Unit 3. Relational Database Model

Structure of RDBMS and Terminology, Database Schema and Schema Diagram, Keys: Super, Candidates, Primary, Foreign, Composite etc. and Relationship: Introduction to Relational Algebra, Relational Algebra Operations: Select, Project, Cartesian Product, Union, Set Difference, Natural Join, Outer Join.

Relational Database Management System(RDBMS)

- A relational database management system (RDBMS) is a database management system that is based on a relational model.
- The relational model uses the basic concept of a relation or table.
- RDBMS is the basis for SQL, and for database systems like MS SQL Server, IBM DB2, Oracle, MySQL

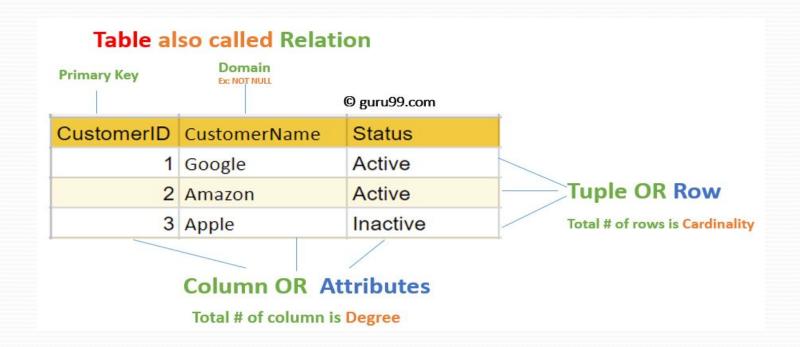
Relational Model (RM)

- Relational Model represents how data is stored in Relational Databases.
- A relational database stores data in the form of relations (tables).
- Consider a relation STUDENT with attributes ROLL_NO, NAME, ADDRESS, PHONE and DOB as shown below.

Student

ROLL_NO	NAME	ADDRESS	PHONE	DOB
1	Ram	Kathmand u	984100000 0	1995
2	Sita	Lalitpur	9851100000	1997

- In the relational model, data are stored as **tables**
- **Tables** In the Relational model the, relations are saved in the table format. It is stored along with its entities. A table has two properties rows and columns. Rows represent records and columns represent attributes.



- Attribute: Each column in a Table. Attributes are the properties which define a relation. ROLL_NO, NAME
- **Relation Schema:** a set of relational tables and associated items that are related to one another.
- Relation Instance: The set of tuples of a relation at a particular instance of time is called as relation instance. Table 1 shows the relation instance of STUDENT at a particular time. It can change whenever there is insertion, deletion or updation in the database.
- **Tuple:** Each row in the relation is known as tuple. The above relation contains 2 tuples

- **Key Integrity:** Every relation in the database should have at least one set of attributes which defines a tuple uniquely. Those set of attributes is called key. e.g.; ROLL_NO in STUDENT is a key. No two students can have same roll number. So a key has two properties:
 - It should be unique for all tuples.
 - It can't have NULL values.
- Referential Integrity: When one attribute of a relation can only take values from other attribute of same relation or any other relation, it is called referential integrity.
- **Degree:** The total number of attributes which in the relation is called the degree of the relation
- Cardinality: Total number of rows present in the Table.

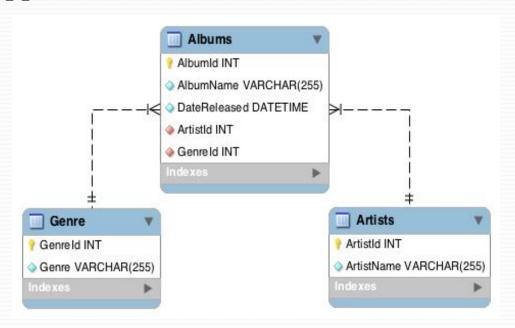
- Column: The column represents the set of values for a specific attribute.
- **Domain** Every attribute has some pre-defined value and scope which is known as domain

Properties of Relations

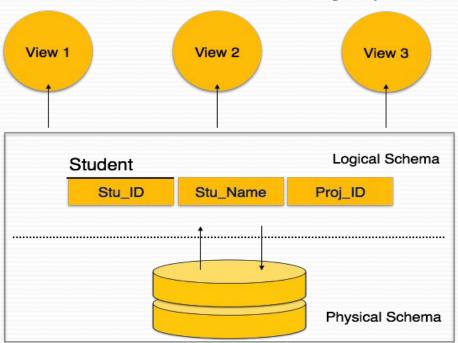
- Values are atomic.
- Column values are of the same kind.
- Each row is unique.
- The sequence of columns is insignificant.
- The sequence of rows is insignificant.
- Each column must have a unique name

Database Schema

- A database schema is the skeleton structure that represents the logical view of the entire database.
- It defines how the data is organized and how the relations among them are associated. It formulates all the constraints that are to be applied on the data.
- Example:



- Physical Database Schema This schema pertains to the actual storage of data and its form of storage like files, indices, etc. It defines how the data will be stored in a secondary storage.
- Logical Database Schema This schema defines all the logical constraints that need to be applied on the data stored. It defines tables, views, and integrity constraints.



