# Relational Algebra and SQL 

## Basic Operations Algebra of Bags

## What is an "Algebra"

Mathematical system consisting of:

- Operands --- variables or values from which new values can be constructed.
- Operators --- symbols denoting procedures that construct new values from given values.


## What is Relational Algebra?

- An algebra whose operands are relations or variables that represent relations.
Operators are designed to do the most common things that we need to do with relations in a database.
- The result is an algebra that can be used as a query language for relations.


## Core Relational Algebra

$\checkmark$ Union, intersection, and difference.

- Usual set operations, but both operands must have the same relation schema.
Selection: picking certain rows.
$\checkmark$ Projection: picking certain columns.
$\checkmark$ Products and joins: compositions of relations.
$\checkmark$ Renaming of relations and attributes.


## Union, intersection, difference

- RUS

SELECT ... UNION SELECT ...;
(Duplicate elimination -> UNION ALL: multiset, UNION: set)
$-R \cap S$
SELECT ... INTERSECT SELECT ...;
-R-S
SELECT ... MINUS SELECT ...;
(Some DBMS uses EXCEPT)

## Selection

$\rightarrow \mathrm{R} 1:=\sigma_{C}(\mathrm{R} 2)$

- $C$ is a condition (as in "if" statements) that refers to attributes of R2.
- R1 is all those tuples of R2 that satisfy $C$.


## SELECT * FROM R2 WHERE C;

## Example: Selection

Relation Sells:

| bar | beer | price |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| Joe's | Bud | 2.50 |
| Joe's | Miller | 2.75 |
| Sue's | Bud | 2.50 |
| Sue's | Miller | 3.00 |

JoeMenu := $\sigma_{\text {bar="Joe's's }}$ (Sells):

| bar | beer | price |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| Joe's | Bud | 2.50 |
| Joe's | Miller | 2.75 |

## Projection

$R 1:=\pi_{L}(R 2)$

- $L$ is a list of attributes from the schema of R2.
- R1 is constructed by looking at each tuple of R2, extracting the attributes on list $L$, in the order specified, and creating from those components a tuple for R1.
- Eliminate duplicate tuples, if any.
- SELECT DISTINCT L FROM R2;


## Example: Projection

Relation Sells:

| bar | beer | price |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| Joe's | Bud | 2.50 |
| Joe's | Miller | 2.75 |
| Sue's | Bud | 2.50 |
| Sue's | Miller | 3.00 |

Prices := $\Pi_{\text {beer,price }}$ (Sells):

| beer | price |
| :--- | :---: |
| Bud | 2.50 |
| Miller | 2.75 |
| Miller | 3.00 |

## Extended Projection

Using the same $\pi_{L}$ operator, we allow the list $L$ to contain arbitrary expressions involving attributes:

1. Arithmetic on attributes, e.g., $A+B->C$.
2. Duplicate occurrences of the same attribute.

SELECT A+B AS C FROM R; (AS -> optional)

## Example: Extended Projection

$$
R=\left(\begin{array}{|l|l|}
\hline A & B \\
\hline 1 & 2 \\
3 & 4 \\
\hline
\end{array}\right.
$$



SELECT A+B C, A A1, A A2 FROM R;

## Product

-R3 : = R1 X R2

- Pair each tuple t1 of R1 with each tuple t2 of R2.
- Concatenation t1t2 is a tuple of R3.
- Schema of R3 is the attributes of R1 and then R2, in order.
- But beware attribute $A$ of the same name in R1 and R2: use R1. $A$ and R2.A.


## SELECT * FROM R1, R2; or SELECT * FROM R1 CROSS JOIN R2;

## Example: R3 := R1 X R2

| R1( | A, | B ) | R3( | A, | R1.B, | R2.B, | C |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | 2 |  | 1 | 2 | 5 | 6 |
|  | 3 | 4 |  | 1 | 2 | 7 | 8 |
|  |  |  |  | 1 | 2 | 9 | 10 |
| R2( | B, | C) |  | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|  | 5 | 6 |  | 3 | 4 | 7 | 8 |
|  | 7 | 8 |  | 3 | 4 | 9 | 10 |
|  | 9 | 10 |  |  |  |  |  |

SELECT A, R1.B, R2.B, C FROM R1, R2;

## Theta-Join

R3 := R1 $\bowtie_{c}$ R2

- Take the product R1 X R2.
- Then apply $\sigma_{C}$ to the result.
- As for $\sigma, C$ can be any boolean-valued condition.
- Historic versions of this operator allowed only A $\theta$ B, where $\theta$ is $=,<$, etc.; hence the name "theta-join."

