

# Relational Algebra

## CSE462 Database Concepts

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## Introduction

**Relational Algebra (RA)** is an algebra of relations that provides simple yet powerful ways to construct new relations from existing ones. It is related both to **first-order logic** and **set algebra**.

- RA is fundamentally an abstract query language.
- Hence, modern database systems do not use RA.
- Instead, they use a concrete language such as SQL.
- It is important to note, however, that RA is at the core of SQL.
- DBMSs translate queries into RA (or variant) during query processing.

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# Introduction

## Why RA?

- I can do anything with <your favorite PL>!
  - Yes, but only in principle. In practice. . .
  - How do you represent tuples in <your favorite PL>?
  - How do multiple users share, query, and updated their data?
  - How do you achieve this while keeping, e.g., physical data independence?
- Practical importance.
  - RA is **strictly less powerful** than <your favorite PL>.
  - Easy to use, e.g., fewer and simpler syntactic constructs.
  - This allows the DBMS to search for efficient query evaluation plans.
  - RA is still expressible enough to be practically useful.
- Limitations.
  - Finite relations only (this is usually not a problem).
  - Set semantics (i.e., tuple duplication not allowed).
  - No aggregate functions (e.g., MIN, MAX, AVG);
  - No recursion (e.g., transitive closure);
  - No ordering (i.e., tuples returned in non-deterministic order).

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## Introduction

An algebra consists of one or more sets closed under one or more operations, satisfying some axioms.

- RA deals with sets of relations closed under certain operations.
- A relation is a set of  $k$ -tuples where tuple components are named.
- Relations are finite: their arity and extension are both finite.
- RA introduces six primitive operations.
  - Set union and set difference.
  - Selection, projection, cartesian product, and renaming.
- Additional operations may be included, for convenience.
  - However, they **do not add expressive power to RA**.
  - That is, they can be defined in terms of the primitive operations.

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## Relational Algebra Constituents

- Operands.
  - Variables, that stand for relations.
  - Constants, that stand for fixed, finite relations.
- Primitive operations.
  - Set union ( $\cup$ ), set difference ( $-$ ).
  - Selection ( $\sigma$ ), projection ( $\pi$ ), cartesian ( $\times$ ).
  - Rename ( $\rho$ ).
- Derived operations (not extensive).
  - Set intersection ( $\cap$ ).
  - Natural join ( $\bowtie$ ), theta join ( $\bowtie_{\theta}$ ).
  - Quotient ( $\div$ ).

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## Relational Algebra Operations

- Removing parts of a relation.
  - Selection eliminates rows, projection eliminates columns.
- Combining tuples.
  - Cartesian product pairs tuples of two relations in all possible ways.
  - Join pairs tuples of two relations selectively.
- Schema-preserving.
  - All set operations and the selection operation.
  - Rename modifies a relation schema without affecting its tuples.
  - Cartesian and joins output a relation with a “merged” schema.
- Operator Arity.
  - Unary: selection, projection, rename.
  - Binary: cartesian, all join operations, all set operations.
- Monotonicity.
  - All primitive operations, except set difference.

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## Set Operations ( $\cup, \cap, -$ )

- Schema compatibility requirement.
  - $R \text{ op } S$ ,  $R$  and  $S$  relations with the same arity,  $op \in \{\cup, \cap, -\}$ .
  - Attribute names and types must match based on presentation order.
- Set union ( $\cup$ ).
  - $R \cup S$  is the set of tuples that are in  $R$  or  $S$  or both.
  - Is  $R \cup S = S \cup R$ ?
- Set intersection ( $\cap$ ).
  - $R \cap S$  is the set of tuples that are in both  $R$  and  $S$ .
  - Is  $R \cap S = S \cap R$ ?
- Set difference ( $-$ ).
  - $R - S$  is the set of tuples that are in  $R$  but not in  $S$ .
  - Is  $R - S = S - R$ ?
- In all set operations, a tuple may only appear once in the result.
- **Hint:** use renaming to achieve schema-compatibility.