Integrity Constraints

- Integrity constraints are a set of rules. It is used to maintain the quality of information.
- Integrity constraints ensure that the data insertion, updating, and other processes have to be performed in such a way that data integrity is not affected.
- Thus, integrity constraint is used to guard against accidental damage to the database.

Types of Integrity Constraint

- Domain Constraints
 - Default constraints
 - Check constraints
 - Not null constraints
- Entity Integrity constraints
- Referential Integrity constraints
- Key constraints

Domain Constraints

- Domain constraints can be defined as the definition of a valid set of values for an attribute.
- The data type of domain includes string, character, integer, time, date, currency, etc. The value of the attribute must be available in the corresponding domain.

ID	NAME	SEMENSTER	AGE
1000	Tom	1 st	17
1001	Johnson	2 nd	24
1002	Leonardo	5 th	21
1003	Kate	3 rd	19
1004	Morgan	8 th	A

Not allowed. Because AGE is an integer attribute

NOT NULL constraint

- By default, a column can hold NULL values. If you do not want a column to have a NULL value, then you need to define such a constraint on this column specifying that NULL is now not allowed for that column.
- A NULL is not the same as no data, rather, it represents unknown data.

DEFAULT constraint

• The DEFAULT constraint provides a default value to a column when the INSERT INTO statement does not provide a specific value.

CHECK Constraint

• The CHECK Constraint enables a condition to check the value being entered into a record. If the condition evaluates to false, the record violates the constraint and isn't entered the table.

Entity Integrity Constraints

- The **Entity integrity** constraint states that primary key value can't be null.
- This is because the primary key value is used to identify individual rows in relation and if the primary key has a null value, then we can't identify those rows.
- A table can contain a null value other than the primary key field.

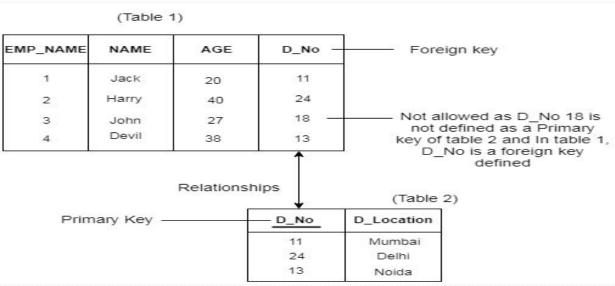
EMPLOYEE

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	SALARY
123	Jack	30000
142	Harry	60000
164	John	20000
N)	Jackson	27000

Not allowed as primary key can't contain a NULL value

Referential Integrity Constraints

- A referential integrity constraint is specified between two tables.
- In the Referential integrity constraints, if a foreign key in Table 1 refers to the Primary Key of Table 2, then every value of the Foreign Key in Table 1 must be null or be available in Table 2.



Key Constraints

• Keys are the entity set that is used to identify an entity within its entity set uniquely.

ID	NAME	SEMENSTER	AGE
1000	Tom	1 st	17
1001	Johnson	2 nd	24
1002	Leonardo	5 th	21
1003	Kate	3rd	19
1002	Morgan	8 th	22

Not allowed. Because all row must be unique

Keys in DBMS

- Key is an attribute or set of attributes which helps you to identify a row(tuple) in a relation(table).
- They allow you to find the relation between two tables.
- Keys help you uniquely identify a row in a table by a combination of one or more columns in that table.
- Key is also helpful for finding unique record or row from the table.

Types of Keys in DBMS

- Candidate Key
- Super Key
- Primary Key
- Alternate Key
- Foreign Key
- Composite Key

Candidate Key

- CANDIDATE KEY is a set of attributes that uniquely identify tuples in a table.
- Candidate Key is a super key with no repeated attributes.
- The Primary key should be selected from the candidate keys.
- Every table must have at least a single candidate key.
- A table can have multiple candidate keys but only a single primary key.



Super Key

- The set of attributes which can uniquely identify a tuple is known as Super Key.
- Adding zero or more attributes to candidate key generates super key.
- A candidate key is a super key but vice versa is not true.

EmpSSN	EmpNum	Empname
9812345098	AB05	Shown
9876512345	AB06	Roslyn
199937890	AB07	James

 In the above-given example, EmpSSN and EmpNum name are superkeys.

Primary Key

- PRIMARY KEY is a column or group of columns in a table that uniquely identify every row in that table.
- The Primary Key can't be a duplicate meaning the same value can't appear more than once in the table.
- A table cannot have more than one primary key.

Rules for defining Primary key:

- Two rows can't have the same primary key value
- It must for every row to have a primary key value.
- The primary key field cannot be null.
- The value in a primary key column can never be modified or updated if any foreign key refers to that primary key.
- In the following example, StudID is a Primary Key.

