INTRODUCTION TO RELATIONAL DATABASE SYSTEMS DATENBANKSYSTEME 1 (INF 3131)

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THE RELATIONAL ALGEBRA (RA)

- The Relational Algebra is a query language for the relational data model.
 - The definition of RA is concise: the core of RA consist of five basic operators.
 - More operators can be defined in terms of the core but this does *not* add to RA's expressiveness.
 - RA is **expressive:** all SQL (DML) queries as we have studied them in this course have an equivalent RA form (if we omit ORDER BY, GROUP BY, aggregate functions—RA is easily extended to cover these as well).
 - RA is **the original query language** for the relational model, proposed by E.F. Codd in 1970. Query languages that are as expressive as RA are called **relationally complete.**
 - (SQL is relationally complete.)
 - There are no RDBMSs that expose RA as a user-level query language but almost all systems use RA as an internal representation of queries.
 - Knowledge of RA will help in understanding SQL, relational query processing, and the performance of relational queries in general (→ course "DB2").

THE RELATIONAL ALGEBRA

- RA is an **algebra** in the mathematical sense: an algebra is a system that comprises a
 - 1. a **set** (the *carrier*) and
 - 2. operations, of given arity, that are closed with respect to the set.
- Example: $(N, \{x,+\})$ forms an algebra with two binary (arity 2) operations.
- In the case of RA,
 - 1. the carrier is the set of all finite relations (= sets 1. of tuples),
 - 2. the five operations are σ (selection), π (projection), \times (Cartesian product), \cup (set union), and \setminus (set difference).
- Closure: Any RA operator
 - takes as input one or two relations (the unary operators $\sigma,\ \pi$ take additional parameters) and
 - returns one relation.
- Relations and operators may be **composed** to form complex expression (or **queries**).

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: SELECTION (0)

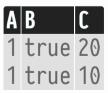
Selection

If unary **selection** operator $\sigma[p]$ is applied to input relation R, the output holds the **subset of tuples in** R **that satisfy predicate** p.

- Example: apply $\sigma[A = 1]$ (also consider: $\sigma[B]$, $\sigma[A = A]$, $\sigma[C > 20]$, Λ $\sigma[D = 0]$) to relation

R		
A	В	C
1	true	20
1	true	10
2	false	10

to obtain



- Selection does not alter the input relation schema, i.e., $sch(\sigma[p](R)) = sch(R)$.

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: SELECTION (0)

- Predicate p in σ[p] is restricted: p is evaluated for each input tuple in isolation and thus must exclusively be expressed in terms of
 - 1. literals,
 - 2. attribute references (occurring in sch(R) of input relation R),
- 3. arithmetic, comparison $(=, <, \leq, ...)$, and Boolean operators (\land, \lor, \lnot) .
- In particular, quantifiers (\exists, \forall) or nested algebra expressions are not allowed in p.
- In PyQL, $\sigma[p](r)$ has the following implementation:

```
def select(p, r):
    """Return those rows of relation r that satisfy predicate p."""
    return [ row for row in r if p(row) ]
```

- select(), and thus σ , are a higher-order functions.

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: PROJECTION (π)

Projection

If the unary operator $\pi[\ell]$ is applied to input relation R, it applies function ℓ to all tuples in R. The resulting tuples form the output relation.

- Function argument ℓ (the "projection list") computes one output tuple from one input tuple. ℓ constructs new tuples that may
 - 1. discard input attributes (DB slang: "attributes are projected away")
 - 2. contain newly created output attributes whose value is derived in terms of expressions over input attributes, literals, and pre-defined (arithmetic, string, comparison, Boolean) operators.
- Note:
 - sch(π[ℓ](R)) ≠ sch(R) in general
 - $|\pi[\ell](R)| \leq |R| \wedge (Why?)$

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: PROJECTION (π)

- PyQL implementation of $\pi[\ell](r)$:

```
def project(\ell, r):
"""Apply function \ell to relation r and return resulting relation."""
return dupe([\ell(row) for row in r]) # dupe(): eliminate duplicate elements
```

- $\pi[\ell]$ is a higher-order function (in functional programming languages, π is known as map).
- Common cases and notation for π (refer to relation R(A,B,C) shown above):
 - Retain some attributes of the input relation, i.e., project (throw) away all others: $\pi[C,A](R)$
 - Rename the attributes of the input relation, leaving their value
 unchanged:
 π[X ← A, Y ← B, C](R), sometimes written as ρ[X ← A, Y ← B](R) (ρ: rho)
 - Compute new attribute values: π[X ← A + C, Y ← ¬B, Z ← "LEGO"](R)