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## Set Operations: Example

name	address	gender	birthday
Carrie Fisher	123 Maple St., Hollywood	F	9/9/99
Mark Hamill	456 Oak Rd., Brentwood	M	8/8/88

Relation : Contacts owned by George Lucas ( $R$ ).

name	address	gender	birthday
Carrie Fisher	123 Maple St., Hollywood	F	9/9/99
Harrison Ford	789 Palm Dr., Beverly Hills	M	7/7/77

Relation : Contacts owned by Steven Spielberg ( $S$ ).

Answer:

- What are the schemas of  $R$  and  $S$ ?
- What are the results of:  $R \cup S$ ,  $R \cap S$ ,  $R - S$ , and  $S - R$ ?

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## Projection ( $\pi$ )

- Projection takes a relation  $R$ , removes some of its attributes and/or rearranges its (remaining) attributes. It implicitly performs duplicate elimination as necessary.
- The projection of  $R(A_1, \dots, A_m)$  onto components  $A_{i_1}, \dots, A_{i_k}$ , where every  $i_j$  is an integer in the range 1 to  $m$ , is denoted  $\pi_{A_{i_1}, \dots, A_{i_k}}(R)$ .
- **Semantics:** for every tuple  $(b_1, \dots, b_k)$  in  $\pi_{A_{i_1}, \dots, A_{i_k}}(R)$ , there exists a tuple  $(a_1, \dots, a_m)$  in  $R$  for which  $b_j = a_{i_j}$  for all  $1 \leq j \leq k$ .
- Projection may also specify attributes by position. **Note:** do not combine names and positions when specifying a projection!

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## Projection: Conceptual Examples

- Compute  $\pi_{C,A,E}(R)$  for  $R(A, B, C, D, E)$  using the definition.
  - From the definition,  $(C, A, E) = (A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, A_{i_3}) = (A_3, A_1, A_5)$ .
  - Assume  $(b_1, b_2, b_3) \in \pi_{C,A,E}(R)$ .
  - Then,  $(a_1, \dots, a_m) \in R$  such that  $(b_1, b_2, b_3) = (a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}, a_{i_3})$ .
  - Using the values of the indexed subscripts,  $(b_1, b_2, b_3) = (a_3, a_1, a_5)$ .
  - But we know that  $(A_3, A_1, A_5) = (C, A, E)$ .
  - Thus,  $(b_1, b_2, b_3)$  are precisely the  $(C, A, E)$  components of  $(a_1, \dots, a_m)$ .
- Equivalent projections for  $R(A, B, C, D, E)$  using names and indexes.
  - Relations  $\pi_{B,C,D}(R)$  and  $\pi_{2,3,4}(R)$  are equivalent.
  - Relations  $\pi_{C,A,E}(R)$  and  $\pi_{3,1,5}(R)$  are equivalent.

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## Projection: Example

title	year	length	genre
Star Wars	1977	124	scifi
Galaxy Quest	1999	104	comedy
Wayne's World	1992	95	comedy

Table : Movies.

Compute :  $\pi_{\text{title,year,length}}(\text{Movies})$

title	year	length
Star Wars	1977	124
Galaxy Quest	1999	104
Wayne's World	1992	95

Compute :  $\pi_{\text{genre}}(\text{Movies})$

genre
scifi
comedy

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## Selection ( $\sigma$ )

- Selection takes a relation  $R$  and a formula  $\varphi$  and removes all tuples from  $R$  that do not satisfy  $\varphi$ . The formula  $\varphi$  consists of:
  - Operands: constants and attribute names.
  - Comparison:  $<, =, >, \leq, \neq, \geq$ .
  - Logical: **AND** ( $\wedge$ ), **OR** ( $\vee$ ), **NOT** ( $\neg$ ) and the usual precedence:  $\neg > \wedge > \vee$ .
- The selection of  $R(A_1, \dots, A_m)$  with formula  $\varphi$  is denoted  $\sigma_\varphi(R)$ .
- The output schema of  $\sigma_\varphi(R)$  is identical to the schema of  $R$ .
- **Semantics:** a tuple  $(a_1, \dots, a_m)$  in  $R$  is also in  $\sigma_\varphi(R)$  if, for all  $1 \leq i \leq m$ , when we substitute every occurrence of  $A_i$  in  $\varphi$  for  $a_i$ ,  $\varphi$  becomes true.

