

Anomalies in DBMS

Anomaly means inconsistency in the pattern from the normal form. In Database Management System (DBMS), anomaly means the inconsistency occurred in the relational table during the operations performed on the relational table.

There can be various reasons for anomalies to occur in the database. For example, if there is a lot of redundant data present in our database then DBMS anomalies can occur. If a table is constructed in a very poor manner then there is a chance of database anomaly. Due to database anomalies, the integrity of the database suffers.

The other reason for the database anomalies is that all the data is stored in a single table. So, to remove the anomalies of the database, normalization is the process which is done where the splitting of the table and joining of the table (different types of join) occurs.

We will see the anomalies present in a table by the different examples:

Example 1:

Worker_id	Worker_name	Worker_dept	Worker_address
65	Ramesh	ECT001	Jaipur
65	Ramesh	ECT002	Jaipur
73	Amit	ECT002	Delhi
76	Vikas	ECT501	Pune
76	Vikas	ECT502	Pune
79	Rajesh	ECT669	Mumbai

In the above table, we have four columns which describe the details about the workers like their name, address, department and their id. The above table is not normalized, and there is definitely a chance of anomalies present in the table.

There can be three types of an anomaly in the database:

Updation / Update Anomaly

When we update some rows in the table, and if it leads to the inconsistency of the table then this anomaly occurs. This type of anomaly is known as an updation anomaly. In the above table, if we want to update the address of Ramesh then we will have to update all the rows where Ramesh is present. If during the update we miss any single row, then there will be two addresses of Ramesh, which will lead to inconsistent and wrong databases.

Insertion Anomaly

If there is a new row inserted in the table and it creates the inconsistency in the table then it is called the insertion anomaly. For example, if in the above table, we create a new row of a worker, and if it is not allocated to any department then we cannot insert it in the table so, it will create an insertion anomaly.

Deletion Anomaly

If we delete some rows from the table and if any other information or data which is required is

also deleted from the database, this is called the deletion anomaly in the database. For example, in the above table, if we want to delete the department number ECT669 then the details of Rajesh will also be deleted since Rajesh's details are dependent on the row of ECT669. So, there will be deletion anomalies in the table.

To remove this type of anomalies, we will normalize the table or split the table or join the tables. There can be various normalized forms of a table like 1NF, 2NF, 3NF, BCNF etc. we will apply the different normalization schemes according to the current form of the table.

Example 2:

Stu_id	Stu_name	Stu_branch	Stu_club
2018nk01	Shivani	Computer science	literature
2018nk01	Shivani	Computer science	dancing
2018nk02	Ayush	Electronics	Videography
2018nk03	Mansi	Electrical	dancing
2018nk03	Mansi	Electrical	singing
2018nk04	Gopal	Mechanical	Photography

In the above table, we have listed students with their name, id, branch and their respective clubs.

Updation / Update Anomaly

In the above table, if Shivani changes her branch from Computer Science to Electronics, then we will have to update all the rows. If we miss any row, then Shivani will have more than one branch, which will create the update anomaly in the table.

Insertion Anomaly

If we add a new row for student Ankit who is not a part of any club, we cannot insert the row into the table as we cannot insert null in the column of stu_club. This is called insertion anomaly.

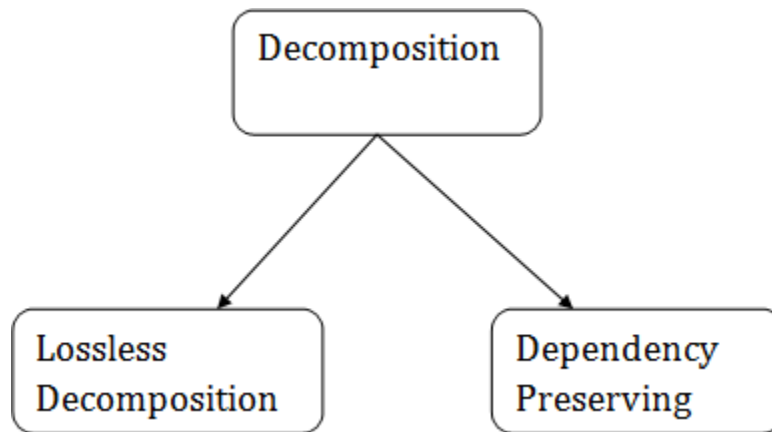
Deletion Anomaly

If we remove the photography club from the college, then we will have to delete its row from the table. But it will also delete the table of Gopal and his details. So, this is called deletion anomaly and it will make the database inconsistent.