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: PROJECTION (π)

- Examples:

1. Apply π[X ← A + C, Y ← ¬B, Z ← "LEGO"] to relation

R

A B

C

1 true 20 1 true 10 2 false 10

to obtain

X	Y	Z
21	false	LEG0
11	false	LEG0
12	true	LEG0

2. Apply $\pi[X \leftarrow A, Y \leftarrow B]$ to R to obtain

X Y
1 true
2 false

REL. ALGEBRA: CARTESIAN PRODUCT (x)

Cartesian Product

If the binary operator \times is applied to two input relations R_1 , R_2 , the output relation contains all possible concatenations of all tuples in both inputs.

- The schemata of inputs R_1 and R_2 must not share any attribute names. (This is no real restriction because we have π .) We have:

$$sch(R_1 \times R_2) = sch(R_1) + sch(R_2)$$
 and $|R_1 \times R_2| = |R_1| \times |R_2|$

- PyQL implementation:

REL. ALGEBRA: CARTESIAN PRODUCT (x)

- Example: Given graph adjacency (edge) relation G(from, to), compute the paths of length two ("Where can I go in two hops?"):



- Algebraic query: π[from,to+to2](σ[to = from2](G × π[from2+from, to2+to](G)))

- Result:



RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: JOIN (M)

- The algebraic two-hop query relied on a combination of $\sigma-\times$ that is typical: (1) generate all possible (arbitrary) combinations of tuples, then (2) filter for the interesting/sensible combinations.

Join

The **join** of input relations R_1 , R_2 with respect to predicate p is defined as

$$R_1 \bowtie [p] R_2 := \sigma[p](R_1 \times R_2)$$

- Note:
 - Join does not add to the expressiveness of RA ($\bowtie[p]$ is a derived operator or an "RA macro" in a sense).
 - $\bowtie[p]$ comes with the same preconditions as σ and \times : $sch(R_1) \cap sch(R_2) = φ$ and p may only refer to attributes in $sch(R_1)$ $to sch(R_2)$.

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: JOIN (M)

- RDBMS are equipped with an entire **family of algorithms that efficiently compute joins.** In particular, the potentially large intermediate result (after ×) is not materialized.
- Consider a join implementation in PyQL. Equational reasoning:

```
join(p, r1, r2)

# definition of join

= select(p, cross(r1, r2))

# definition of cross

= select(p, [ row1 ⊕ row2 for row1 in r1 for row2 in r2 ])

# definition of select

= [ row for row in [ row1 ⊕ row2 for row1 in r1 for row2 in r2 ] if p(row) ]

# [ e₁(y) for y in [ e₂(x) for x in xs ] ] = [ e₁(y) for x in xs for y in [e₂(x)] ]

= [ row for row1 in r1 for row2 in r2 for row in [row1 ⊕ row2] if p(row) ]

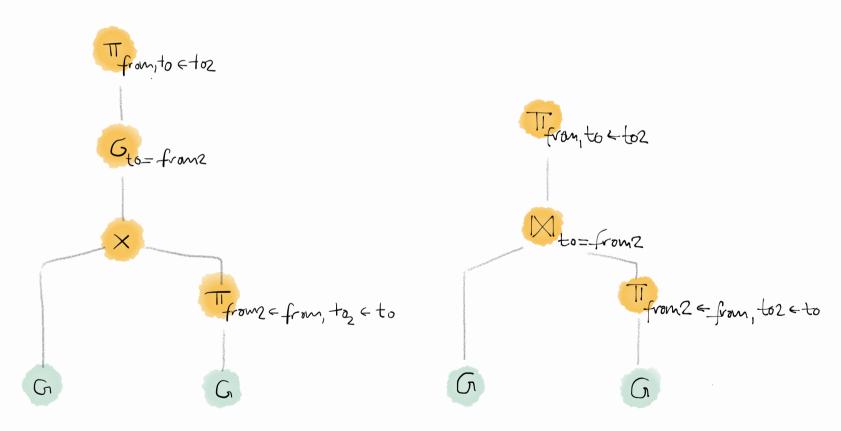
# [ e₁(y) for x in xs for y in [e₂(x)] ] = [ e₁(e₂(x)) for x in xs ]

= [ row1 ⊕ row2 for row1 in r1 for row2 in r2 if p(row1 ⊕ row2) ]
```

PLANS (OPERATOR TREES)

- Depict RA queries (or **plans**) as data-flow trees.

