

# Data Management With R: Relational Data

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## Last weeks Homework

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## Last weeks Homework

```
library(readxl)
library(tidyverse)
iiag <- read_excel("data/iiag.xls", sheet = 5, skip = 5)
```

## Last weeks Homework

```
iiag %>%  
  gather(variable,value,-V1) %>%  
  spread(V1, value) %>%  
  mutate(variable = readr::parse_number(variable)) %>%  
  arrange(variable) %>%  
  select(-variable) %>%  
  fill(Indicator) %>%  
  select(Indicator, Year, everything()) %>%  
  gather(country, value, Algeria:Zimbabwe) %>%  
  arrange(country, Year, Indicator) %>%  
  filter(row_number() == 1518) %>%  
  select(value)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
```

```
##   value
```

## Last weeks Homework

Which of the following is not a symptom of messy data?

- Multiple values are stored in one column

Which of the following is a principle of tidy data?

- Each observation forms a row, each variable forms a column, and each type of observational unit forms a table
- Each value belongs to a variable and an observation
- A dataset is a collection of values

# Final project

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# Final project

Your goal is to apply your data science skills to process a large dataset and analyze it using your own ideas. You can select a dataset from a number of interesting datasets (e.g. the Armed Conflict Location & Event Data) or suggest your own. Specifically, you will have to

1. Prepare your data set for analysis (25%)
  - Load the data and perform the necessary data cleaning and manipulation steps
2. Perform exploratory data analysis and visualize interesting descriptive facts about your data (25%)

3. Develop and specify ideas for analyzing your data and run the appropriate statistical model (25%)
  - e.g. regression analysis, machine learning, etc.
4. Present and discuss your results (25%)
  - Appropriate graphical presentations of results (watch out for the quality of graphs)
  - BONUS: Create an interactive interface to your data (e.g. shiny, plotly, etc.)



# Final project

- You will need to set up your own public GitHub repository for your project
- ~8 page document written in R Markdown (week 10)
- Team-work is encouraged
- Due 15 December

## Prerequisites

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# Packages

```
library(tidyverse)
library(dbplyr) # install.packages("dbplyr")
library(DBI)
library(RSQLite) # install.packages("RSQLite")
library(nycflights13)
library(readr)
```

```
url <- paste0("https://raw.githubusercontent.com/mhaber/",  
             "HertieDataScience/",  
             "master/slides/week7/data/")  
films <- read_csv(paste0(url, "films.csv"))  
people <- read_csv(paste0(url, "people.csv"),  
                  col_types = "iccc")  
reviews <- read_csv(paste0(url, "reviews.csv"))  
roles <- read_csv(paste0(url, "roles.csv"))  
#flights
```

## Relational data

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## Relational data

Data analysis rarely involves only a single table, but many tables of data, and you must combine them to answer the questions that you're interested in. Collectively, multiple tables of data are called **relational data** because it is the relations that are important.

The most common place to find relational data is in a relational database management system (or RDBMS).

What is a database:

*A collection of information organized to afford efficient retrieval.*

*“When people use the word database, fundamentally what they are saying is that the data should be self-describing and it should have a schema.” (Jim Gray)*

Advantages of databases:

1. Sharing

- Support concurrent access by multiple readers and writers

2. Data Model Enforcement

- Make sure all applications see clean, organized data

3. Scale

- Work with datasets too large to fit into memory

4. Flexibility

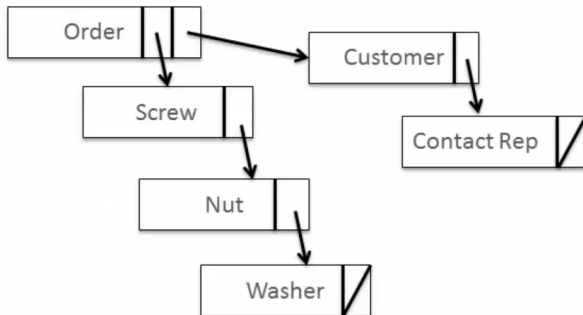
- Use the data in new, unanticipated ways



Evaluate databases:

