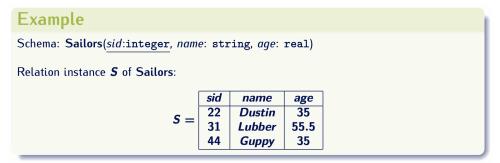
# Databases

### Relational algebra:

Operational – step-by-step computation of the result. Very useful for representing query execution plans.

### Schema & syntax:



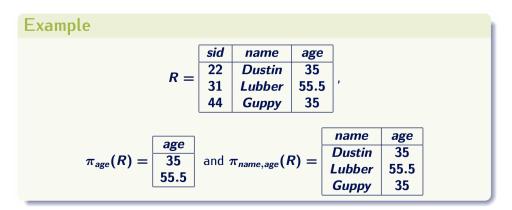
### **Selection** $\sigma_c(R)$ :

Returns tuples (rows) of relation instance that satisfy the selection condition, i.e., c(a1, ..., an).

$$R = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline sid & name & age \\ \hline 22 & Dustin & 35 \\ 31 & Lubber & 55.5 \\ 44 & Guppy & 35 \\ \hline \\ \sigma_{age<50\lor name='Lubber'}(R) = R \text{ , Here } \land =: 'and', \lor =: 'or'. \\ \hline \\ \end{array}$$

# **Projection** $\pi_{a_1,\dots,a_n}(R)$ :

Deletes fields (columns) that are not in projection list and then removes duplicate tuples.



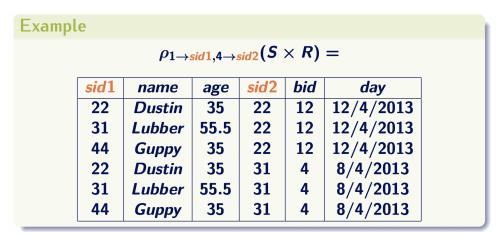
### **Cross-product** $R \times S$ :

Allows us to combine two relations, we cross every row R with every row of S. We get  $R_{\text{rows}} \cdot S_{\text{rows}}$ 

Example	e								
<i>S</i> =	sid 22 31 44	Dus	name Dustin Lubber Guppy		,R =	sid 22 31	bid 12 4	day 12/4/2013 8/4/2013	
S × F	? =	(sid) 22 31 44 22 31 44	name Dustin Lubber Guppy Dustin Lubber Guppy		age 35 55.5 35 35 55.5 35 55.5	(sid) 22 22 22 31 31 31	bid 12 12 12 4 4 4	day 12/4/2013 12/4/2013 12/4/2013 8/4/2013 8/4/2013 8/4/2013	

# Renaming $\rho_{i_1 \to a'_{i_1}, \dots, i_k \to a'_{i_k}}$ :

Renames fields using positional notation



# **Difference** $R_1 \setminus R_2$ :

The difference between  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ .

$$S_1 = \begin{bmatrix} sid & name & age \\ 22 & Dustin & 35 \\ 31 & Lubber & 55.5 \\ 44 & Guppy & 35 \end{bmatrix}, S_2 = \begin{bmatrix} sid & name & age \\ 22 & Dustin & 35 \\ 31 & Lubber & 55.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S_1 \setminus S_2 = \begin{bmatrix} sid & name & age \\ 44 & Guppy & 35 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Union $R_1 \cup R_2$ :

Returns a combination of  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ 

### **Intersection** $R_1 \cap R_2$ :

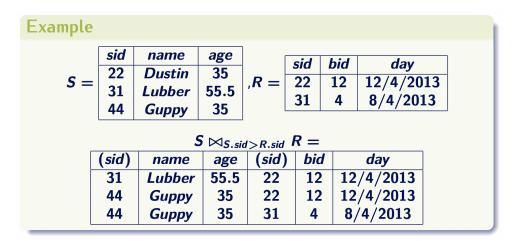
Intersection between 2 relations, meaning the rows both in  ${\cal R}_1$  and  ${\cal R}_2$ 

$$=R_1\setminus (R_1\setminus R_2)$$

# Theta-Join $R \bowtie_{c(a_1,\dots,a_n)} S$

Computes all combinations of tuples from R and S that satisfy condition  $c(a_1,...,a_n)$ . In other words:

$$R \bigotimes\nolimits_{c(a_1,\dots,a_n)} S = \sigma_{c(a_1,\dots,a_n)}(R \times S)$$