SELECT * FROM R1 JOIN R2 ON (C);

## Example: Theta Join

Sells( | bar, | beer, | price |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Joe's | Bud | 2.50 |
| Joe's | Miller | 2.75 |
| Sue's | Bud | 2.50 |
| Sue's | Coors | 3.00 |

Bars( | name, | addr |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Joe's | Maple St. |
| Sue's | River Rd. |

BarInfo := Sells $\bowtie_{\text {Sells.bar }=\text { Bars.name }}$ Bars

BarInfo( | bar, | beer, | price, | name, | addr |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Joe's | Bud | 2.50 | Joe's | Maple St. |
| Joe's | Miller | 2.75 | Joe's | Maple St. |
| Sue's | Bud | 2.50 | Sue's | River Rd. |
| Sue's | Coors | 3.00 | Sue's | River Rd. |

## Natural Join

$\checkmark$ A useful join variant (natural join) connects two relations by:

- Equating attributes of the same name, and
- Projecting out one copy of each pair of equated attributes.
$\rightarrow$ Denoted R3 := R1 $\bowtie$ R2.

SELECT * FROM R1 NATURAL JOIN R2;

## Example: Natural Join

Sells( | bar, | beer, | price |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Joe's | Bud | 2.50 |
| Joe's | Miller | 2.75 |
| Sue's | Bud | 2.50 |
| Sue's | Coors | 3.00 |



BarInfo := Sells $\bowtie$ Bars
Note: Bars.name has become Bars.bar to make the natural join "work."

BarInfo(

| bar, | beer, | price, | addr |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Joe's | Bud | 2.50 | Maple St. |
| Joe's | Milller | 2.75 | Maple St. |
| Sue's | Bud | 2.50 | River Rd. |
| Sue's | Coors | 3.00 | River Rd. |

## Renaming

$\rightarrow$ The $\rho$ operator gives a new schema to a relation.
$\left\langle R 1:=\rho_{\mathrm{R} 1(\mathrm{~A} 1, \ldots, \mathrm{An})}(\mathrm{R} 2)\right.$ makes R1 be a relation with attributes $\mathrm{A} 1, \ldots, \mathrm{~A} n$ and the same tuples as R2.
Simplified notation: R1(A1, $\ldots, \mathrm{A} n):=\mathrm{R} 2$.
SELECT X1 A1, X2 A2, ... Xn An FROM R2; CREATE TABLE R1 AS SELECT X1 A1, X2 A2, ... Xn An FROM R2;

## Example: Renaming

Bars( | name, | addr |
| :--- | :--- |
| Joe's | Maple St. |
| Sue's | River Rd. |

R(bar, addr) := Bars
$R\left(\begin{array}{|l|l|}\hline \text { bar, } & \text { addr } \\ \hline \text { Joe's } & \text { Maple St. } \\ \text { Sue's } & \text { River Rd. } \\ \hline\end{array}\right.$

## Building Complex Expressions

Combine operators with parentheses and precedence rules.
Three notations, just as in arithmetic:

1. Sequences of assignment statements.
2. Expressions with several operators.
3. Expression trees.

## Sequences of Assignments

Create temporary relation names.
Renaming can be implied by giving relations a list of attributes.

Example: R3 := R1 $\bowtie_{C}$ R2 can be written:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { R4 }:=\text { R1 X R2 } & \text { (CREATE TABLE R4 } \ldots) \\
\text { R3 }:=\sigma_{c} \text { (R4) } & \text { (SELECT } \ldots \text {... FROM R4 } \ldots \text { ) }
\end{array}
$$

## Expressions in a Single Assignment

Example: the theta-join R3 := R1 $\bowtie_{C}$ R2 can be written: R3 := $\sigma_{c}$ (R1 X R2)
Precedence of relational operators:

1. $[\sigma, \pi, \rho]$ (highest).
2. $[\mathrm{X}, \bowtie]$.
3. $\cap$.
4. $[\cup,-]$

## Expression Trees

- Leaves are operands --- either variables standing for relations or particular, constant relations.
$\bullet$ Interior nodes are operators, applied to their child or children.


## Example: Tree for a Query

$\checkmark$ Using the relations Bars(name, addr) and Sells(bar, beer, price), find the names of all the bars that are either on Maple St. or sell Bud for less than \$3.