Primary Key...

• In the following example, StudID is a Primary Key.

studID	Roll No	First Name	LastName	Email
1	11	Tom	Price	abc@gmail.
				<u>com</u>
2	12	Nick	Wright	xyz@gmail.
				<u>com</u>
3	13	Dana	Natan	mno@yahoo
				<u>.com</u>

Alternate Key

- ALTERNATE KEYS is a column or group of columns in a table that uniquely identify every row in that table.
- A table can have multiple choices for a primary key but only one can be set as the primary key.
- All the keys which are not primary key are called an Alternate Key.

Example:

• In this table, StudID, Roll No, Email are qualified to become a primary key. But since StudID is the primary key, **Roll No, Email** becomes the alternative key.

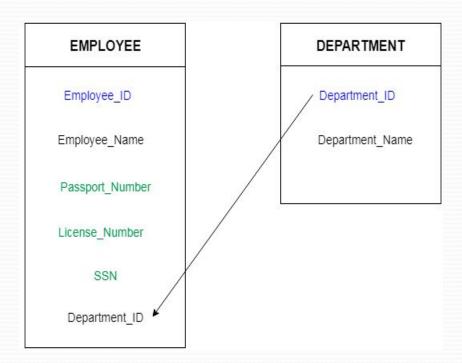
studID	Roll No	First Name	LastName	Email
1	11	Tom	Price	abc@gmail.com
2	12	Nick	Wright	xyz@gmail.com
3	13	Dana	Natan	mno@yahoo.com

Foreign Key

- Foreign keys are the column of the table which is used to point to the primary key of another table.
- The purpose of Foreign keys is to maintain data integrity and allow navigation between two different instances of an entity.
- It acts as a cross-reference between two tables as it references the primary key of another table.

Foreign Key...

- In a company, every employee works in a specific department, and employee and department are two different entities. So we can't store the information of the department in the employee table. That's why we link these two tables through the primary key of one table.
- We add the primary key of the DEPARTMENT table, Department_Id as a new attribute in the EMPLOYEE table.
- Now in the EMPLOYEE table, Department_Id is the foreign key, and both the tables are related.



Composite Key

• Composite key is a combination of two or more columns that uniquely identify rows in a table. The combination of columns guarantees uniqueness, though individually uniqueness is not guaranteed. Hence, they are combined to uniquely identify records in a table.

Suit	Value	No. times played
Hearts	Ace	5
Diamonds	Three	2
Hearts	Jack	3
Clubs	Three	5
Spades	/ Five	1

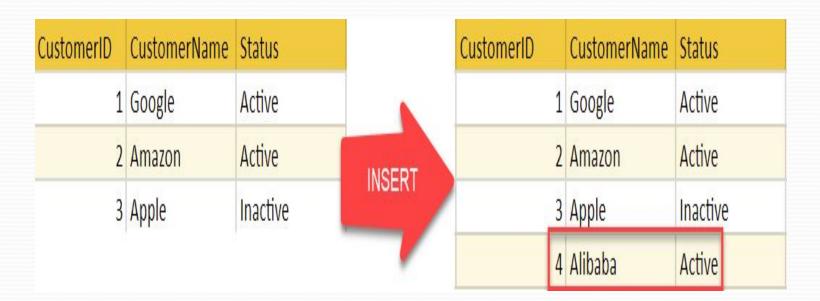
Operations in Relational Model

- Four basic operations performed on relational database model are
- ☐ Insert, update, delete and select
- Insert is used to insert data into the relation
- Delete is used to delete tuples from the table.
- Update allows you to change the values of some attributes in existing tuples.
- Select allows you to choose a specific range of data.

Whenever one of these operations are applied, integrity constraints specified on the relational database schema must never be violated.

Insert Operation

• The insert operation gives values of the attribute for a new tuple which should be inserted into a relation.



Update Operation

- Update allows you to change the values of some attributes in existing tuples.
- You can see that in the below-given relation table CustomerName= 'Apple' is updated from Inactive to Active.

CustomerID	CustomerName	Status		CustomerID	CustomerName	Status
1	Google	Active		1	Google	Active
2	Amazon	Active	UPDATE	2	Amazon	Active
3	Apple	Inactive		3	Apple	Active
4	Alibaba	Active		4	Alibaba	Active

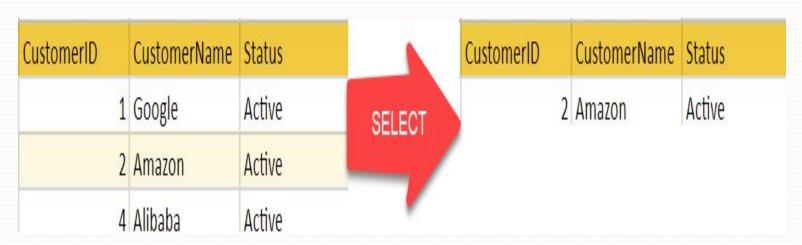
Delete Operation

• Delete is used to delete tuples from the table.