# **Equi-Join** $R \bowtie_{a_1,\dots,a_k} S$ :

Computes all combinations of tuples from R and S that satisfy condition

 $R.\,a_1=S.\,a_1,...,R.\,a_k=S.\,a_k$  and deletes duplicate columns (the first occurrence is kept):

$$R \bigotimes\nolimits_{a_1,\dots,a_k} S = \sigma_{R.a_1 = S.a_1,\dots,R.a_k = S.a_k} (R \times S)$$

#### Natural Join $R \bowtie S$ :

Computes equi-join on all common attributes of R and S. Columns with same name of associate relations will appear once only once (first occurrence in the positional notation).

#### Example sid name age bid sid day 22 Dustin 35 *s* = 12/4/2013 ,**R** = 22 12 **31** Lubber **55.5** 8/4/2013 **31** 4 44 Guppy **35** sid name bid day age 12/4/2013 $S\bowtie_{sid} R =$ 22 Dustin 35 12 8/4/2013 **31** Lubber **55.5** sid name age bid day 12/4/2013 22 12 $S \bowtie R =$ Dustin 35 8/4/2013 31 Lubber **55.5** 4

#### **Division** R / S:

Find tuples in X that are related to all tuples in Y.

For all relations S and R it holds  $(S \times R) / R = S$ .

Example (Find the students, who have completed all tests)												
$S = Completed/\pi_{tname}(\mathit{Tests}), \; for$												
Completed	name	sid	tname	_								
	Pat	123	DBA1									
	Liv	789	DBA1	Test	s <u>tn</u>	ame	date*					
	Liv	789	DBA2	-	D	BA1	31/03/2023					
	Pat	123	DBA2		D	BA2	12/05/2023					
	Ben	567	Exam		E	xam	15/06/2023					
	Pat	123	Exam									
	Liv	789	Exam									
Result is:												
illiagule we are at the end of Julie 2025												

#### **Schema Refinement and Normal Forms**

Example: Schema with redundancy; Decomposition

The single-table schema Client(cid, name, postcode, city, province) has redundancy; dependences (postcode—city, city—province); 

We decompose this schema to Client(cid, name, postcode), 
Place(postcode, city), Cities(city, province).

### Functional dependence's:

Given 2 tuples in r, if the value X agrees, then Y must also agree. For example the **rating** of an employee that **determines** the **hourly wage**. You write this as:

$$R \to W$$

Where R is the **rating** and W is the **wage**.

This dependency **brings some problems** with it:

- What if we want to update the wage for everyone
- What happens when we insert an employee and don't know the wages for his rating
- If we delete all employees with rating 5, we loose all information for rating 5

To solve this we can use decomposition. **We put the wages and ratings in another table**. You can often refine a table to remove redundancy. For example:

Employees work in an department. All employees have a attribute named parking. Parking is shared between departments. It is better to move parking attribute to the departments.

#### **Armstrong's Axioms:**

#### Reflexivity (Axiom of reflexivity):

If you have a set of attributes A, then  $A \to A$ .

Example: Suppose we have a table called "Employees" with attributes (columns) such as EmployeeID, Name, and Department. If we know that EmployeeID determines EmployeeID (which is always true since it is the primary key), we can say that EmployeeID  $\rightarrow$  EmployeeID is a functional dependency.

#### Augmentation (Axiom of augmentation):

If  $A \to B$ , then  $AC \to BC$  for any attribute C.

Example: Continuing with the "Employees" table, if we know that **EmployeeID determines Name**, we can use the axiom of augmentation to infer that **EmployeeID also determines both Name** and **Department**. So, we can say that EmployeeID  $\rightarrow$  Name and EmployeeID  $\rightarrow$  Department are functional dependencies.

#### Transitivity (Axiom of transitivity):

If 
$$A \to B$$
 and  $B \to C$ , then  $A \to C$ .