## As a Tree:



## Example: Self-Join

-Using Sells(bar, beer, price), find the bars that sell two different beers at the same price.
Strategy: by renaming, define a copy of Sells, called S(bar, beer1, price). The natural join of Sells and $S$ consists of quadruples (bar, beer, beer1, price) such that the bar sells both beers at this price.

## The Tree



## Schemas for Results

-Union, intersection, and difference: the schemas of the two operands must be the same, so use that schema for the result.
Selection: schema of the result is the same as the schema of the operand.
Projection: list of attributes tells us the schema.

## Schemas for Results --- (2)

- Product: schema is the attributes of both relations.
- Use R.A, etc., to distinguish two attributes named $A$.
Theta-join: same as product.
Natural join: union of the attributes of the two relations.
$\checkmark$ Renaming: the operator tells the schema.


## Relational Algebra on Bags

- A bag (or multiset) is like a set, but an element may appear more than once.
Example: $\{1,2,1,3\}$ is a bag.
- Example: $\{1,2,3\}$ is also a bag that happens to be a set.


## Why Bags?

-SQL, the most important query language for relational databases, is actually a bag language.
Some operations, like projection, are more efficient on bags than sets.

## Operations on Bags

SSelection applies to each tuple, so its effect on bags is like its effect on sets.

- Projection also applies to each tuple, but as a bag operator, we do not eliminate duplicates.
- Products and joins are done on each pair of tuples, so duplicates in bags have no effect on how we operate.


## Example: Bag Selection

$$
R\left(\begin{array}{|l|l|}
\hline A_{1} & B \\
\hline 1 & 2 \\
5 & 6 \\
1 & 2 \\
\hline
\end{array}\right.
$$

$$
\sigma_{A+B<5}(\mathrm{R})=\begin{array}{|l|l|}
\hline \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{~B} \\
\hline 1 & 2 \\
1 & 2 \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

SELECT * FROM R WHERE A+B < 5;

## Example: Bag Projection

$$
\mathrm{R}\left(\begin{array}{|l|l|}
\hline \mathrm{A}_{1} & \mathrm{~B} \\
\hline 1 & 2 \\
\hline 5 & 6 \\
1 & 2 \\
\hline
\end{array}\right.
$$

$$
\mathrm{T}_{A}(\mathrm{R})=\begin{array}{|l|}
\hline \mathrm{A} \\
\hline 1 \\
5 \\
1 \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

SELECT A FROM R;

## Example: Bag Product



R $X S=$

| A | R.B | S.B | C |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 7 | 8 |
| 5 | 6 | 3 | 4 |
| 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 7 | 8 |

## Example: Bag Theta-Join

$R\left(\begin{array}{|l|l|}\hline A_{1} & B \\ \hline 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 \\ \hline\end{array}\right.$

$R \bigotimes_{\text {R.B<S.B }} S=$

| A | R.B | S.B | C |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 7 | 8 |
| 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 7 | 8 |

## Bag Union

$\checkmark$ An element appears in the union of two bags the sum of the number of times it appears in each bag.

- Example: $\{1,2,1\} \cup\{1,1,2,3,1\}=$ \{1,1,1,1,1,2,2,3\}


## SELECT ... UNION ALL SELECT ...;

## Bag Intersection

- An element appears in the intersection of two bags the minimum of the number of times it appears in either.
- Example: $\{1,2,1,1\} \cap\{1,2,1,3\}=$ \{1,1,2\}.

SELECT ... INTERSECT ALL SELECT (Oracle doesn't support !)

## Bag Difference

- An element appears in the difference $A-B$ of bags as many times as it appears in $A$, minus the number of times it appears in $B$.
- But never less than 0 times.
- Example: $\{1,2,1,1\}-\{1,2,3\}=\{1,1\}$. SELECT ... EXCEPT ALL SELECT ...;
ORACLE doesn't support !)


## Beware: Bag Laws != Set Laws

-Some, but not all algebraic laws that hold for sets also hold for bags.
Example: the commutative law for union $(R \cup S=S \cup R)$ does hold for bags.

- Since addition is commutative, adding the number of times $x$ appears in $R$ and $S$ doesn't depend on the order of $R$ and $S$.


## Example: A Law That Fails

Set union is idempotent, meaning that $S \cup S=S$.
$\rightarrow$ However, for bags, if $x$ appears $n$ times in $S$, then it appears $2 n$ times in $S \cup S$.
$\rightarrow$ Thus $S \cup S$ != $S$ in general.

- e.g., $\{1\} \cup\{1\}=\{1,1\}!=\{1\}$.