CustomerID	CustomerName	Status		CustomerID	CustomerName	Status
1	Google	Active		1	Google	Active
2	Amazon	Active	DELETE	2	Amazon	Active
3	Apple	Active		4	Alibaba	Active
4	Alibaba	Active				

Select Operation

Select allows you to choose a specific range of data.



Formal and informal term in relational model

Informal term	Formal term
Table	Relation
Column/fields	Attributes
All possible column values	Domain
Row	Tuple
Table definition	Schema of Relation

Best Practices for creating a Relational Model

- Data need to be represented as a collection of relations
- Each relation should be depicted clearly in the table
- Rows should contain data about instances of an entity
- Columns must contain data about attributes of the entity
- Cells of the table should hold a single value
- Each column should be given a unique name
- No two rows can be identical
- The values of an attribute should be from the same domain

Advantages of using Relational model

- Simplicity: A relational data model is simpler than the hierarchical and network model.
- Structural Independence: The relational database is only concerned with data and not with a structure. This can improve the performance of the model.
- Easy to use: The relational model is easy as tables consisting of rows and columns is quite natural and simple to understand
- Query capability: It makes possible for a high-level query language like SQL to avoid complex database navigation.
- **Data independence**: The structure of a database can be changed without having to change any application.
- Scalable: Regarding a number of records, or rows, and the number of fields, a database should be enlarged to enhance its usability.

Disadvantages of using Relational model

- Few relational databases have limits on field lengths which can't be exceeded.
- Relational databases can sometimes become complex as the amount of data grows, and the relations between pieces of data become more complicated.
- Complex relational database systems may lead to isolated databases where the information cannot be shared from one system to another.

Relational Algebra

- Relational Algebra is a procedural query language used to manipulate relational databases. It is a theoretical foundation for relational databases, and its operators define how to extract and manipulate data from a relational database.
- It consists of a set of operations that take one or two relations as input and produce a new relation as their result.
- It uses operators to perform queries. An operator can be either **unary** or **binary**.
- Types of operations in relational algebra
 - 1. Basic Operations
 - 2. Derived Operations

Basic operations:

- Selection (σ) Selects a subset of rows from relation.
- **Projection** (π) Selects a subset of columns from relation.
- *Cross-product* (×) Allows us to combine two relations.
- *Set-difference* (−) Tuples in reln. 1, but not in reln. 2.
- Union (U) Tuples in reln. 1 and in reln. 2.
- *Rename*(ρ) Use new name for the Tables or fields.

Derived operations:

- Intersection (\cap)
- $join(\bowtie)$,
- division(÷)

Notation

The operations have their own symbols.

Operation	Symbol
Union)
Intersection	\cap
Set difference	-

Operation	Symbol
Projection	π
Selection	σ
Cartesian product	×
Join	M
Left outer join	M
Right outer join	×
Full outer join	×

Schema:

branch(<u>b</u> name, assets)

Depositor(cname,acc_no)

Loan(<u>loan_no</u>, b_name,amount)

Borrower(cname,loan_no)

Account (<u>acc no</u>, balance)

Customer (cname,c_street,c_city)

Branch

B_nam e	Assets
New road	1500000
Bhaktapur	1000000
Lagankhel	1200000

Account

Acc_no	Balance
100	10000
101	15000
102	25000

Customer

Depositor

Cname	Acc_no
Geeta	102
Hari	100
Ram	101

Cname	C_Street	C_city
Ram	S1	Ktm
Geeta	S ₅	ktm
Hari	S2	Lalitpur
Rita	S ₃	Bhaktapur
John	S1	Bhaktapur

Loan

Loan_no	B_name	Amount
L100	Bhaktapu r	100000
L101	Lalitpur	200000
L102	Bhaktapu r	50000

Borrower

Cname	Loan_no
Hari	L102
Rita	L100
John	L101

Select Operation(σ)

- The select operation selects tuples that satisfy a given predicate.
- It is denoted by sigma (σ) .
- Notation: $\sigma p(r)$
- Where:
- σ is used for selection prediction
 r is used for relation
 p is used as a propositional logic formula which may use connectors like: AND OR and NOT. These relational can use as relational operators like =, ≠, ≥, <, >, ≤.