 Tuples flow from the leaves (relations) to the root which represents the final result.
- **Example:** Two-hop query using \times and $\bowtie[p]$:



RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: NATURAL JOIN (⋈)

- Idiomatic relational database design often leads to joins between input relations R_1 , R_2 in which the join predicate performs **equality comparisons** of attributes of the same name (think of key-foreign key joins).
- Example: Consider the LEGO database:

sets
set name cat x y z weight year img

contains
set piece color extra quantity

- We have $sch(sets) \cap sch(contains) = \{set\}$ and attribute set exactly determines the join condition.
- Associated RA key-foreign key join query:

```
π[set,name,cat,x,y,z,weight,year,img,piece,color,extra,quantity](
    sets ⋈[set2 = set] π[set2←set,piece,color,extra,quantity](contains))
```

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: NATURAL JOIN (⋈)

Natural Join

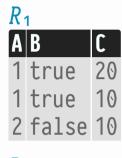
The **natural join** of input relations R_1 , R_2 performs a $\bowtie[p]$ operation where p is a conjunction of equality comparisons between the attributes $\{a_1,...,a_n\} = sch(R_1) \cap sch(R_2)$:

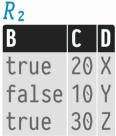
```
R_1 \bowtie R_2 := \pi[sch(R_1) \cup sch(R_2)](R_1 \bowtie [a_1=b_1 \land \dots \land a_n=b_n] \pi[b_1+a_1,\dots,b_n+a_n,sch(R_2) \setminus \{a_1,\dots,a_n\}](R_2))
```

- Note: the final (top-most) projection ensures that the shared attributes $\{a_1,...,a_n\}$ only occur once in the result schema (we have $a_i=b_i$ anyway).
- Terminology:
 Joins $\bowtie[p]$ with a conjunctive all-equalities predicates p are also known as equi-joins. Otherwise, $\bowtie[p]$ is also referred to as θ -join (theta-join).

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: NATURAL JOIN (⋈)

- Natural Join Quiz: Consider relations





and natural joins

- 1. $R_1 \bowtie R_2$
- 2. $\pi[B,C](R_1) \bowtie \pi[B,C](R_2)$
- $3. R_1 \bowtie R_1$
- 4. $\pi[A,C](R_1) \bowtie \pi[B,D](R_2)$

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: LAWS

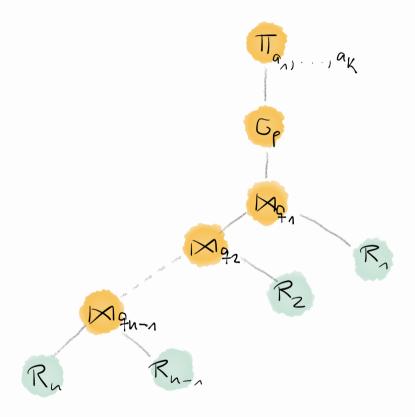
- Much like for the algebra $(N, \{x, +\})$, the operators of RA obey **laws**, i.e. strict equivalences that hold regardless of the state of the input relations.

RA Laws (! Excerpt Only)

- \bowtie (and $\bowtie[p]$) are **associative** and **commutative**: $(R_1 \bowtie R_2) \bowtie R_3 = R_1 \bowtie (R_2 \bowtie R_3)$ and $R_1 \bowtie R_2 = R_2 \bowtie R_1$
- $\sigma[p]$ may be **pushed down** into $\bowtie[q]$, provided that ... <fill in precondition> ...: $\sigma[p](R_1 \bowtie [q] R_2) = R_1 \bowtie [q] \sigma[p](R_2)$
- $\sigma[p]$ and $\sigma[q]$ may be **merged:** $\sigma[p](\sigma[q](R)) = \sigma[p \land q](R)$

- Among these laws, **selection pushdown** is considered essential for query optimization. Why?