Relational Decomposition

- When a relation in the relational model is not in appropriate normal form then the decomposition of a relation is required.
- In a database, it breaks the table into multiple tables.
- If the relation has no proper decomposition, then it may lead to problems like loss of information.
- Decomposition is used to eliminate some of the problems of bad design like anomalies, inconsistencies, and redundancy.

Types of Decomposition



Lossless Decomposition

- If the information is not lost from the relation that is decomposed, then the decomposition will be lossless.
- The lossless decomposition guarantees that the join of relations will result in the same relation as it was decomposed.
- The relation is said to be lossless decomposition if natural joins of all the decomposition give the original relation.

Example:

EMPLOYEE_DEPARTMENT table:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_AGE	EMP_CITY	DEPT_ID	DEPT_NAME
22	Denim	28	Mumbai	827	Sales
33	Alina	25	Delhi	438	Marketing
46	Stephan	30	Bangalore	869	Finance
52	Katherine	36	Mumbai	575	Production
60	Jack	40	Noida	678	Testing

The above relation is decomposed into two relations EMPLOYEE and DEPARTMENT

EMPLOYEE table:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_AGE	EMP_CITY
22	Denim	28	Mumbai
33	Alina	25	Delhi
46	Stephan	30	Bangalore
52	Katherine	36	Mumbai
60	Jack	40	Noida

DEPARTMENT table

DEPT_ID	EMP_ID	DEPT_NAME
827	22	Sales
438	33	Marketing
869	46	Finance
575	52	Production
678	60	Testing

Now, when these two relations are joined on the common column "EMP_ID", then the resultant relation will look like:

Employee ⋈ Department

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_AGE	EMP_CITY	DEPT_ID	DEPT_NAME
22	Denim	28	Mumbai	827	Sales
33	Alina	25	Delhi	438	Marketing
46	Stephan	30	Bangalore	869	Finance
52	Katherine	36	Mumbai	575	Production
60	Jack	40	Noida	678	Testing

Hence, the decomposition is Lossless join decomposition.

Functional Dependency

The functional dependency is a relationship that exists between two attributes. It typically exists between the primary key and non-key attribute within a table.

1. $X \rightarrow Y$

The left side of FD is known as a determinant, the right side of the production is known as a dependent

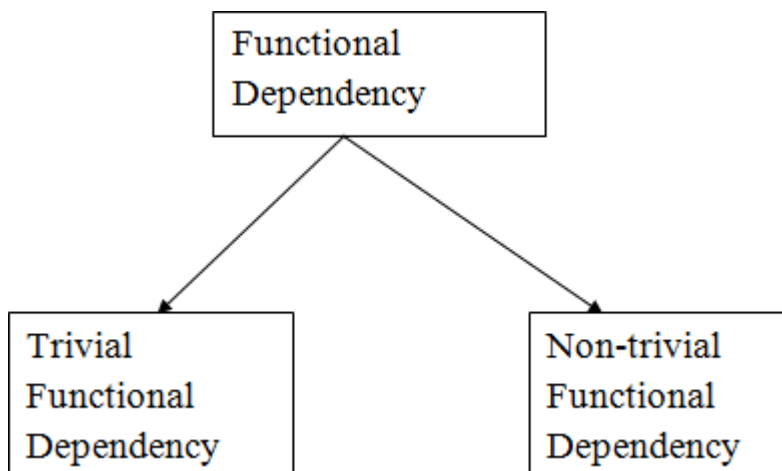
For example:

Assume we have an employee table with attributes: Emp_Id, Emp_Name, Emp_Address. Here Emp_Id attribute can uniquely identify the Emp_Name attribute of employee table because if we know the Emp_Id, we can tell that employee name associated with it. Functional dependency can be written as:

1. $\text{Emp_Id} \rightarrow \text{Emp_Name}$

We can say that Emp_Name is functionally dependent on Emp_Id.