1. Find the customers who live in bhaktapur.

RA expression:

John

Output:

Customer Cname C Street C city Rita S3 Bhaktapur

S1

Customer

Cname	C_Street	C_city
Ram	S1	Ktm
Geeta	S5	ktm
Hari	S2	Lalitpur
Rita	S3	Bhaktapur
John	S1	Bhaktapur

2. Find the customers who live in S5 street in Ktm.

Bhaktapur

Output:

Customer	-	
Cname	C_Street	C_city
Geeta	S5	ktm

- Find the loans that have amount greater than 50000.
 - σ amount>50000(Loan)

Output:

Loan	,	
Loan no	B name	Amount
L100	Bhaktapur	100000
L101	Lalitpur	200000

Loan		
Loan no	B name	Amount
L100	Bhaktapur	100000
L101	Lalitpur	200000
L102	Bhaktapur	50000

• Find the loans that have either loan less than 100000 or loan issued from lalitpur branch.

RA expression:

Output:

σ amount<100000 OR B_name="lalitpur" (Loan)

Loan		
Loan no	B name	Amount
L101	Lalitpur	200000
L102	Bhaktapur	50000

Project Operation([])

- This operation shows the list of those attributes that we wish to appear in the result. Rest of the attributes are eliminated from the table.
- It is denoted by \prod .
- Notation: $\prod A1, A2, \dots An (r)$
- Where
- A1, A2, A3 is used as an attribute name of relation r.
- Degree
 - Number of attributes in <attribute list>
- Duplicate elimination
 - Result of PROJECT operation is a set of distinct tuples

1. Find the customer name who have account at a bank.

□ cname(Depositor)

Cname
Geeta
Hari
Ram

Depositor

Cname	e Acc_no
Geeta	102
<u>Hari</u>	100
Ram	101

2. Find the customer name who have loan at bank.

 \prod cname(Borrower)

Borrower
Cname
Hari
Rita

3. Find the customer name and they where they live.

☐ cname, c_city(Customer)

Customer

Customer	
Cname	C_city
Ram	Ktm
Geeta	ktm
<u>Hari</u>	Lalitpur
Rita	Bhaktapur
John	Bhaktapur

Borrower

Cname	Loan no
<u>Hari</u>	L102
Rita	L100
John	L101

Customer

Cname	C_Street	C_city
Ram	S1	Ktm
Geeta	S5	ktm
<u>Hari</u>	S2	Lalitpur
Rita	S3	Bhaktapur
John	S1	Bhaktapur

Project Operation with Selection

• Find the customer name who live in ktm city.

 π cname(σ c_city="ktm"(customer))

Output:



Custo	tomer		
Cn	ame	C_Street	C_city
F	lam	S1	Ktm
G	eeta	S5	<u>ktm</u>
Ĩ	lari	S2	Lalitpur
F	Rita	S3	Bhaktapur
Je	ohn	S1	Bhaktapur

Find the customer name and customer street who live in S1 street.

 π cname, c_street(σ c_street="S1"(customer))

Output:

Customer	
Cname	C_Street
Ram	S1
John	S1

Project Operation with Selection

 Find the customer name and customer street who live in S1 street or who live in lalitpur

π cname, c_street(σ c_street="S1" OR
c_city="lalitpur"(customer))

Output:

Cname	C_Street
Ram	S1
<u>Hari</u>	S2
John	S1

Customer

Customer C Street C city Cname S1 Ram Ktm **S5** Geeta ktm Hari S2 Lalitpur Bhaktapur Rita S3 John Bhaktapur S1

• Find the customer name and customer street who live in S1 street and who live in lalitpur.

π cname, c_street(σ c_street="S1" AND c_city="lalitpur"(customer))

Output:



Find the branch name whose assets is greater than or equals to 1200000.

```
\pi b_name(\sigma assets >= 1200000(Branch))
```

- Find the account no whose balance is between 12000 to 25000.
- π acc_no(σ balance >= 12000 AND balance <= 25000(Account))
- Find the loan details of loan whose loan amount is between 10000 to 100000
- σ amount>=10000 AND amount<=100000(loan)
- Find the loan_no and amount whose loan is maintained at bhaktapur branch.
- π loan_no, amount(σ branch = "bhaktapur"(Loan))

Union Operation

- Suppose there are two tuples R and S. The union operation contains all the tuples that are either in R or S or both in R & S.
- ullet It eliminates the duplicate tuples. It is denoted by \cup .

Notation: $R \cup S$

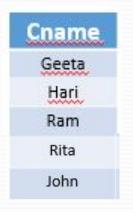
- A union operation must hold the following condition:
 - -R and S must have the attribute of the same number.
 - -Duplicate tuples are eliminated automatically.
 - Data type of attributes must be same

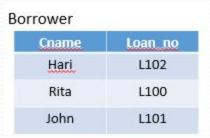
Example:

Find the customers name who have bank transactions.

 π c_name(depositor) U π c_name(borrower)

Output:





Depositor	
Cname	Acc no
Geeta	102
Hari	100
Ram	101

Intersection Operation

- Suppose there are two tuples R and S. The set intersection operation contains all tuples that are in both R & S.
- It is denoted by intersection \cap .

Notation: $R \cap S$

Example:

Find the customers name who have both account and loan at bank.