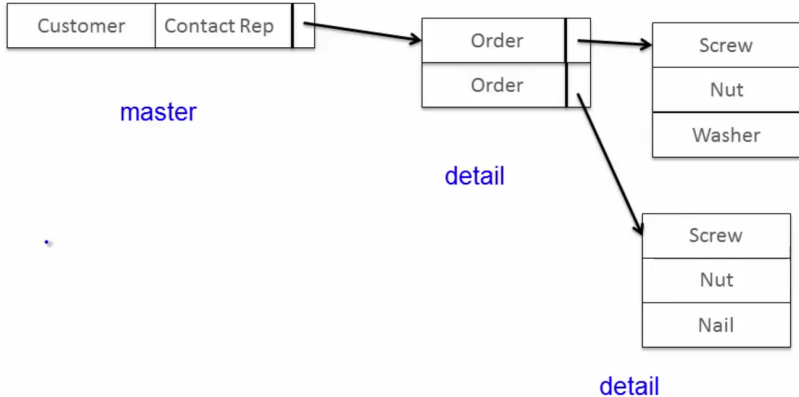
- How are the data physically organized on disk?
- What kinds of queries are efficiently supported, and which are not?
- How hard is it to update the data, or add new data
- What happens when I encounter new queries that I didn't anticipate. Do I reorganize the data?

## Historical example: network databases



- All programs must be rewritten to accommodate reorganizations of the data
- difficult to look up all orders that involve a specific part

# Historical example: hierachical databases



- hierarchical order of data in terms of segments
  - works great if you want to find all orders for a particular customer
  - but what if you want to find all customers who ordered a Nail?

Key idea of relational databases

*“Relational Database Management Systems were invented to let you use one set of data in multiple ways. Including ways that were unforeseen at the time the database is built, and then at the time the first applications are written.”  
(Curt Monash)*

*God made the integers; all else is the work of man. (Leopold Kronecker, 19th century mathematician)*

*Cood made relations; all else is the work of man. (Raghu Ramakrishnan, DB text book author)*

Relational databases (Edgar Codd 1970)

- Everything is a table
- Every row in a table has the same (types of) columns
- Relationships are implicit: no pointers

## Relational databases concept

course	Student_ID
GRAD-E123	223
GRAD-E123	224
GRAD-E456	255
GRAD-E456	244

Student_ID	Student_Name
223	Jane
224	Joe
255	Susan

# Relational databases concept

- Pre relational: if your data changed, your application broke
- Early RDBMS were buggy and slow, but required only 5% of the application code

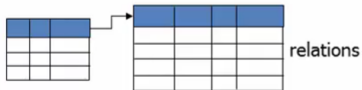
Notion of data independence:

*“Activities of users at terminals and most application programs should remain unaffected when the internal representation of data is changed and even when some aspects of the external representation are changed.” (Ted Cod)*

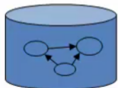


# Physical data independence

Access data through a high-level language (SQL), not physical pointers.



*physical data independence*



files and  
pointers

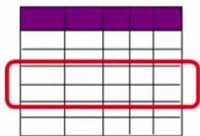
```
SELECT seq
FROM ncbi_sequences
WHERE seq = 'GATTACGATATTA';
```

---

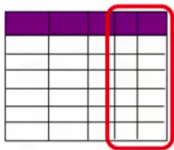
```
f = fopen('table_file');
fseek(10030440);
while (True) {
    fread(&buf, 1, 8192, f);
    if (buf == GATTACGATATTA) {
        . . .
```

# Algebra of tables

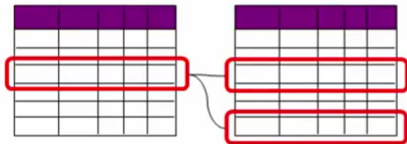
Use operations from relational algebra and set theory.



select



project



join

*Other operators: aggregate, union, difference, cross product*

$$N = ((z * 2) + ((z * 3) + 0))/1$$

# Algebraic optimization

$$N = ((z * 2) + ((z * 3) + 0))/1$$

Algebraic laws:

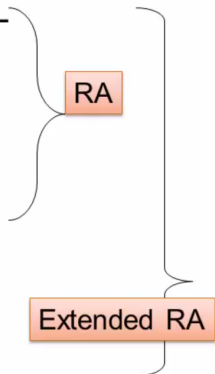
1.  $x + 0 = x$
2.  $x/1 = x$
3.  $(n * x + n * y) = n * (x + y)$
4.  $x * y = y * x$

Apply rules 1,3,4,2:  $N = (2 + 3) * z$

All relational databases do algebraic optimization when you write a query.