Types of Functional dependency



1. Trivial functional dependency

- $A \rightarrow B$ has trivial functional dependency if B is a subset of A.
- The following dependencies are also trivial like: $A \rightarrow A$, $B \rightarrow B$

Example:

1. Consider a table with two columns Employee_Id and Employee_Name.
2. $\{\text{Employee_id}, \text{Employee_Name}\} \rightarrow \text{Employee_Id}$ is a trivial functional dependency as
3. Employee_Id is a subset of $\{\text{Employee_Id}, \text{Employee_Name}\}$.
4. Also, $\text{Employee_Id} \rightarrow \text{Employee_Id}$ and $\text{Employee_Name} \rightarrow \text{Employee_Name}$ are trivial dependencies too.

2. Non-trivial functional dependency

- $A \rightarrow B$ has a non-trivial functional dependency if B is not a subset of A.
- When A intersection B is NULL, then $A \rightarrow B$ is called as complete non-trivial.

Example:

1. $ID \rightarrow Name$,
2. $Name \rightarrow DOB$

Inference Rule (IR):

- The Armstrong's axioms are the basic inference rule.
- Armstrong's axioms are used to conclude functional dependencies on a relational database.
- The inference rule is a type of assertion. It can apply to a set of FD(functional dependency) to derive other FD.
- Using the inference rule, we can derive additional functional dependency from the initial set.
- The Functional dependency has 6 types of inference rule:
 1. Reflexive Rule (IR_1)
- In the reflexive rule, if Y is a subset of X, then X determines Y.

1. If $X \supseteq Y$ then $X \rightarrow Y$

Example:

1. $X = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$
2. $Y = \{a, b, c\}$

2. Augmentation Rule (IR_2)

The augmentation is also called as a partial dependency. In augmentation, if X determines Y, then XZ determines YZ for any Z.

1. If $X \rightarrow Y$ then $XZ \rightarrow YZ$

Example:

1. For R(ABCD), if $A \rightarrow B$ then $AC \rightarrow BC$

3. Transitive Rule (IR_3)

In the transitive rule, if X determines Y and Y determine Z, then X must also determine Z.

1. If $X \rightarrow Y$ and $Y \rightarrow Z$ then $X \rightarrow Z$

4. Union Rule (IR_4)

Union rule says, if X determines Y and X determines Z, then X must also determine Y and Z.

1. If $X \rightarrow Y$ and $X \rightarrow Z$ then $X \rightarrow YZ$

1. $X \rightarrow Y$ (given)
2. $X \rightarrow Z$ (given)
3. $X \rightarrow XY$ (using IR₂ on 1 by augmentation with X. Where $XX = X$)
4. $XY \rightarrow YZ$ (using IR₂ on 2 by augmentation with Y)
5. $X \rightarrow YZ$ (using IR₃ on 3 and 4)
5. Decomposition Rule (IR₅)

Decomposition rule is also known as project rule. It is the reverse of union rule.

This Rule says, if X determines Y and Z, then X determines Y and X determines Z separately.

1. If $X \rightarrow YZ$ then $X \rightarrow Y$ and $X \rightarrow Z$

1. $X \rightarrow YZ$ (given)
2. $YZ \rightarrow Y$ (using IR₁ Rule)
3. $X \rightarrow Y$ (using IR₃ on 1 and 2)
6. Pseudo transitive Rule (IR₆)

In Pseudo transitive Rule, if X determines Y and YZ determines W, then XZ determines W.

1. If $X \rightarrow Y$ and $YZ \rightarrow W$ then $XZ \rightarrow W$

1. $X \rightarrow Y$ (given)
2. $WY \rightarrow Z$ (given)
3. $WX \rightarrow WY$ (using IR₂ on 1 by augmenting with W)
4. $WX \rightarrow Z$ (using IR₃ on 3 and 2)

Normalization

A large database defined as a single relation may result in data duplication. This repetition of data may result in:

- Making relations very large.
- It isn't easy to maintain and update data as it would involve searching many records in relation.
- Wastage and poor utilization of disk space and resources.
- The likelihood of errors and inconsistencies increases.