## Selection: Example

title	year	length	genre
Star Wars	1977	124	scifi
Galaxy Quest	1999	104	comedy
Wayne's World	1992	95	comedy

Table : Movies.

Compute :  $\sigma_{\text{length} \geq 100}(\text{Movies})$

title	year	length	genre
Star Wars	1977	124	scifi
Galaxy Quest	1999	104	comedy

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## Selection: Example

title	year	length	genre
Star Wars	1977	124	scifi
Galaxy Quest	1999	104	comedy
Wayne's World	1992	95	comedy

Table : Movies.

Compute :  $\sigma_{\text{length} \geq 100 \text{ AND } \text{genre} = \text{'comedy'}}(\text{Movies})$

title	year	length	genre
Galaxy Quest	1999	104	comedy

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## Selection: Example

title	year	length	genre
Star Wars	1977	124	scifi
Galaxy Quest	1999	104	comedy
Wayne's World	1992	95	comedy

Table : Movies.

Compute :  $\sigma_{\text{title} = \text{'E.T.'}}(\text{Movies})$

title	year	length	genre
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## Cartesian Product ( $\times$ )

- Cartesian product (also cross product) takes relations  $R$  and  $S$  and computes the set of all possible tuples obtained from pairing every tuple in  $R$  with every tuple in  $S$ .
- The Cartesian product of  $R$  and  $S$  is denoted  $R \times S$ .
- The output schema of  $R \times S$  contains all attributes from both  $R$  and  $S$ .
  - If  $R$  and  $S$  have common attributes, new names are assigned to at least one (but usually both) of each pair of identical attributes.
  - By convention, we disambiguate by qualifying the attribute names with their relation names. E.g., for a common attribute  $A$ , we use  $R.A$  and  $S.A$ .
- **Semantics:** Let  $R$  and  $S$  have arities  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ , respectively.  $R \times S$  is the set of all  $(k_1 + k_2)$ -tuples whose first  $k_1$  components come from a tuple in  $R$  and whose last  $k_2$  components come from a tuple in  $S$ . If  $R$  and  $S$  have, respectively,  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  tuples, then  $R \times S$  is a set of  $n_1 \cdot n_2$  tuples.

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## Cartesian Product: Example

Relation : R

A	B
1	2
3	4

Relation : S

B	C	D
2	5	6
4	7	8
9	10	11

Compute :  $R \times S$

A	R.B	S.B	C	D
1	2	2	5	6
1	2	4	7	8
1	2	9	10	11
3	4	2	5	6
3	4	4	7	8
3	4	9	10	11

## Cartesian Product: Example

Relation : R

A	B
1	2
3	4

Relation : S

B	C	D
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Compute :  $R \times S$

A	R.B	S.B	C	D
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## Theta Join ( $\bowtie_{\theta}$ )

- Theta join is a derived operation that takes relations  $R$  and  $S$ , a formula  $\theta$  consisting of arithmetic comparisons between  $R$  and  $S$  attributes, and returns all tuples in  $R \times S$  satisfying the formula  $\theta$ . References to common attributes in  $R$  and  $S$  must be qualified in  $\theta$ .
- The theta join of  $R$  and  $S$  with formula  $\theta$  is denoted  $R \bowtie_{\theta} S$ .
- The output schema of  $R \bowtie_{\theta} S$  is the same as the schema of  $R \times S$ .
- **Semantics:**  $R \bowtie_{\theta} S$  is the result of  $\sigma_{\theta}(R \times S)$ .
- If  $\theta$  only involves equalities, it is called an **equijoin**.