Example: Consider a table called "Courses" with attributes CourseID, Instructor, and Department. If we know that CourseID determines Instructor (each course is taught by a specific instructor), and Instructor determines Department (an instructor belongs to a specific department), we can apply the axiom of transitivity to conclude that CourseID determines Department. Therefore, we have CourseID  $\rightarrow$  Department as a functional dependency.

#### Union:

If 
$$X \to Y$$
 and  $X \to Z$ , then  $X \to YZ$ 

#### **Decomposition:**

If 
$$X \to YZ$$
, then  $X \to Y$  and  $X \to Z$ 

#### Key and superkey

A superkey is a **set of attributes that uniquely identifies a record** in a table, while a minimal key is a **superkey that contains the smallest possible number of attributes** needed to uniquely identify a record.

#### Right-hand side rule:

The following functional dependencies (FDs) exist:

- OrderID → CustomerID, ProductID, OrderDate
- CustomerID  $\rightarrow$  OrderDate

The right-hand side rule states that if an attribute never appears on the right-hand side of any FD in a table, then that attribute must be present in every key of the table.

In other words, in order to uniquely identify a record in the "Orders" table, we must include the attribute "OrderID" in every key. For instance, a key could be composed of {OrderID, CustomerID} or {OrderID, ProductID}, among other possibilities.

#### Left-hand side rule:

Let's say we have the following functional dependencies:

- EmployeeID  $\rightarrow$  Name
- Employee<br/>ID  $\rightarrow$  Department
- Department  $\rightarrow$  Salary

In our example, the attribute "Salary" never appears on the left-hand side of any functional dependency but appears on the right-hand side of the dependency Department  $\rightarrow$  Salary. According to the left-hand side rule, we can conclude that "Salary" does not belong to any key of the "Employees" table.

This means that "Salary" is not necessary to uniquely identify a record in the table. It implies that two employees with the same EmployeeID, Name, and Department can have different salaries. Therefore, "Salary" is not a part of the key attributes for the "Employees" table.

#### Starting from small attribute sets:

Starting with small attribute sets (minimal keys) and excluding their proper supersets when searching for keys. This approach helps streamline the search process and ensures that we identify only the minimal keys that uniquely identify records in a table.

#### **Normal Forms**

#### Third normal form:

Every non-key attribute should dependent on the key, the whole key, and nothing but the key.

#### **Decomposition:**

Suppose we have a relation R with some attributes. A decomposition of R consists of two or more relations such that:

- ullet Each new relation scheme contains a subset of the attributes of R
- Together the relations include all attributes in  ${\cal R}$

#### **Example:**

 $\{AB,BCD,CD\}$  is a decomposition of ABCD, but  $\{AB,BC\}$  is not because it does not include D.

## Handy shit:

#### Check if R is in 3NF:

$$R = \{A, B, C, D, E\}$$

$$A \to B$$

$$BC \to E$$

$$ED \rightarrow A$$

Check if the letters in the right side are in the left side. Here, B,E and A are all in the left side so  $3{\rm NF}$ 

#### Check if R is in BCNF:

$$R = \{A, B, C, D, E\}$$

$$A \to B$$

$$BC \to E$$

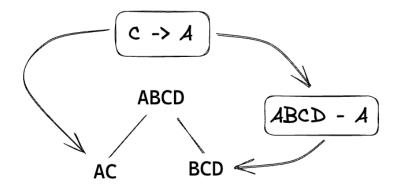
$$ED \rightarrow A$$

Check if the left side is a **Superkey**, meaning left should reach everything that is in R. For example EDC is a superkey, because  $ED \to A$ , and  $A \to B$  meaning you can reach everything from EDC.

#### **Decompose into BCNF:**

First check if R is in BCNF. If it is not follow these steps:

- 1. Take all the dependence's that are not **Superkeys** of R and choose one.
- 2. Split the tree into the dependence and R the dependency. See the tree structure below:



3. Check if the branches are in BCNF, if not, repeat. Also check if dependencies are lost. If so, add these as new relations. For example:

$$A \to BC$$
 becomes the relation  $ABC$ 

If these are not in BCNF you are pretty much fucked and BCNF is not possible.