Relational Model and Algebra

Introduction to Databases CompSci 316 Fall 2021



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Announcements (Thu. Aug. 26)

- Start following Ed, NOW!
- Gradiance RA Exercise assigned; due in a week
 See "Help/Getting Started with Gradiance" of the course website
- Homework 1 will be posted tonight; due in 2½ weeks
 See "Help/Submitting Non-Gradiance Work" for instructions on Gradescope
- Set up VM (virtual machine)
 - See "Help/VM-related" for instructions
 - Google Cloud coupon email sent
- · Check Sakai email archive for any missed announcements
- Office hours: North 232
 - Instructor/GTA office hours are starting this week
 - UTA office hours will be posted this weekend





Edgar F. Codd (1923-2003)



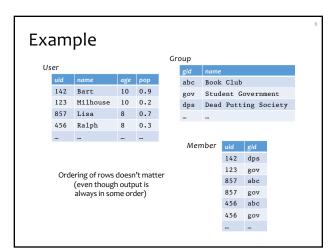
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Relational data model

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Edgar_F_Codd.jpg

- A database is a collection of relations (or tables)
- Each relation has a set of attributes (or columns)
- Each attribute has a name and a domain (or type)
 Set-valued attributes are not allowed
- Each relation contains a set of tuples (or rows)
 - Each tuple has a value for each attribute of the relation
 - Duplicate tuples are not allowed
 - Two tuples are duplicates if they agree on all attributes

[@]Simplicity is a virtue!





Schema vs. instance

• Schema (metadata)

- Specifies the logical structure of data
- Is defined at setup time
- Rarely changes
- Instance
 - Represents the data content
 - Changes rapidly, but always conforms to the schema
- Compare to types vs. collections of objects of these types in a programming language

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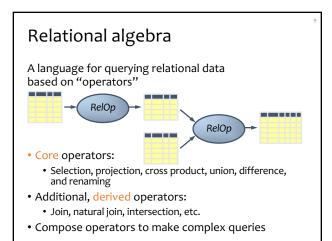
Example

Schema

- User (uid int, name string, age int, pop float)
- Group (gid string, name string)
- Member (uid int, gid string)

Instance

- User: {(142, Bart, 10, 0.9), (857, Milhouse, 10, 0.2), ...}
- Group: {(abc, Book Club), (gov, Student Government), ... }
- Member: {(142, dps), (123, gov), ... }

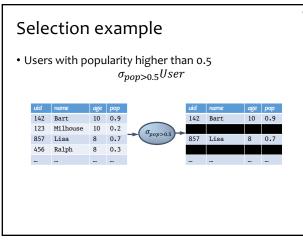


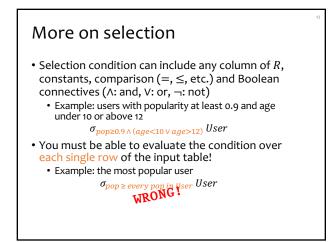


Selection

- Input: a table R
- Notation: $\sigma_p R$
- *p* is called a selection condition (or predicate)
- Purpose: filter rows according to some criteria
- Output: same columns as ${\it R},$ but only rows or ${\it R}$ that satisfy p

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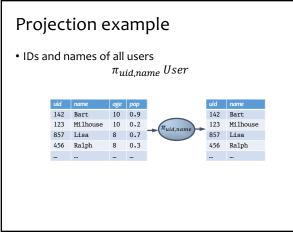


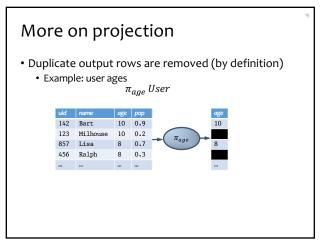


Projection

- Input: a table R
- Notation: $\pi_L R$
- L is a list of columns in R
- Purpose: output chosen columns
- Output: same rows, but only the columns in \boldsymbol{L}