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## Theta Join: Example

Relation : U

A	B	C
1	2	3
6	7	8
9	7	8

Relation : V

B	C	D
2	3	4
2	3	5
7	8	10

Compute :  $U \bowtie_{A < D} V$

A	U.B	U.C	V.B	V.C	D
1	2	3	2	3	4
1	2	3	2	3	5
1	2	3	7	8	10
6	7	8	7	8	10
9	7	8	7	8	10

## Rename ( $\rho$ )

- The rename operations takes a relation  $R$  and returns a relation with the same set of tuples but a different schema. Rename can modify the name of the input relation as well as any of its attributes.
- To rename relation  $R(A_1, \dots, A_k)$  to  $S(B_1, \dots, B_k)$ , use  $\rho_{S(B_1, \dots, B_k)}(R)$ .
  - **Semantics:** The result of  $\rho_{S(B_1, \dots, B_k)}(R)$  is a relation named  $S$ , attributes named  $B_1, \dots, B_k$ , and the same set of tuples as  $R$ .
- To rename relation  $R(A_1, \dots, A_k)$  to  $S(A_1, \dots, A_k)$ , use  $\rho_S(R)$ .
  - **Semantics:** The result of  $\rho_S(R)$  is a relation named  $S$ , attributes named  $A_1, \dots, A_k$ , and the same set of tuples as  $R$ .
- To rename relation  $R(A_1, \dots, A_k)$  to  $R(B_1, \dots, B_k)$ , use  $R(B_1, \dots, B_k)$ .
  - **Semantics:** The result of  $R(B_1, \dots, B_k)$  is a relation named  $R$ , attributes named  $B_1, \dots, B_k$ , and the same set of tuples as  $R$ .

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## Rename: Example

Relation : U

A	B	C
1	2	3
6	7	8
9	7	8

Relation : V

B	C	D
2	3	4
2	3	5
7	8	10

Compute :  $U \bowtie_{A < D} \rho_{T(C,D,E)}(V)$

A	B	U.C	T.C	D	E
1	2	3	2	3	4
1	2	3	2	3	5
1	2	3	7	8	10
6	7	8	7	8	10

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## Natural Join ( $\bowtie$ )

- Natural join is an equijoin that takes relations  $R$  and  $S$  and returns all tuples in  $R \times S$  that agree on the values of their common attributes.
- The natural join of  $R$  and  $S$  is denoted  $R \bowtie S$ .
- The schema of  $R \bowtie S$  is the **union** of the schemas of  $R$  and  $S$ : identical attributes are unqualified and included only once.
- **Semantics:**

Given  $R(A_1, \dots, A_k, B_1, \dots, B_m)$  and  $S(A_1, \dots, A_k, C_1, \dots, C_n)$ , the result of  $R \bowtie S$  is:

$$\pi_{A_1, \dots, A_k, B_1, \dots, B_m, C_1, \dots, C_n} (R \bowtie_{A_1=D_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_k=D_k} \rho_{S(D_1, \dots, D_k, C_1, \dots, C_n)}(S))$$

- **Note:** if  $R$  and  $S$  have no common attributes, the natural join reduces to a cartesian product.

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## Natural Join: Example

Relation : U

A	B	C
1	2	3
6	7	8
9	7	8

Relation : V

B	C	D
2	3	4
2	3	5
7	8	10

Compute :  $U \bowtie V$

A	B	C	D
1	2	3	4
1	2	3	5
6	7	8	10
9	7	8	10

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## Other kinds of joins

- Semijoin:

$$R \bowtie_{\theta} S = \pi_R(R \bowtie_{\theta} S).$$

- Anti-semijoin:  $R - (R \bowtie_{\theta} S)$ .

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## Quotient ( $\div$ )

- Quotients are useful for expressing universal quantification.
- The quotient takes relations  $R$  and  $S$  and returns the largest relation  $T$  satisfying  $T \times S \subseteq R$ . The attribute sets of  $S$  and  $T$  must form a partition of the attribute set of  $R$ .
- The quotient of  $R$  and  $S$  is denoted  $R \div S$ .
- The output schema of  $R \div S$  consists of the attributes in  $R$  but not in  $S$ .
- **Semantics:** Given  $R(A_1, \dots, A_n, B_1, \dots, B_m)$  and  $S(B_1, \dots, B_m)$ ,  $R \div S$  returns a set of tuples over the attributes  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  such that, for every tuple  $(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  in  $R \div S$  and every tuple  $(b_1, \dots, b_m)$  in  $S$ , the tuple  $(a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_m)$  is in  $R$ .
- Quotient is a derived operation:

$$\pi_{A_1, \dots, A_n}(R) \times S$$

possible

$$\pi_{A_1, \dots, A_n}(R) \times S - R$$

possible - actual

$$\pi_{A_1, \dots, A_n}(\pi_{A_1, \dots, A_n}(R) \times S - R)$$

$\pi(\text{possible} - \text{actual})$

$$\pi_{A_1, \dots, A_n}(R) - \pi_{A_1, \dots, A_n}(\pi_{A_1, \dots, A_n}(R) \times S - R)$$