So to handle these problems, we should analyze and decompose the relations with redundant data into smaller, simpler, and well-structured relations that are satisfy desirable properties. Normalization is a process of decomposing the relations into relations with fewer attributes.

What is Normalization?

- Normalization is the process of organizing the data in the database.
- Normalization is used to minimize the redundancy from a relation or set of relations. It is also used to eliminate undesirable characteristics like Insertion, Update, and Deletion Anomalies.
- Normalization divides the larger table into smaller and links them using relationships.

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- The normal form is used to reduce redundancy from the database table.

Why do we need Normalization?

The main reason for normalizing the relations is removing these anomalies. Failure to eliminate anomalies leads to data redundancy and can cause data integrity and other problems as the database grows. Normalization consists of a series of guidelines that helps to guide you in creating a good database structure.

Data modification anomalies can be categorized into three types:

- **Insertion Anomaly:** Insertion Anomaly refers to when one cannot insert a new tuple into a relationship due to lack of data.
- **Deletion Anomaly:** The delete anomaly refers to the situation where the deletion of data results in the unintended loss of some other important data.
- **Updation Anomaly:** The update anomaly is when an update of a single data value requires multiple rows of data to be updated.

Types of Normal Forms:

Normalization works through a series of stages called Normal forms. The normal forms apply to individual relations. The relation is said to be in particular normal form if it satisfies constraints.

Normal Form	Description
<u>1NF</u>	A relation is in 1NF if it contains an atomic value.
<u>2NF</u>	A relation will be in 2NF if it is in 1NF and all non-key attributes are fully functional dependent on the primary key.
<u>3NF</u>	A relation will be in 3NF if it is in 2NF and no transitive dependency exists.
BCNF	A stronger definition of 3NF is known as Boyce Codd's normal form.
<u>4NF</u>	A relation will be in 4NF if it is in Boyce Codd's normal form and has no multi-valued dependency.
<u>5NF</u>	A relation is in 5NF. If it is in 4NF and does not contain any join dependency, joining should be lossless.

Advantages of Normalization

- Normalization helps to minimize data redundancy.
- Greater overall database organization.
- Data consistency within the database.
- Much more flexible database design.
- Enforces the concept of relational integrity.

Disadvantages of Normalization

- You cannot start building the database before knowing what the user needs.
- The performance degrades when normalizing the relations to higher normal forms, i.e., 4NF, 5NF.
- It is very time-consuming and difficult to normalize relations of a higher degree.
- Careless decomposition may lead to a bad database design, leading to serious problems.

First Normal Form (1NF)

- A relation will be 1NF if it contains an atomic value.
- It states that an attribute of a table cannot hold multiple values. It must hold only single-valued attribute.
- First normal form disallows the multi-valued attribute, composite attribute, and their combinations.
- **Example:** Relation EMPLOYEE is not in 1NF because of multi-valued attribute EMP_PHONE.
- **EMPLOYEE table:**

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_PHONE	EMP_STATE
14	John	7272826385, 9064738238	UP
20	Harry	8574783832	Bihar
12	Sam	7390372389, 8589830302	Punjab

The decomposition of the EMPLOYEE table into 1NF has been shown below:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_PHONE	EMP_STATE
14	John	7272826385	UP
14	John	9064738238	UP
20	Harry	8574783832	Bihar
12	Sam	7390372389	Punjab
12	Sam	8589830302	Punjab

Second Normal Form (2NF)

- In the 2NF, relational must be in 1NF.
- In the second normal form, all non-key attributes are fully functional dependent on the primary key

Example: Let's assume, a school can store the data of teachers and the subjects they teach. In a school, a teacher can teach more than one subject.

TEACHER table

TEACHER_ID	SUBJECT	TEACHER_AGE
25	Chemistry	30
25	Biology	30
47	English	35
83	Math	38
83	Computer	38

In the given table, non-prime attribute TEACHER_AGE is dependent on TEACHER_ID which is a proper subset of a candidate key. That's why it violates the rule for 2NF.