# Relational algebra operators

- Union  $\cup$ , intersection  $\cap$ , difference  $-$
- Selection  $\sigma$
- Projection  $\Pi$
- Join  $\bowtie$
- Duplicate elimination  $\rho$
- Grouping and aggregation  $g$
- Sorting  $t$



## Sets vs. bags

Sets:  $\{a,b,c\}$ ,  $\{a,d,e,f\}$ ,  $\{\}$ , ... Bags:  $\{a,a,b,c\}$ ,  $\{b,b,b,b,b\}$ , ...

Relational algebra has two semantics:

- Set semantics = standard relational algebra
- Bag semantics = extended relational algebra

Rule of thumb:

- Every commercial database will assume bag semantics

# Union

$R1 \cup R2$

```
SELECT * FROM R1  
UNION  
SELECT * FROM R2
```

R1

A	B
a1	b1
a2	b1

$\cup$

R2

A	B
a1	b1
a3	b4

=

$R1 \cup R2$

A	B
a1	b1
a2	b1
a3	b4

# Difference

$R1 - R2$

```
SELECT * FROM R1  
EXCEPT  
SELECT * FROM R2
```

R1			R2			R1 - R2	
A	B		A	B		A	B
a1	b1	-	a1	b1	=	a2	b1
a2	b1		a3	b4			



- Derived operator using minus:

$$R1 \cap R2 = R1 - (R1 - R2)$$

- Derived using joins:

$$R1 \cap R2 = R1 \bowtie R2$$

- Returns all tuples which satisfy a condition

$\sigma_c(R)$

- The condition  $c$  can be  $=, <, \leq, >, \geq, <>$
- And you can also use boolean expression (and, or ,not)

# Selection

Employee

SSN	Name	Salary
1234545	John	20000
5423341	Smith	60000
4352342	Fred	50000

$\sigma_{\text{Salary} > 40000}(\text{Employee})$

SSN	Name	Salary
5423341	Smith	60000
4352342	Fred	50000

- Eliminates columns

$$\Pi_{A_1, \dots, A_n}(R)$$

# Projection

Employee

<b>SSN</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Salary</b>
1234545	John	20000
5423341	John	60000
4352342	John	20000

$\Pi_{\text{Name, Salary}}(\text{Employee})$

<b>Name</b>	<b>Salary</b>
John	20000
John	60000
John	20000

<b>Name</b>	<b>Salary</b>
John	20000
John	60000

•

Set semantics

# Cross Product

- Each tuple in  $R1$  with each tuple in  $R2$ :  $R1 \times R2$
- Rare in practice, but can come up in analytics
  - e.g. find all pairs of similar tweets

# Cross Product

## Employee

Name	SSN
John	999999999
Tony	777777777

## Dependent

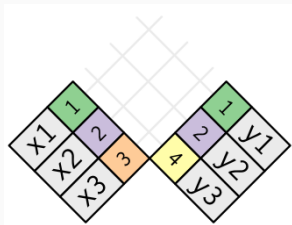
EmpSSN	DepName
999999999	Emily
777777777	Joe

## Employee $\bowtie$ Dependent

Name	SSN	EmpSSN	DepName
John	999999999	999999999	Emily
John	999999999	777777777	Joe
Tony	777777777	999999999	Emily
Tony	777777777	777777777	Joe

# Join

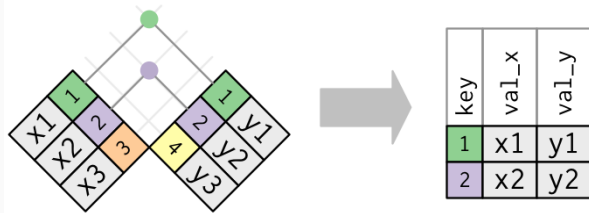
A join is a way of connecting each row in  $x$  to zero, one, or more rows in  $y$ . The following diagram shows each potential match as an intersection of a pair of lines.





