Unit-III

Relational Model

Relational model can represent as a table with columns and rows. Each row is known as a tuple. Each table of the column has a name or attribute.

Domain: It contains a set of atomic values that an attribute can take.

Attribute: It contains the name of a column in a particular table. Each attribute Ai must have a domain, dom(Ai)

Relational instance: In the relational database system, the relational instance is represented by a finite set of tuples. Relation instances do not have duplicate tuples.

Relational schema: A relational schema contains the name of the relation and name of all columns or attributes.

Relational key: In the relational key, each row has one or more attributes. It can identify the row in the relation uniquely.

Example: STUDENT Relation

NAME	ROLL_NO	PHONE_NO	ADDRESS	AGE
Ram	14795	7305758992	Noida	24
Shyam	12839	9026288936	Delhi	35
Laxman	33289	8583287182	Gurugram	20
Mahesh	27857	7086819134	Ghaziabad	27
Ganesh	17282	9028 9i3988	Delhi	40

- o In the given table, NAME, ROLL_NO, PHONE_NO, ADDRESS, and AGE are the attributes.
- The instance of schema STUDENT has 5 tuples.
- o t3 = <Laxman, 33289, 8583287182, Gurugram, 20>

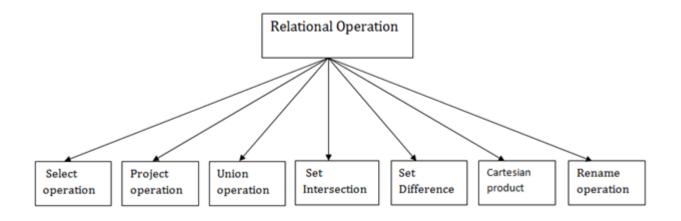
Properties of Relations

- Name of the relation is distinct from all other relations.
- Each relation cell contains exactly one atomic (single) value
- Each attribute contains a distinct name
- Attribute domain has no significance
- o tuple has no duplicate value
- o Order of tuple can have a different sequence

Relational Algebra

Relational algebra is a procedural query language. It gives a step by step process to obtain the result of the query. It uses operators to perform queries.

Types of Relational operation



1. Select Operation:

• The select operation selects tuples that satisfy a given predicate.

- It is denoted by sigma (σ).
- 1. Notation: $\sigma p(r)$

Where:

selection prediction for is used σ 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 =, \neq , \geq , <, >, \leq .

For example: LOAN Relation

BRANCH_NAME	LOAN_NO	AMOUNT
Downtown	L-17	1000
Redwood	L-23	2000
Perryride	L-15	1500
Downtown	L-14	1500
Mianus	L-13	500
Roundhill	L-11	900
Perryride	L-16	1300

Input:

1. σ BRANCH_NAME="perryride" (LOAN)

BRANCH_NAME	LOAN_NO	AMOUNT
Perryride	L-15	1500
Perryride	L-16	1300

2. 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.
- \circ It is denoted by \prod .
- 1. Notation: $\prod A1$, A2, An (r)

Where

A1, A2, A3 is used as an attribute name of relation r.

Example: CUSTOMER RELATION

NAME	STREET	CITY
Jones	Main	Harrison
Smith	North	Rye
Hays	Main	Harrison
Curry	North	Rye
Johnson	Alma	Brooklyn
Brooks	Senator	Brooklyn

Input:

1. \prod NAME, CITY (CUSTOMER)

Output:

NAME	CITY
Jones	Harrison
Smith	Rye
Hays	Harrison
Curry	Rye
Johnson	Brooklyn
Brooks	Brooklyn

3. Union Operation:

- o 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.
- \circ It eliminates the duplicate tuples. It is denoted by \cup .
- 1. Notation: $R \cup S$

A union operation must hold the following condition:

- o R and S must have the attribute of the same number.
- Duplicate tuples are eliminated automatically.

Example:

DEPOSITOR RELATION

CUSTOMER_NAME	ACCOUNT_NO
Johnson	A-101
Smith	A-121
Mayes	A-321
Turner	A-176
Johnson	A-273
Jones	A-472
Lindsay	A-284

BORROW RELATION

CUSTOMER_NAME	LOAN_NO
Jones	L-17
Smith	L-23
Hayes	L-15
Jackson	L-14
Curry	L-93
Smith	L-11

Williams		L-17
Input:		
∏ CUSTOMER_NAME (BO	RROW) ∪ ∏ CUSTOMER_NAME	(DEPOSITOR)
Output:		
CUSTOMER_NAME		
Johnson		
Smith		
Hayes		
Turner		
Jones		
Lindsay		
Jackson		
Curry		
Williams		
Mayes		
4. Set Intersection:		
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	on ∩.	
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1.