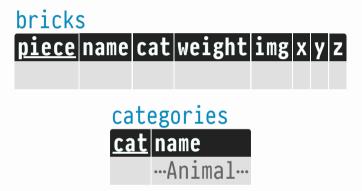
REL. ALGEBRA: A COMMON QUERY PATTERN



- This plan has the SQL equivalent:

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: π-σ-▶ QUERIES

- Quiz: Find piece ID and name of all LEGO bricks that belong to a category related to animals.
 - Relevant relations:



- Algebraic plan:

- Relations are sets of tuples. The usual family of binary set operations applies:

Union (v), Difference (\)

The binary set operations \cup and \setminus compute the **union** and **difference** of two input relations R_1 , R_2 . The schemata of the input relations must match:

$$sch(R_1) = sch(R_2) = sch(R_1 \cup R_2) = sch(R_1 \setminus R_2).$$

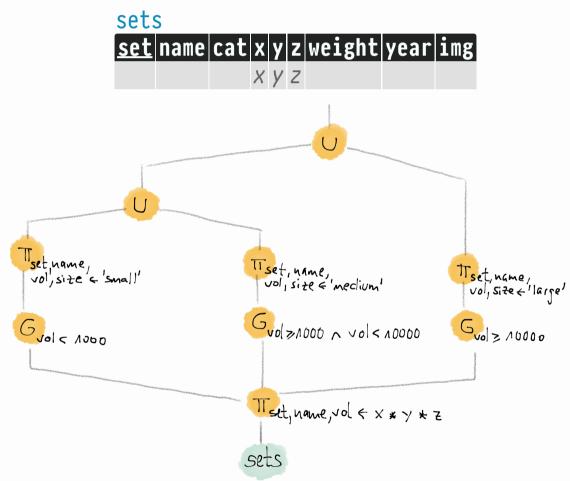
- The two set operations complete the operator core of RA $(\sigma, \pi, \times, \cup, \setminus)$. Any query language that is expressive as this core is **relationally complete**.
- A Set intersection (n) is not considered a core RA operator. There is more than one way to express intersection as an RA macro:

$$R_1 \cap R_2 :=$$

More RA Laws

- \cup is associative and commutative: $(R_1 \cup R_2) \cup R_3 = R_1 \cup (R_2 \cup R_3)$ and $R_1 \cup R_2 = R_2 \cup R_1$
- The empty relation ϕ is the neutral element for \cup : $R \cup \phi = \phi \cup R = R$

- In RA queries, ∪ can straightforwardly express case distinction.
 - Example: Categorize LEGO sets according to their size (volume measured in stud³).



SQL: CASE...WHEN (MULTI-WAY CONDITIONAL)

Conditional Expression (CASE...WHEN)

The SQL expression CASE...WHEN implements case distinction ("multi-way if...else"):

```
CASE WHEN condition<sub>1</sub> THEN expression<sub>1</sub>
[WHEN ...]
[ELSE expression<sub>0</sub>]
END
```

CASE...WHEN evaluates to the first *expression*; whose Boolean *condition*; evaluates to TRUE. If no WHEN clause is satisfied return the value of the fall-back *expression*, if present (otherwise return NULL).

- Expression expression; never evaluated if condition; evaluates to FALSE.
- The types of the expression; must be convertible into a single output type.

SQL: SET OPERATIONS

- The family of set operations is available in SQL as well. Since SQL operates over unordered lists (or: bags) of rows, modifiers control the inclusion/removal of duplicates:

UNION, EXCEPT, INTERSECT

The binary set (bag) operations connect two SQL SFW blocks. Schemata must match (columns at the same position have convertible types). Modifier DISTINCT (i.e. set semantics) is the default:

SFW { UNION | EXCEPT | INTERSECT } [ALL | DISTINCT] SFW

- Bag semantics (ALL) with m, n duplicate rows contributed by the SFW blocks:

- With \circ , \ (and \circ) now being available, we may be even more restrictive with respect to the admissable predicates p in $\sigma[p]$:
 - 1. literals, attribute references, arithmetics, comparisons are OK,
- 2. the Boolean connectives (\land, \lor, \lnot) are not allowed.

$$-\sigma[p \wedge q](R) =$$

$$-\sigma[p \vee q](R) =$$

$$-\sigma[\neg p](R) =$$

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: MONOTONICITY

Monotonic Operators and Queries

An algebraic operator ⊗ is **monotonic** if a growing input relation implies that the output relation grows, too:

$$R \subseteq S \Rightarrow \otimes(R) \subseteq \otimes(S)$$

An RA query is monotonic if it exclusively uses monotonic operators.