## Inner join

The simplest type of join is the **inner join**. An inner join matches pairs of observations whenever their keys are equal. Unmatched rows are not included in the result



# Outer joins

An inner join keeps observations that appear in both tables. An **outer join** keeps observations that appear in at least one of the tables. There are three types of outer joins:

- A **left join** keeps all observations in *x*.
- A **right join** keeps all observations in *y*.
- A **full join** keeps all observations in *x* and *y*.

Left



Right



# SQL

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Structure Query Language is a language for interacting with databases. SQL is over 40 years old, and is used by pretty much every database in existence.

- A query is a request for data from a database table (or combination of tables)
- SQL can be used to query but also to create and modify databases.

# SELECT

In SQL, you can select data from a table using a `SELECT` statement. For example, the following query selects the `name` column `FROM` the `people` table:

```
SELECT name  
FROM people
```

`SELECT` and `FROM` are keywords. They are not case-sensitive but it's good practice to make SQL keywords uppercase to distinguish them from other parts of your query, like column and table names.

# SELECT

To select multiple columns from a table, simply separate the column names with commas!

```
SELECT name, birthdate  
FROM people
```

To select all columns

```
SELECT *  
FROM people
```

You can also LIMIT the number of rows returned:

```
SELECT *  
FROM people  
LIMIT 10
```

## SELECT DISTINCT

You can use the DISTINCT keyword to select all the unique values from a column.

```
SELECT DISTINCT language  
FROM films
```

The COUNT statement returns the number of rows in one or more columns.

```
SELECT COUNT(*)  
FROM people
```

It's common to combine COUNT with DISTINCT to count the number of distinct values in a column.

```
SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT birthdate)  
FROM people
```



## WHERE

The WHERE keyword allows you to filter based on both text and numeric values in a table. The WHERE clause always comes after the FROM statement.

```
SELECT title  
FROM films  
WHERE title = 'Metropolis'
```

You can build up your WHERE queries by combining multiple conditions with the AND keyword.

```
SELECT title  
FROM films  
WHERE release_year > 1994  
AND release_year < 2000
```

The OR operator allows you to select rows based on multiple conditions where some but not all of the conditions need to be met?

```
SELECT title  
FROM films  
WHERE release_year = 1994  
OR release_year = 2000
```

## BETWEEN

The BETWEEN keyword provides a useful shorthand for filtering values within a specified range. BETWEEN is always inclusive can be used with multiple AND and OR operators

```
SELECT title  
FROM films  
WHERE release_year  
BETWEEN 1994 AND 2000
```

## WHERE IN

The IN operator allows you to specify multiple values in a WHERE clause, making it easier and quicker to specify multiple OR conditions.

```
SELECT name  
FROM kids  
WHERE age IN (2, 4, 6, 8, 10)
```

## NULL and IS NULL

NULL represents a missing or unknown value. You can check for NULL values using the expression `IS NULL`.

```
SELECT COUNT(*)  
FROM people  
WHERE birthdate IS NULL
```

You can use the `IS NOT NULL` operator to filter out missing values.

## LIKE and NOT LIKE

The LIKE operator can be used in a WHERE clause to search for a pattern in a column. You use a wildcard as a placeholder for some other values. There are two wildcards you can use with LIKE:

- The % wildcard will match zero, one, or many characters in text:
- The \_ wildcard will match a single character.

For example,

```
SELECT name  
FROM companies  
WHERE name LIKE 'Data%'
```

finds 'Data', 'Datab', 'Database'.