 π c_name(depositor) \cap π c_name(borrower)

Output:



Cname	Loan no
Hari	L102
Rita	L100
John	L101

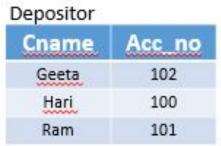
Depositor	
Cname	Acc_no
Geeta	102
Hari	100
Ram	101

Set Difference

- Suppose there are two tuples R and S. The set intersection operation contains all tuples that are in R but not in S.
- It is denoted by intersection minus (-).

Notation: R - S

Example



Find the Customers who have account but not loan at the bank.

 π c_name(depositor) - π c_name(borrower)

Output:



orrower	
Cname	Loan no
Hari	L102
Rita	L100
John	L101

Cartesian product

• The Cartesian product is used to combine each row in one table with each row in the other table. It is also known as a cross product.

It is denoted by X.

Notation: R X S

Example:

Depositor X Borrower

Cname	Acc no	Cname	Loan No
Geeta	102	Hari	L102
Geeta	102	Rita	L100
Geeta	102	John	L101
Hari	100	Hari	L102
Hari	100	Rita	L100
<u>Hari</u>	100	John	L101
Ram	101	Hari	L102
Ram	101	Rita	L100
Ram	101	John	L101

orrower	
Cname	Loan no
Hari	L102
Rita	L100
John	L101

Depositor	
Cname	Acc_no
Geeta	102
Hari	100
Ram	101

Find the Customers who have both account and loan at the bank.

π depositor.cname (σDepositor.cname=Borrower.cname(Depositor X Borrower))

Cname	Acc no	Cname	Loan No
Geeta	102	Hari	L102
Geeta	102	Rita	L100
Geeta	102	John	L101
Hari	100	Hari	L102
Hari	100	Rita	L100
Hari	100	John	L101
Ram	101	Hari	L102
Ram	101	Rita	L100
Ram	101	John	L101

Cname	Loan no
Hari	L102
Rita	L100
John	L101

Acc no

102

100

101

Cname

Geeta

Hari

Ram

Output:

Cname Hari

Rename Operation (ρ)

- The results of relational algebra are also relations but without any name. The rename operation allows us to rename the output relation. 'rename' operation is denoted with small Greek letter **rho** ρ .
- Notation $-\rho_{x}(E)$
- \bullet Where the result of expression **E** is saved with name of **x**.
 - 1. Renaming relation:

$$\rho_{\rm cust1}$$
 (Customer)

2. Renaming Attributes:

$$\rho_{\text{cname,Cust_street,cust_city}}$$
 (Customer)

Customer		
Cname	C Street	C city
Ram	S1	Ktm
Geeta	S5	ktm
Hari	S2	Lalitpur
Rita	S3	Bhaktapur
John	S1	Bhaktapur

Assignment Operation (\leftarrow)

• The assignment operation assign the right side result to the left side relation. The evaluation of an assignment does not result in any relation being displayed to the user. The result of the expression to the right of the ← is assigned to the relation variable on the left of the ←.

Notation: Temp ← Result

Example:

• Find the customer name and their loan am

Loan		
Loan_no	B_name	Amount
L100	Bhaktapur	100000
L101	Lalitpur	200000
L102	Bhaktapur	50000

 $R_1 \leftarrow \sigma$ borrower.Loan_no=loan.Loan_no(Loan X Borrower)

 π Cname, Amount (R1)

Borrower	
Cname	Loan no
Hari	L102
Rita	L100
John	L101

Division Operator(÷):

- The division operator takes two relation and builds another relation consisting of values of an attribute of one relation that match all the values in the other relation.
- The divide operation is the opposite of the product operation. It is suited to queries that include the phrase "for all".

Example:

A÷B1

A÷B2

A÷B3

a				
	n	T	ገ	
_	4		J	

 S_1

 S_2

S₃

S4

Sno	
S ₁	

S1

S4

Sno

Sı

Relation A

Sno	Pno
S1	P ₁
S ₁	P ₂
S ₁	P ₃
S ₁	P4
S ₂	P ₁
S2	P ₂
S ₃	P ₂
S ₄	P ₂
S ₄	P ₄

Relation B₁

Pno

P2

Relation

B₂

Pno

P₂

P₄

Relation B₃

Pno

P₁

P2

P3

Join Operation (⋈):

- We understand the benefits of taking a Cartesian product of two relations, which gives us all the possible tuples that are paired together. But it might not be feasible for us in certain cases to take a Cartesian product where we encounter huge relations with thousands of tuples having a considerable large number of attributes.
- **Join** is a combination of a Cartesian product followed by a selection process. A Join operation pairs two tuples from different relations, if and only if a given join condition is satisfied.