Operator (□: Input)	Monotonic?
$\sigma[p](\Box)$	J
$\pi[\ell](\Box)$	J
□ × _, _ × □	J
□ ∪ _, _ ∪ □	J
□ \ _	J
_ \ 🗆	X

def difference(r1, r2):
return [row1 for row1 in r1 if row1 not in r2] # ⚠ If |r2| ↑, |result| may ↓

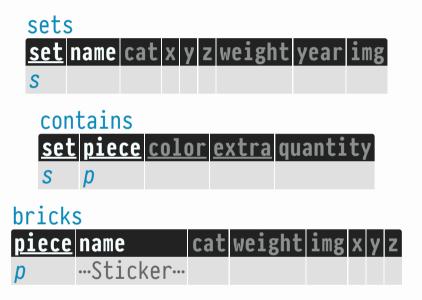
RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: MONOTONICITY

- It follows that we <u>require</u> the difference operator whenever a non-monotonic query is to be answered:
 - "Find those LEGO sets that do not contain LEGO bricks with stickers."
 - "Find those LEGO sets in which all bricks are colored yellow."
 - "Find the LEGO set that is the heaviest."
- More general: Typical **non-monotonic query problems** are those that ...
 - 1. ... check for the **non-existence** of an element in a set S,
 - 2. ... check that a condition holds for all elements in a set S,
 - 3. ... find an element that is minimal/maximal among all other elements in a set S.

⚠ Note that cases 2 and 3 in fact indeed are instances of case 1. How?

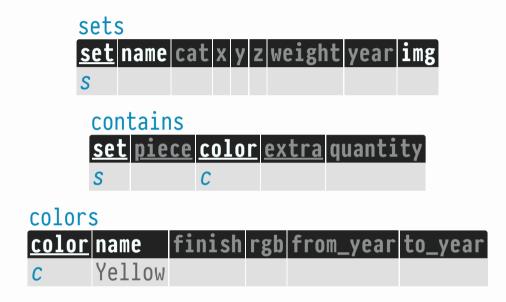
Insertion into S may invalidate tuples that were valid query responses before
 S grew.

"Find those LEGO sets that do not contain LEGO bricks with stickers."



- 1. Identify the LEGO bricks with stickers. (bricks)
- 2. Find the sets that contain these bricks. (contains)
- 3. These are exactly those sets that do *not* interest us. (sets)
- 4. Attach set name and other set information of interest. (sets)

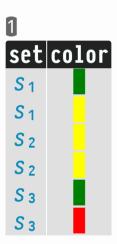
"Find those LEGO sets in which all bricks are colored yellow."

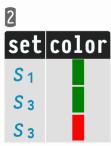


- Query/problem indeed is non-monotonic: Insertion into relation _____ can invalidate a formerly valid result tuple.
- Plan of attack resembles the *no stickers* query (see following slide).

"Find those LEGO sets in which all bricks are colored yellow."

- 1 Lookup the colors of the individual bricks (identify yellow in relation colors).
- ② Select the bricks that are not yellow.

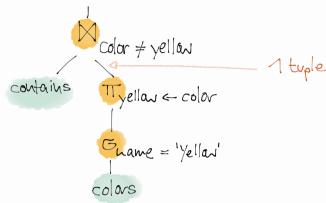




"Find those LEGO sets in which all bricks are colored yellow."

- ③ Identify the sets that contain (at least one) such non-yellow brick.
- Among all sets 4, the sets of 3 are exactly those we are not interested in.
- 5 Thus, return all other sets.

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: SEMIJOIN (×)



Join used as a filter: above ⋈, only attributes of contains are relevant.

(Left) Semijoin The left semijoin $\times [p]$ of input relations R_1 , R_2 returns those tuples of R_1 for which at least one join partner in R_2 exists:

 $R_1 \ltimes [p] R_2 := \pi[sch(R_1)](R_1 \bowtie [p] R_2)$

- $\kappa[p]$ acts like a **filter** on R_1 : $R_1 \kappa[p]$ $R_2 \subseteq R_1$. Can be used to implement the semantics of **existential quantification** (\exists) in RA.

