the primary key from the N-side.



Alt 1:

<u>pk1</u>	a1

<u>pk2</u>	a2	f k1

Alt 2:

<u>pk1</u>	a1

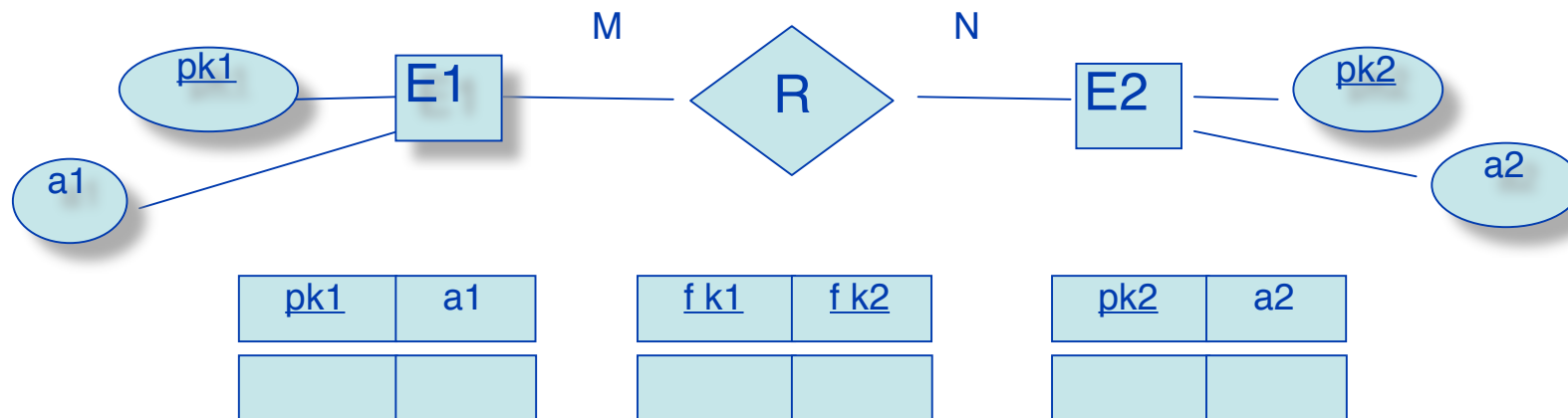
f k1	<u>f k2</u>

<u>pk2</u>	a2



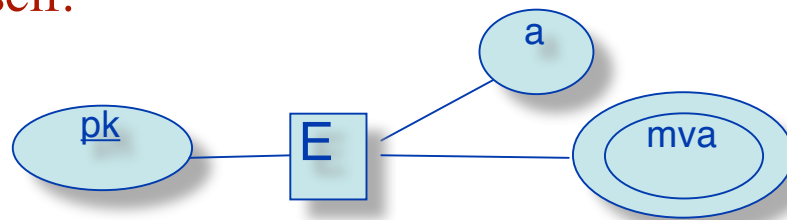
## Translating relationship . . . cont. . .

- Step 5: M-N Relationship types
  - Always a separate table with columns for the primary keys of the two participating entity types, and any descriptive attributes of the relationship type.



## Translating relationship . . . cont. . .

- Step 6: Multivalued attributes
  - A separate table is created for the multivalued attribute. Its primary key is composed of the owning entity's primary key, and the attribute value itself.