$\pi(\text{actual}) - \pi(\text{possible} - \text{actual})$

## Quotient: Example

Relation : Account

Customer	BranchName
Hewitt	Buffalo
Blake	Amherst
Blake	Buffalo
Blake	Depew
Fox	Amherst
Fox	Buffalo
Smith	Lockport

Relation : Branch

BranchName
Amherst
Buffalo

Compute : Account  $\div$  Branch

Customer
Blake
Fox

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## Beyond Basic Operations

- RA allows us to create expressions by composing operations.
  - This property holds because RA is closed under the defined operations.
  - Arbitrarily complex relations can be created by composing subexpressions.
  - Parenthesis are used to group subexpressions, for clarity.
- RA expressions may be represented as trees.
  - Leaf nodes are stored relations.
  - Internal nodes are operators.
  - Subtrees are subexpressions.
- RA expressions can also be represented using a linear notation.
  - List  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  of assignments.
  - Each  $A_i$  has the form  $R(v_1, \dots, v_n) := \text{expr}$ 
    - `lhs` is a new relation name and a list of attributes.
    - `rhs` is a RA expression referencing stored relations or any  $A_j, j < i$ .

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## Linear Notation: Example

- Schema: `Movies(title, year, length, genre, studioName)`.
- List the title and year of Fox movies that run for at least 100 minutes.
  - $R(t, y, l, g, s) := \sigma_{length \geq 100}(Movies)$
  - $S(t, y, l, g, s) := \sigma_{studioName = 'Fox'}(Movies)$
  - $T(t, y, l, g, s) := R \cap S$
  - $Answer(title, year) := \pi_{t, y}(T)$
- There are many ways to do it. . .
  - $R(t, y, l, g, s) := \sigma_{length \geq 100}(Movies)$
  - $S(t, y, l, g, s) := \sigma_{s = 'Fox'}(R)$
  - $Answer(title, year) := \pi_{t, y}(S)$

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## Expression Equivalence

- Different RA expressions may perform the same computation.
- These are called equivalent expressions.
  - $E_1 \equiv E_2 \Leftrightarrow E_1(D) = E_2(D)$  for every database instance  $D$ .
  - Remember,  $E_1(D) = E_2(D) \Leftrightarrow E_1(D) \subseteq E_2(D) \wedge E_2(D) \subseteq E_1(D)$ .
- This fact is often explored by query optimizers in DBMSs.
  - A user query may have many equivalent expressions.
  - Some (sub)expressions are much faster to evaluate.
  - The DBMS may replace one (sub)expression for an equivalent one that is more efficiently evaluated.
- For instance, let  $R$  and  $S$  be schema-compatible.
  - $R \cap S \equiv R - (R - S) \equiv S - (S - R)$

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## Set vs Bag Semantics

- Queries may produce (intermediate) duplicate tuples that need to be eliminated under set semantics, e.g., union and projection.
- Most bag operations are more efficient than their set counterparts.
- Real applications need both set and bag semantics.
- Under bag semantics,
  - projection may create duplicate tuples;
  - selection is applied to each tuple independently;
  - cartesian is applied to each pair of tuples independently;
  - join matches pairs of tuples independently.
- Let tuple  $t$  occur  $n$  times in  $R$  and  $m$  times in  $S$ , respectively.
  - $t$  appears  $n + m$  times in  $R \cup S$
  - $t$  appears  $\min(n, m)$  times in  $R \cap S$
  - $t$  appears  $\max(0, n - m)$  times in  $R - S$
- Let tuples  $r$  and  $s$  occur  $n$  times in  $R$  and  $m$  times in  $S$ , respectively.
  - $rs$  appears  $n \cdot m$  times in  $R \times S$

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## Required

- Read sections 2.4 of chapter #2 and 5.1 of chapter #5.

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