To convert the given table into 2NF, we decompose it into two tables:

TEACHER_DETAIL table:

TEACHER_ID	TEACHER_AGE
25	30
47	35
83	38

TEACHER_SUBJECT table:

TEACHER_ID	SUBJECT
25	Chemistry
25	Biology
47	English
83	Math

Third Normal Form (3NF)

- A relation will be in 3NF if it is in 2NF and not contain any transitive partial dependency.
- 3NF is used to reduce the data duplication. It is also used to achieve the data integrity.
- If there is no transitive dependency for non-prime attributes, then the relation must be in third normal form.

A relation is in third normal form if it holds atleast one of the following conditions for every non-trivial function dependency $X \rightarrow Y$.

1. X is a super key.
2. Y is a prime attribute, i.e., each element of Y is part of some candidate key.

3. Example:

4. EMPLOYEE_DETAIL table:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_ZIP	EMP_STATE	EMP_CITY
222	Harry	201010	UP	Noida
333	Stephan	02228	US	Boston
444	Lan	60007	US	Chicago
555	Katharine	06389	UK	Norwich
666	John	462007	MP	Bhopal

Super key in the table above:

1. {EMP_ID}, {EMP_ID, EMP_NAME}, {EMP_ID, EMP_NAME, EMP_ZIP}....so on
Candidate key: {EMP_ID}

Non-prime attributes: In the given table, all attributes except EMP_ID are non-prime. Here, EMP_STATE & EMP_CITY dependent on EMP_ZIP and EMP_ZIP dependent on EMP_ID. The non-prime attributes (EMP_STATE, EMP_CITY) transitively dependent on super key(EMP_ID). It violates the rule of third normal form.

That's why we need to move the EMP_CITY and EMP_STATE to the new <EMPLOYEE_ZIP> table, with EMP_ZIP as a Primary key.

EMPLOYEE table:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_ZIP
222	Harry	201010

333	Stephan	02228
444	Lan	60007
555	Katharine	06389
666	John	462007

EMPLOYEE_ZIP table:

EMP_ZIP	EMP_STATE	EMP_CITY
201010	UP	Noida
02228	US	Boston
60007	US	Chicago
06389	UK	Norwich
462007	MP	Bhopal

Boyce Codd normal form (BCNF)

- BCNF is the advance version of 3NF. It is stricter than 3NF.
- A table is in BCNF if every functional dependency $X \rightarrow Y$, X is the super key of the table.
- For BCNF, the table should be in 3NF, and for every FD, LHS is super key.

Example: Let's assume there is a company where employees work in more than one department.

EMPLOYEE table:

EMP_ID	EMP_COUNTRY	EMP_DEPT	DEPT_TYPE	EMP_DEPT_NO
264	India	Designing	D394	283
264	India	Testing	D394	300
364	UK	Stores	D283	232
364	UK	Developing	D283	549

In the above table Functional dependencies are as follows:

1. $EMP_ID \rightarrow EMP_COUNTRY$
2. $EMP_DEPT \rightarrow \{DEPT_TYPE, EMP_DEPT_NO\}$

Candidate key: {EMP-ID, EMP-DEPT}

The table is not in BCNF because neither EMP_DEPT nor EMP_ID alone are keys.

To convert the given table into BCNF, we decompose it into three tables:

EMP_COUNTRY table:

EMP_ID	EMP_COUNTRY
264	India
264	India

EMP_DEPT table:

EMP_DEPT	DEPT_TYPE	EMP_DEPT_NO
Designing	D394	283
Testing	D394	300
Stores	D283	232
Developing	D283	549

EMP_DEPT_MAPPING table:

EMP_ID	EMP_DEPT
D394	283
D394	300
D283	232
D283	549

Functional dependencies:

1. EMP_ID → EMP_COUNTRY
2. EMP_DEPT → {DEPT_TYPE, EMP_DEPT_NO}

Candidate keys:

For the first table: EMP_ID

For the second table: EMP_DEPT

For the third table: {EMP_ID, EMP_DEPT}

Now, this is in BCNF because left side part of both the functional dependencies is a key.