## Aggregate functions

SQL provides a few functions to perform some calculation on the data in a database. Those aggregate functions can also be combined with the WHERE clause

For example,

```
SELECT AVG(budget)
FROM films
```

gives you the average value from the budget column of the films table. Similarly, the MAX function returns the highest budget:

```
SELECT MAX(budget)
FROM films
```



# Aggregate functions

The SUM function returns the result of adding up the numeric values in a column:

```
SELECT SUM(budget)
FROM films
```

## Arithmetics

You can perform basic arithmetic with symbols like +, -, \*, and /.

For example, this gives a result of 12:

```
SELECT (4 * 3)
```

However, the following gives a result of 1,

```
SELECT (4 / 3)
```

SQL assumes that if you divide an integer by an integer, you want to get an integer back. If you want more precision when dividing, you can add decimal places to your numbers.

You use the AS keyword to assign a temporary name to something (i.e. alias).

```
SELECT MAX(budget) AS max_budget,  
       MAX(duration) AS max_duration  
FROM films
```

## ORDER BY

The `ORDER BY` keyword is used to sort results according to the values of one or more columns. By default `ORDER BY` will sort in ascending order. If you want to sort the results in descending order, you can use the `DESC` keyword.

```
SELECT title  
FROM films  
ORDER BY release_year DESC
```

## ORDER BY multiple columns

ORDER BY can also be used to sort on multiple columns. It will sort by the first column specified, then sort by the next, then the next, and so on.

```
SELECT birthdate, name  
FROM people  
ORDER BY birthdate, name
```

## GROUP BY

GROUP BY allows you to group a result by one or more columns. GROUP BY always goes after the FROM clause.

```
SELECT sex, count(*)  
FROM employees  
GROUP BY sex
```

Commonly, GROUP BY is used with aggregate functions like COUNT() or MAX().

In SQL, aggregate functions can't be used in WHERE clauses. If you want to filter based on the result of an aggregate function, you need to use the HAVING clause.

```
SELECT release_year  
FROM films  
GROUP BY release_year  
HAVING COUNT(title) > 10
```

# Joins

dplyr

```
_____ | inner_join(x, y, by = "z") |  
left_join(x, y, by = "z") | right_join(x, y, by = "z")  
| full_join(x, y, by = "z") |
```

```
SQL _____ | SELECT * FROM x  
INNER JOIN y USING (z) | SELECT * FROM x LEFT OUTER  
JOIN y USING (z) | SELECT * FROM x RIGHT OUTER JOIN y  
USING (z) | SELECT * FROM x FULL OUTER JOIN y USING (z)  
|
```



## UNION, INTERSECT, EXCEPT

The UNION operator is used to combine the results of two or more SELECT statements without returning any duplicate rows.

```
SELECT column1  
FROM table1  
UNION  
SELECT column1  
FROM table1
```

The INTERSECT operator is used to combine two SELECT statements but returns rows only from the first SELECT statement that are identical to a row in the second SELECT statement.

The EXCEPT operator is used to combine two SELECT statements and returns rows from the first SELECT statement that are not returned by the second SELECT statement.

## User-defined function support

Most SQL database also allow user-defined functions, routines that perform an action, such as a complex calculation, and return the result of that action as a value.

- PostgreSQL
  - SQL, PL/pSQL, Python, C/C++, R
- Microsoft SQL Server
  - SQL, T-SQL, C#
- Oracle
  - SQL, PL-SQL, Java, C/C++, Python, others
- SQLite
  - None

## SQL in R

---

SQL is not designed to do data analysis. For example, calculate the median arrival delay per carrier.

Using dplyr:

```
flights %>%  
  dplyr::group_by(carrier) %>%  
  dplyr::summarize(delay = median(arr_delay, na.rm = TRUE))
```

PostgreSQL:

```
WITH ordered_flights AS (  
  SELECT arr_delay,  
         row_number() OVER (order by id) AS row_id,  
         (SELECT COUNT(1) from flights) AS ct  
  FROM flights  
)  
  
SELECT AVG(arr_delay) AS median  
FROM ordered_flights  
WHERE row_id BETWEEN ct/2.0 AND ct/2.0 + 1
```

Good idea to store data in SQL and use R to analyze it. `dbplyr`, for example, also works with remote on-disk data stored in databases.