1.	Notation: $R \cap S$		
	Example: Using the above DEPOSITOR table and BORROW table		
	Input:		
1.	\prod CUSTOMER_NAME (BORROW) \cap \prod CUSTOMER_NAME (DEPOSITOR)		
	Output:		
	CUSTOMER_NAME		
	Smith		
	Jones		
	5. Set Difference:		
0	Suppose there are two tuples R and S. The set intersection operation contains all tuples that are in R but not in S.		
0	It is denoted by intersection minus (-).		
1.	Notation: R - S		
	Example: Using the above DEPOSITOR table and BORROW table		
	Input:		
1.	\prod CUSTOMER_NAME (BORROW) - \prod CUSTOMER_NAME (DEPOSITOR)		
	Output:		
	CUSTOMER_NAME		
	Jackson		
	Hayes		
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Willians

Curry

6. 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.

1. Notation: E X D

Example:

EMPLOYEE

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_DEPT
1	Smith	A
2	Harry	С
3	John	В

DEPARTMENT

DEPT_NO	DEPT_NAME
A	Marketing
В	Sales
С	Legal

Input:

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1. EMPLOYEE X DEPARTMENT

Output:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	EMP_DEPT	DEPT_NO	DEPT_NAME
1	Smith	A	A	Marketing
1	Smith	A	В	Sales
1	Smith	A	С	Legal
2	Harry	С	A	Marketing
2	Harry	С	В	Sales
2	Harry	С	С	Legal
3	John	В	A	Marketing
3	John	В	В	Sales
3	John	В	С	Legal

7. Rename Operation:

The rename operation is used to rename the output relation. It is denoted by \boldsymbol{rho} (p).

Example: We can use the rename operator to rename STUDENT relation to STUDENT1.

1. $\rho(STUDENT1, STUDENT)$

Join Operations:

A Join operation combines related tuples from different relations, if and only if a given join condition is satisfied. It is denoted by \bowtie .

Example:

EMPLOYEE

EMP_CODE	EMP_NAME
101	Stephan
102	Jack
103	Harry

SALARY

EMP_CODE	SALARY
101	50000
102	30000
103	25000

1. Operation: (EMPLOYEE \bowtie SALARY)

Result:

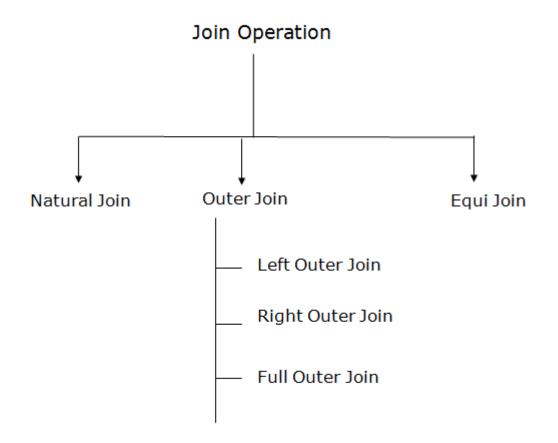
EMP_CODE	EMP_NAME	SALARY
101	Stephan	50000
102	Jack	30000
103	Harry	25000

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Types of Join operations:



1. Natural Join:

- o A natural join is the set of tuples of all combinations in R and S that are equal on their common attribute names.
- \circ It is denoted by \bowtie .

Example: Let's use the above EMPLOYEE table and SALARY table:

Input:

1. ∏EMP_NAME, SALARY (EMPLOYEE ⋈ SALARY)

EMP_NAME	SALARY
Stephan	50000
Jack	30000
Harry	25000

2. Outer Join:

The outer join operation is an extension of the join operation. It is used to deal with missing information.