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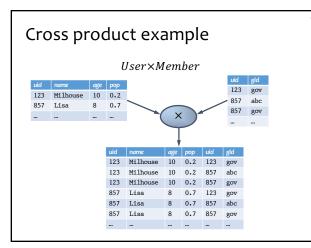


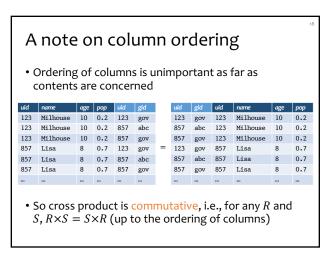


Cross product

- Input: two tables R and S
- Natation: $R \times S$
- Purpose: pairs rows from two tables
- Output: for each row r in R and each s in S, output a row rs (concatenation of r and s)

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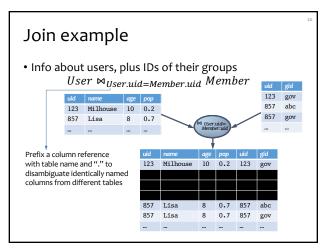


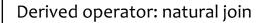
Derived operator: join

(A.k.a. "theta-join")

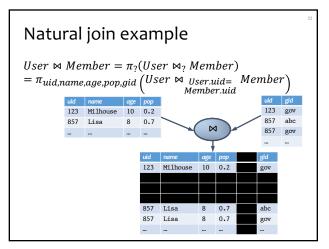
- Input: two tables R and S
- Notation: R ⋈_p S
 p is called a join condition (or predicate)
- Purpose: relate rows from two tables according to some criteria
- Output: for each row r in R and each row s in S, output a row rs if r and s satisfy p
- Shorthand for $\sigma_p(R \times S)$

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- Input: two tables R and S
- Notation: $R \bowtie S$
- Purpose: relate rows from two tables, and
 Enforce equality between identically named columns
 Eliminate one copy of identically named columns
- Shorthand for $\pi_L(R \bowtie_p S)$, where
 - p equates each pair of columns common to R and S
 - *L* is the union of column names from *R* and *S* (with duplicate columns removed)





Union

- Input: two tables R and S
- Notation: $R \cup S$
 - R and S must have identical schema
- Output:
 - Has the same schema as R and S
 - Contains all rows in *R* and all rows in *S* (with duplicate rows removed)

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Difference

- Input: two tables R and S
- Notation: R S
 - R and S must have identical schema
- Output:
 - Has the same schema as R and S
 - Contains all rows in R that are not in S

Derived operator: intersection

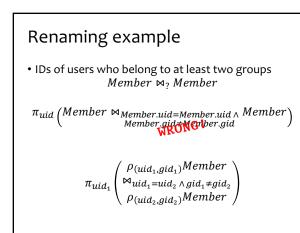
- Input: two tables R and S
- Notation: $R \cap S$
 - R and S must have identical schema
- Output:
 - Has the same schema as R and S
 - Contains all rows that are in both ${\it R}$ and ${\it S}$
- Shorthand for
- Also equivalent to ______

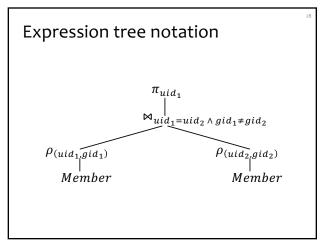
• And to _____

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Renaming

- Input: a table R
- Notation: $\rho_S R$, $\rho_{(A_1,A_2,...)}R$, or $\rho_{S(A_1,A_2,...)}R$
- Purpose: "rename" a table and/or its columns
- Output: a table with the same rows as *R*, but called differently
- Used to
 - Avoid confusion caused by identical column names
 - Create identical column names for natural joins
- As with all other relational operators, it doesn't modify the database
 - Think of the renamed table as a copy of the original