E

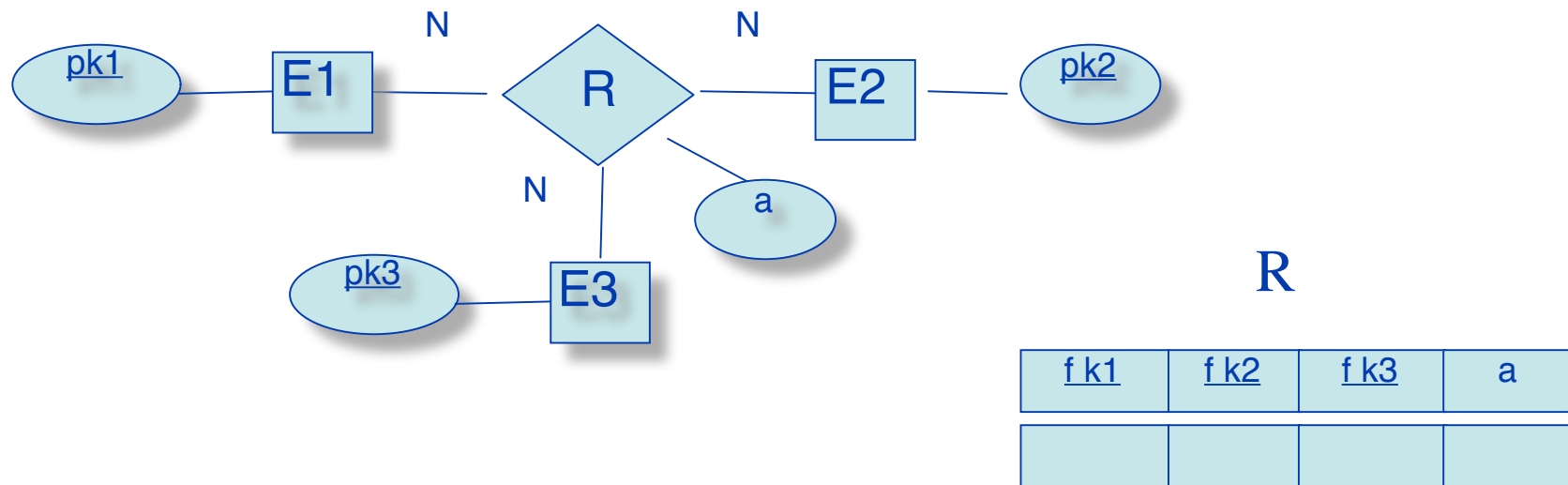
E-MVA

<u>pk</u>	a

<u>pk</u>	<u>mva</u>

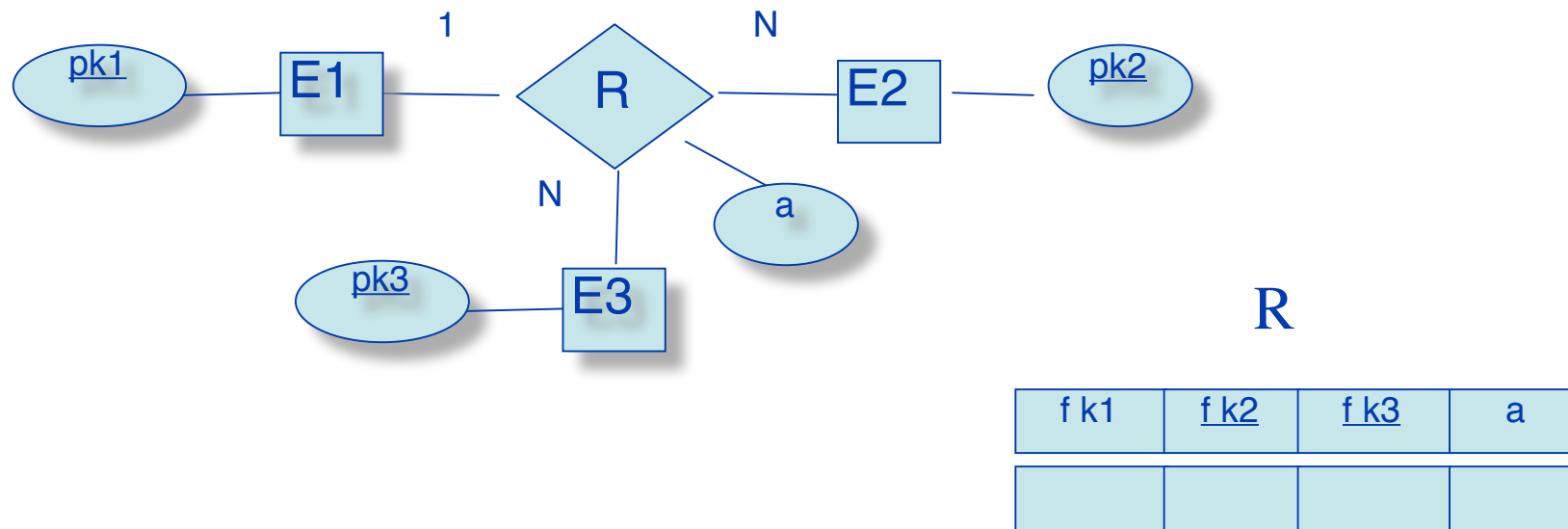
## Translating relationship . . . cont. . .

- Step 7: Multivalued relationship types
  - First try to remove multivalued relationships on the E-R model level by model transformation.
  - A separate table is created, with foreign keys to all tables that are included in the relationship. Its primary key is composed of all foreign keys.



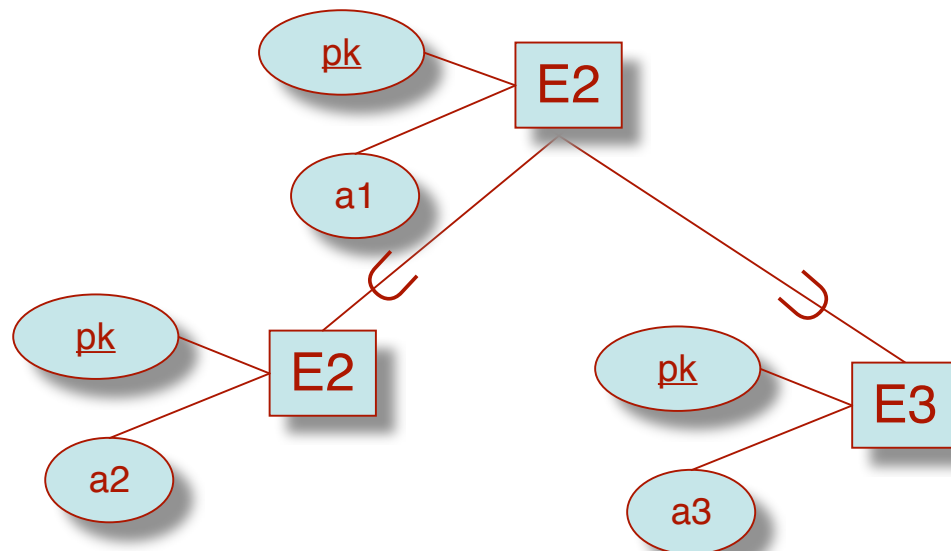
## Translating relationship . . . cont. . .

- Step 7: Multivalued relationship types continued
  - In the case where R is 1-N-N, the primary key on R shall not include the fk for the table with cardinality 1.



# Translating Specialization/Generalization

- Alternative a) in Elmasri/Navathe



E1

<u>pk</u>	a1

E2

<u>pk</u>	a2

E3

<u>pk</u>	a3



## Example E-R to relational model translation