Example:

EMPLOYEE

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

FACT_WORKERS

EMP_NAME	BRANCH	SALARY
Ram	Infosys	10000
Shyam	Wipro	20000

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Kuber	HCL	30000
Hari	TCS	50000

Input:

1. (EMPLOYEE ⋈ FACT_WORKERS)

Output:

EMP_NAME	STREET	CITY	BRANCH	SALARY
Ram	Civil line	Mumbai	Infosys	10000
Shyam	Park street	Kolkata	Wipro	20000
Hari	Nehru nagar	Hyderabad	TCS	50000

An outer join is basically of three types:

- a. Left outer join
- b. Right outer join
- c. Full outer join

a. Left outer join:

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

Example: Using the above EMPLOYEE table and FACT_WORKERS table

Input:

1. EMPLOYEE ⋈ FACT_WORKERS

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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

b. 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.
- o In right outer join, tuples in S have no matching tuples in R.
- It is denoted by \bowtie .

Example: Using the above EMPLOYEE table and FACT_WORKERS Relation

Input:

1. EMPLOYEE ⋈ FACT_WORKERS

EMP_NAME	BRANCH	SALARY	STREET	CITY
Ram	Infosys	10000	Civil line	Mumbai
Shyam	Wipro	20000	Park street	Kolkata
Hari	TCS	50000	Nehru street	Hyderabad
Kuber	HCL	30000	NULL	NULL

c. Full outer join:

- Full outer join is like a left or right join except that it contains all rows from both tables.
- o In full outer join, tuples in R that have no matching tuples in S and tuples in S that have no matching tuples in R in their common attribute name.
- \circ It is denoted by \bowtie .

Example: Using the above EMPLOYEE table and FACT_WORKERS table

Input:

Output:

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
Kuber	NULL	NULL	HCL	30000

3. Equi join:

It is also known as an inner join. It is the most common join. It is based on matched data as per the equality condition. The equi join uses the comparison operator(=).

Example:

CUSTOMER RELATION

CLASS_ID	NAME
1	John
2	Harry
3	Jackson

PRODUCT

PRODUCT_ID	CITY
1	Delhi
2	Mumbai
3	Noida

Input:

1. CUSTOMER ⋈ PRODUCT

CLASS_ID	NAME	PRODUCT_ID	CITY
1	John	1	Delhi
2	Harry	2	Mumbai
3	Harry	3	Noida

Division Operator (÷): Division operator A÷B or A/B can be applied if and only if:

- Attributes of B is proper subset of Attributes of A.
- The relation returned by division operator will have attributes = (All attributes of A All Attributes of B)
- The relation returned by division operator will return those tuples from relation A which are associated to every B's tuple.

xyabaad4

÷∏ B

A

y

1

2

The resultant of A/B is

X

a

A ÷ B

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Division can be expressed in terms of **Cross Product**, **Set Difference** and **Projection**.

In the above example , for A/B , compute all $\,x$ values that are not disqualified by some y in B.

x value is disqualified if attaching y value from B, we obtain xy tuple that is not in A.

Disqualified x values: $\prod_{x}((\prod_{x}(A) \times B) - A)$

So
$$A/B = \prod_{x} (A)$$
 – all disqualified tuples $A/B = \prod_{x} (A) - \prod_{x} ((\prod_{x} (A) \times B) - A)$

In the above example, disqualified tuples are

b	2
d	4

So, the resultant is

x a

Advantages:

Expressive Power: Extended operators allow for more complex queries and transformations that cannot be easily expressed using basic relational algebra operations.

Data Reduction: Aggregation operators, such as SUM, AVG, COUNT, and MAX, can reduce the amount of data that needs to be processed and displayed.

Data Transformation: Extended operators can be used to transform data into different formats, such as pivoting rows into columns or vice versa.

More Efficient: Extended operators can be more efficient than expressing the same query in terms of basic relational algebra operations, since they can take advantage of specialized algorithms and optimizations.

Disadvantages:

Complexity: Extended operators can be more difficult to understand and use than basic relational algebra operations. They require a deeper understanding of the underlying data and the operators themselves.

Performance: Some extended operators, such as outer joins, can be expensive in terms of performance, especially when dealing with large data sets.

Non-standardized: There is no universal set of extended operators, and different relational database management systems may implement them differently or not at all.

Data Integrity: Some extended operators, such as aggregate functions, can introduce potential problems with data integrity if not used properly. For example, using AVG on a column that contains null values can result in unexpected or incorrect results.