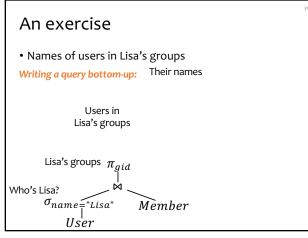
Summary of core operators

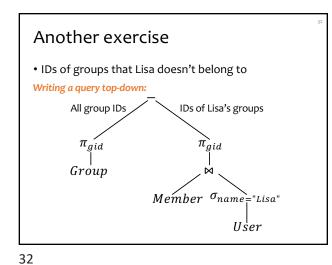
- Selection: $\sigma_p R$
- Projection: $\pi_L R$
- Cross product: *R*×*S*
- Union: $R \cup S$
- Difference: R S
- Renaming: ρ_{S(A1,A2,...)}R
 Does not really add "processing" power

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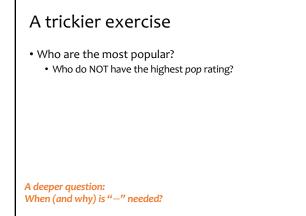
Summary of derived operators

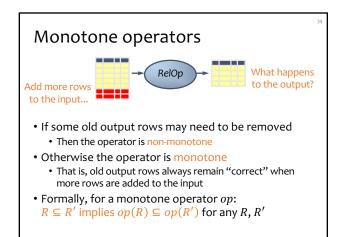
- Join: $R \bowtie_p S$
- Natural join: $R \bowtie S$
- Intersection: $R \cap S$
- Many more
 - Semijoin, anti-semijoin, quotient, ...











Classification of relational operators

- Selection: $\sigma_p R$
- Projection: $\pi_L R$
- Cross product: R×S
- Join: $R \bowtie_p S$
- Natural join: $R \bowtie S$
- Union: $R \cup S$
- Difference: R S
- Intersection: $R \cap S$

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Why is "-" needed for "highest"?

- Composition of monotone operators produces a monotone query
 - Old output rows remain "correct" when more rows are added to the input
- Is the "highest" query monotone?

Why do we need core operator *X*?

?

Difference

- The only non-monotone operator
- Projection
- Cross product
 - The only operator that _
- Union
 - The only operator that allows you to _____
 - A more rigorous argument?
- Selection?
 - Homework problem

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Extensions to relational algebra

- Duplicate handling ("bag algebra")
- Grouping and aggregation
- "Extension" (or "extended projection") to allow new column values to be computed

All these will come up when we talk about SQL
 But for now we will stick to standard relational algebra without these extensions

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Why is r.a. a good query language?

• Simple

- A small set of core operators
- Semantics are easy to grasp
- Declarative?
 - Yes, compared with older languages like CODASYL
 - Though assembling operators into a query does feel somewhat "procedural"
- Complete?
 - With respect to what?

Relational calculus

• $\{u.uid \mid u \in User \land$

 $\neg (\exists u' \in User: u. pop < u'. pop)\}, or$

• $\{u.uid \mid u \in User \land$

 $(\forall u' \in User: u. pop \ge u'. pop)$

- Relational algebra = "safe" relational calculus
 - Every query expressible as a safe relational calculus query is also expressible as a relational algebra query
 And vice versa
- Example of an "unsafe" relational calculus query
 - $\{u.name \mid \neg(u \in User)\}$
 - Cannot evaluate it just by looking at the database

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Turing machine

- A conceptual device that can execute any computer algorithm
- Approximates what generalpurpose programming languages can do
 - E.g., Python, Java, C++, ...

So how does relational algebra compare with a Turing machine?

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Alan_Turing_photo.jpg

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Limits of relational algebra

• Relational algebra has no recursion

- Example: given relation Friend(uid1, uid2), who can Bart reach in his social network with any number of hops?
 Writing this query in r.a. is impossible!
- So r.a. is not as powerful as general-purpose languages
- But why not?
 - Optimization becomes undecidable
 - Simplicity is empowering
 - Besides, you can always implement it at the application level (and recursion is added to SQL nevertheless)