Notation: $R1 \bowtie R2$

Types:

- Theta(θ) Join
- Inner Join
- Natural Join
- Outer Join

Theta(θ) Join:

- Theta join combines tuples from different relations provided they satisfy the theta condition. The join condition is denoted by the symbol θ .
- Notation: $R1 \bowtie \theta R2$
- R1 and R2 are relations having attributes (A1, A2, ..., An) and (B1, B2,...,Bn) such that the attributes don't have anything in common, that is R1 \cap R2 = Φ .

Example:

Depositor \(\times \) depositor.cname=Customer.cname Customer

Depositor	
Cname	Acc no
Geeta	102
Hari	100
Ram	101

Cname	Acc no	Cname	C Street	C city
Geeta	102	Geeta	\$5	ktm
Hari	100	Hari	S2	Lalitpur
Ram	101	Ram	S1	Ktm

Customer				
Cname	C Street	C city		
Ram	S1	Ktm		
Geeta	\$5	ktm		
Hari	S2	Lalitour		
Rita	\$3	Bhaktapur		
John	S1	Bhaktapur		

• Find the customers name, accno and city who live in Ktm.

π borrower.cname, acc_no,c_city (σ customer.ccity="ktm" (Depositor depositor.cname=Customer.cname Customer))

Cname	Acc no	C city
Geeta	102	ktm
Ram	101	Ktm

• Inner Join or Equijoin: When Theta join uses only equality comparison operator, it is said to be equijoin. The above example corresponds to equijoin.

$$R1 \bowtie_{R1.B > R2.D} R2$$

A	В	C	D
A1	500	C1	300
A2	800	C1	300

R1	
A	В
A1	500
A2	800
A3	200

R2	
С	D
C1	300
C2	900
C3	1500

Theta Join

$$R1 \bowtie_{R1.B > R2.D} R2$$

R1	IW.
A	В
A1	500
A2	800
A3	200

C	D
C1	300
C2	900
C3	1500

А	В	C	D
A1	500	C1	300
A2	800	C1	300

Natural Join (⋈):

- Natural join does not use any comparison operator. It does not concatenate the way a Cartesian product does. We can perform a Natural Join only if there is at least one common attribute that exists between two relations. In addition, the attributes must have the same name and domain.
- Natural join acts on those matching attributes where the values of attributes in both the relations are same.

Example: Depositor ⋈ Borrower

Cname	Acc no	Loan no
Hari	100	L102

Depositor		
Cname	Acc_no	
Geeta	102	
<u>Hari</u>	100	

101

Borrower

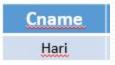
Cname	Loan_no
<u>Hari</u>	L102
Rita	L100
John	L101

Ram

Denositor

• Find the customers name who have both loan and account at the bank.

Π cname(Depositor ⋈ Borrower)



Outer Joins:

• Theta Join, Equijoin, and Natural Join are called inner joins. An inner join includes only those tuples with matching attributes and the rest are discarded in the resulting relation. Therefore, we need to use outer joins to include all the tuples from the participating relations in the resulting relation. There are three kinds of outer joins – left outer join, right outer join, and full outer join.

Left outer join:

- Left outer join contains the set of tuples of all combinations in R and S that are equal on their common attribute names.
- In the left outer join, tuples in R have no matching tuples in S.
- It is denoted by ⋈.

Example:

EMPLOYEE ⋈ FACT_WORKERS

EMP_NAME	STREET	CITY	BRANCH	SALARY
Ram	Civil line	Mumbai	Infosys	10000
Shyam	Park street	Kolkata	Wipro	20000
Hari	Nehru street	Hyderabad	TCS	50000
Ravi	M.G. Street	Delhi	NULL	NULL

EMPLOYEE

EMP_NAME	STREET	CITY
Ram	Civil line	Mumbai
Shyam	Park street	Kolkata
Ravi	M.G. Street	Delhi
lari	Nehru nagar	Hyderabad

FACT_WORKERS

EMP_NAME	BRANCH	SALARY
Ram	Infosys	10000
Shyam	Wipro	20000
Kuber	HCL	30000
Hari	TCS	50000

Right outer join:

Right outer join contains the set of tuples of all combinations in R and S that are equal on their common attribute names.

EMPLOYEE

Ram

EMP NAME

STREET

Civil line

CITY

Mumbai

In right outer join, tuples in S have no matching tuples in R.

■ It is denoted by M.

EMPLOYEE ⋈ FACT WORKERS

					Shyam	Park street	Kolkata				
EMP NAME	BRANCH	SALARY	STREET	CITY	Ravi	M.G. Street	Delhi				
EMP_NAME	BRANCH	SALAKI	SIKEEI	CITT	Hari	Nehru nagar	Hyderabad				
Ram	Infosys	10000	Civil line	Mumbai	ſ_WORKERS	<u>'</u>	'				
Shyam	Wipro	20000	Park street	Kolkata							
Hari	TCS	50000 Nehru Hydera	Hyderabad	IP_NAME	BRANCH	SALARY					
			street	street	street	street	street		n	Infosys	10000
Kuber	HCL	30000	NULL	NULL	ram	Wipro	20000				
					Kuber	HCL	30000				
					Hari	TCS	50000				

Full outer join:

Full outer join is like a left or right join except that it contains all rows from both tables.