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: ANTIJOIN (>)

(Left) Antijoin

The **left antijoin** $\triangleright[p]$ of input relations R_1 , R_2 returns those tuples of R_1 for which there **does not exist** any join partner in R_2 :

$$R_1 \triangleright [p] R_2 := R_1 \setminus (R_1 \bowtie [p] R_2) = R_1 \setminus \pi[sch(R_1)](R_1 \bowtie [p] R_2)$$

- ⊳[p] can be used to implement the semantics of universal quantification:

$$R_1 \triangleright [p] R_2 = \{x \mid x \in R_1, \neg \exists y \in R_2 : p(x,y)\} = \{x \mid x \in R_1, \forall y \in R_2 : \neg p(x,y)\}$$

- Example: Use self-left-antijoin on S(A) to compute $\max(S)$: $S \triangleright [A < A'] \pi[A' \leftarrow A](S) = \{x | x \in S, \neg \exists y \in \pi[A' \leftarrow A](S) \colon x.A < y.A'\}$ $= \{x | x \in S, \forall y \in \pi[A' \leftarrow A](S) \colon x.A \geqslant y.A'\}$ $= \max[A](S)$

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: DIVISION (÷)

- Certain query scenarios involving quantifiers can be concisely formulated using the derived RA operator **division** (÷):

Division

The **relational division** (\div) of input relation $R_1(A,B)$ by $R_2(B)$ returns those A values a of R_1 such that **for every** B value b in R_2 **there exists** a tuple (a,b) in R_1 . Let $s = sch(R_1) \setminus sch(R_2)$:

$$R_1 \div R_2 := \pi[s](R_1) \setminus \pi[s]((\pi[s](R_1) \times R_2) \setminus R_1)$$

- Notes:
 - Schemata in general: $sch(R_2) \subset sch(R_1)$ and $sch(R_1 \div R_2) = sch(R_1) \setminus sch(R_2)$.
 - Division? Division!

If
$$R_1 \times R_2 = S$$
 then $S \div R_1 = R_2$ and $S \div R_2 = R_1$.

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: DIVISION (÷)

- Example: Divide $R_1(A,B)$ by $R_2(B)$:

R_1	
A	В
1	а
1	С
2	b
2	а
2	С
3	b
3	С
3	а
3	d

R ₂ B	R ₂ B
а	а
С	b
	C

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: OUTER JOIN

Find the bricks of LEGO Set 336 along with possible replacements



- Relation replaces: In set s, piece p_2 is considered a replacement for original piece p_1 .
- Query (1 unexpectedly returns way too few rows...):

```
π[piece,name,piece2]( π[piece,name](bricks)

⋈ π[set,piece](σ[set='336-1'](contains))

⋈ π[piece+piece1,piece2,set](replaces)))
```

RELATIONAL ALGEBRA: OUTER JOIN

(Left) Outer Join

The **(left) outer join** $\bowtie[p]$ of input relations R_1 and R_2 returns all tuples of the join of R_1 , R_2 plus those tuples of R_1 that did not find a join partner (padded with \square). Let $sch(R_2) = \{a_1, ..., a_n\}$:

```
R_1 \bowtie [p] R_2 := (R_1 \bowtie [p] R_2) \cup ((R_1 \bowtie [p] R_2) \times \{(a_1 : \square, ..., a_n : \square)\})
```

- Notes:

- 1. A Cartesian product with a singleton relation can conveniently implement the required padding.
- 2. $\mathbb{M}[p]$ is non-monotonic: insertion into R_1 or R_2 may invalidate a former \square padded result tuple.
- 3. The variants **right** (⋈) and **full outer join** (⋈) are defined in the obvious fashion.

SQL: ALTERNATIVE JOIN SYNTAX

```
Alternative SQL Join Syntax
 In the FROM clause, two from_item may be joined using RA-like syntax
 as follows:
  from_item join_type JOIN from_item
    [ ON condition | USING (column [, ...]) ]
 where join_type is defined as
    { [NATURAL] { [INNER] | { LEFT | RIGHT | FULL } [OUTER] } | CROSS }
 to indicate \bowtie, \bowtie, \bowtie, and \times respectively.
```

- For all join types but CROSS: specify exactly one of NATURAL/ON/USING.
- USING $(a_1,...,a_n)$ abbreviates a conjunctive equality condition over the n columns.

SQL: USING OUTER JOIN

Order all colors by popularity (# bricks available in that color)



- Recall: the ER relationship between colors and bricks was described as follows, i.e., there may be unpopular colors that are not used (anymore):

[brick]—
$$(0,*)$$
—(available in)— $(0,*)$ —[color]

- Formulate query with output columns name, finish, popularity (≡ <bri>count> ≥ 0) ...
 - 1. ... using SQL's alternative join syntax,
 - 2. ... using all SQL constructs but the alternative join syntax.