The goal of `dbplyr` is to automatically generate SQL for you so that you're not forced to use it. Most of the time you don't need to know anything about SQL, and you can continue to use the `dplyr` verbs that you're already familiar with

## Connecting to a database

You need to install a specific backend for the database that you want to connect to:

- RMySQL connects to MySQL and MariaDB
- RPostgreSQL connects to Postgres and Redshift
- RSQLite embeds a SQLite database (comes with dbplyr)
- odbc connects to many commercial databases via the open database connectivity protocol
- bigrquery connects to Google's BigQuery

## Connecting to a database file

```
con<-DBI::dbConnect(RSQLite::SQLite(),path = ":memory:")
```



## Connecting to an online database

```
con <- DBI::dbConnect(RMySQL::MySQL(),  
  host = "database.rstudio.com",  
  user = "hadley",  
  password = rstudioapi::askForPassword(  
    "Database password")  
)
```

## Creating a database

```
con<-DBI::dbConnect(RSQLite::SQLite(),path = ":memory:")  
dbWriteTable(con, "flights", nycflights13::flights)  
dbListTables(con)
```

```
## [1] "flights"
```

```
flights_db <- tbl(con, "flights")
```

## Generating queries

You can pass SQL queries with `dbGetQuery()` or `dbExecute()`.

```
results <- DBI::dbGetQuery(con,  
                           "SELECT arr_time AS arrivalTime  
                           FROM flights  
                           WHERE carrier = 'UA'")
```

## Generating queries

Most of the time you don't need to know anything about SQL, and you can continue to use the `dplyr` verbs that you're already familiar with:

```
tailnum_delay_db <- flights_db %>%  
  dplyr::group_by(tailnum) %>%  
  dplyr::summarize(  
    delay = mean(arr_delay),  
    n = n()  
  ) %>%  
  dplyr::arrange(desc(delay)) %>%  
  dplyr::filter(n > 100)
```

Your R code is translated into SQL and executed in the database, not in R. `dplyr` tries to be as lazy as possible:

## Generating queries

You can see the SQL dplyr generating with `show_query()`:

```
tailnum_delay_db %>% show_query()
```

```
## <SQL>
## SELECT *
## FROM (SELECT *
## FROM (SELECT `tailnum`, AVG(`arr_delay`) AS `delay`, COU
## FROM `flights`
## GROUP BY `tailnum`)
## ORDER BY `delay` DESC)
## WHERE (`n` > 100.0)
```

## Pull data from a database

Once you've figured it out what data you need from the database, use `collect()` to pull all the data down into a local tibble.

```
tailnum_delay <- tailnum_delay_db %>% collect()
```

`collect()` requires that database does some work, so it may take a long time to complete.

## Group Exercise

---

## Group exercise

In today's exercise you'll be working with a database containing information on almost 5000 films. Get together in groups of two or three and

1. set up our own (SQLite) database
2. write the four objects `films`, `people`, `review`, `role` as tables into your database and use `dbListTables()` to make sure you did it correctly



3. complete the following tasks using either SQL or dplyr's language:

- Get the title, release year and country for every film
- Get all the different type of film roles
- Count the number of unique languages
- Get the number of films released before 2000
- Get the name and birth date of the person born on November 11th, 1974. Remember to use ISO date format ('1974-11-11')
- Get all information for Spanish language films released after 2000, but before 2010
- Get the names of people who are still alive
- Get the amount grossed by the best performing film between 2000 and 2012

3. complete the following tasks using either SQL or dplyr's language:
  - Get the average duration in hours for all films, aliased as `avg_duration_hours`
  - Get the IMDB score and count of film reviews grouped by IMDB score
  - Get the country, average budget, and average gross take of countries that have made more than 10 films. Order the result by country name, and limit the number of results displayed to 5. You should alias the averages as `avg_budget` and `avg_gross` respectively
  - Disconnect from your database

## Homework Exercises

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## Homework Exercises

For this week's homework exercises go to Moodle and answer the Quiz posted in the Relational Data section.

Deadline: Sunday, October 30 before midnight.

**That's it for today. Questions?**