In full outer join, tuples in R that have no matching tuples in S and tuples in S that have no matching tuples in S that have no matching tuples in S and attribute name.

Ram

Shyam

Ravi

Civil line

Park street

M.G. Street

Mumbai

Kolkata

Delhi

It is denoted by ➤.

EMPLOYEE ➤ FACT WORKERS

EMP_NAME	STREET	CITY	BRANCH	SALARY	ari	Nehru nagar	Hyderabad
Ram	Civil line	Mumbai	Infosys	10000	WORKERS		
Shyam	Park street	Kolkata	Wipro	20000	P_NAME	BRANCH	SALARY
Hari	Nehru street	Hyderabad	TCS	50000		Infosys	10000
Ravi	M.G. Street	Delhi	NULL	NULL	m	Wipro	20000
Kuber	NULL	NULL	HCL	30000	r	HCL	30000
				На	ari	TCS	50000

Extended Operations

- Relational algebra operations have been extended in various ways
 - More generalized
 - More useful
- Three major extensions:
 - Generalized projection
 - Aggregate functions
 - Additional join operations (Discussed in the previous lectures)
- All of these appear in SQL standards

Generalized Projection Operation

- Would like to include computed results into relations
 e.g. "Retrieve all credit accounts, computing the current
 'available credit' for each account."
- □ Available credit = credit limit current balance

Project operation is generalized to include computed results

- Can specify functions on attributes, as well as attributes themselves
- Can also assign names to computed values
- (Renaming Attributes is also allowed even though this is also provided by the Written as: $\Pi_{F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n}(E)$

rename operat

- $\square F_i$ are arithmetic expressions
- E is an expression that produces a relation
- Can also name values: F; as name

Generalized Projection Example

• "Compute available credit for every credit account."

 π cred_id, (limit – balance) as available_credit(credit_acct)

cred_id	limit	balance
C-273	2500	150
C-291	750	600
C-304	15000	3500
C-313	300	25



cred_id	available_credit
C-273	2350
C-291	150
C-304	11500
C-313	275

Aggregate Functions

- •Very useful to apply a function to a collection of values to generate a single result
- Most common aggregate functions:

sum	sums the values in the collection
avg	computes average of values in the collection
count	counts number of elements in the collection
min	returns minimum value in the collection
max	returns maximum value in the collection

•Aggregate functions work on <u>multisets</u>, not sets

A value can appear in the input multiple times

Aggregate Function Examples

"Find the total amount owed to the credit company."

$$G_{sum(balance)}(credit_acct)$$

4275

cred_id	limit	balance
C-273	2500	150
C-291	750	600
C-304	15000	3500
C-313	300	25

credit_acct

"Find the maximum available credit of any account."

$$G$$
 (Π (credit_acct))

max(available_credit) (limit - balance) as available_credit

11500

Grouping and Aggregation

- Sometimes need to compute aggregates on a per-item basis
- Back to the puzzle database: puzzle_list(puzzle_name) completed(person_name, puzzle_name)

puzzle_name altekruse soma cube puzzle box puzzle list

Examples:

- How many puzzles has each person completed?
- How many people have completed each puzzle?

person_name	puzzle_name
Alex	altekruse
Alex	soma cube
Bob	puzzle box
Carl	altekruse
Bob	soma cube
Carl	puzzle box
Alex	puzzle box
Carl	soma cube

completed

puzzle_name
altekruse
soma cube
puzzle box
puzzle_list

"How many puzzles has each person completed?"

person_name	puzzle_name
Alex	altekruse
Alex	soma cube
Bob	puzzle box
Carl	altekruse
Bob	soma cube
Carl	puzzle box
Alex	puzzle box
Carl	soma cube

completed

 $g_{\text{count}(puzzle_name)}(\text{completed})$

- First, input relation completed is grouped by unique values of person name
- Then, count(puzzle_name) is applied separately to each group

$g_{\text{count}(puzzle_name)}(\text{completed})$

Input relation is grouped by person_name

puzzle_name person name Alex altekruse soma cube Alex Alex puzzle box Bob puzzle box soma cube Bob Carl altekruse Carl puzzle box Carl soma cube

Aggregate function is applied to each group



person_name	
Alex	3
Bob	2
Carl	3

Distinct Values

"How many puzzles has each person completed?"

Each puzzle appears multiple times now.

person_name	puzzle_name	seconds
Alex	altekruse	350
Alex	soma cube	45
Bob	puzzle box	240
Carl	altekruse	285
Bob	puzzle box	215
Alex	altekruse	290

completed times

Need to count <u>distinct</u> occurrences of each puzzle's name

 $_{person_name}G_{count-distinct(puzzle_name)}$ (completed_times)