DATABASDESIGN FÖR INGENJÖRER - 1DL124

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En introduktionskurs i databassystem

http://user.it.uu.se/~udbl/dbt-sommar05/alt. http://www.it.uu.se/edu/course/homepage/dbdesign/st05/

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Introduction to SQL

Elmasri/Navathe ch 8

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The SQL database language

- SQL (Structured Query Language)
- Was first developed by IBM in the early 70's at their San Jose Research Lab. It was called Sequel and was implemented as part of their System R project.
- Current version of the ISO/ANSI SQL standard is SQL-99 (the earlier SQL-92 is a subset the standard).
- SQL has become the main language in commercial RDBMS.



Parts of the SQL language

7/26/05

- SQL include several subparts
 - DDL
 - Interactive DML
 - Queries: SELECT
 - Updates: INSERT, DELETE, UPDATE
 - Embedded DML
 - View definition
 - Authorizaton
 - Integrity
 - Transaction control

- SQL (E/N chapter 8)
 - Basic Structure
 - Set Operations
 - Aggregate Functions
 - Null Values
 - Nested Subqueries
 - Derived Relations
 - Views
 - Modification of the Database
 - Joined Relations
 - Data Definition
 - Schema Evolution
 - Additional SQL Features



Basic structure

- SQL is based on set and relational operations with certain modifications and enhancements.
- A typical SQL query has the form:

```
select A_1, A_2, ..., A_n
from r_1, r_2, ..., r_m
where P
```

- $-A_i$'s represent attributes
- $-r_i$'s represent relations
- P is a predicate.
- This is equivalent to the relational algebra expression:

$$\Pi_{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n}(\sigma_P(r_1 \times r_2 \times \dots \times r_m))$$

• The result of an SQL query is a relation.



Banking example revisited

- Again we use the bank schema in subsequent examples
- branch (branch-name, branch-city, assets)
- customer (customer-name, customer-street, customer-city)
- account (branch-name, account-number, balance)
- loan (branch-name, loan-number, amount)
- depositor (customer-name,account-number)
- borrower (customer-name,loan-number)



The select clause

• The **select** clause corresponds to the projection operation of the relational algebra. It is used to list the attributes desired in the result of a query.

- E.g. find the names of all branches in the *loan* relation:
 select branch-name from loan
- In "pure" relational algebra syntax, this query would be: $\Pi_{branch-name}$ (loan)
- An asterisk (*) in the select clause denotes "all attributes": select * from loan
- SQL allows duplicates in relations as well as in query results. To force the elimination of duplicates, insert the keyword **distinct** after select.
 - E.g. find the names of all branches in the loan relation, and remove duplicates:
 select distinct branch-name from loan
- The keyword **all** specifies that duplicates will not be removed: **select all** *branch-name* **from** *loan*
- The select clause can also contain arithmetic expressions involving the operators, +, -, *, and /, operating on constants or attributes of tuples.
 - E.g. the following query returns the loan relation with the amount attribute multiplied by 100:
 select branch-name, loan-number, amount * 100 from loan

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The where clause

- The **where** clause corresponds to the selection predicate of the relational algebra. It consists of a predicate involving attributes of the relations that appear in the *from* clause.
 - Find all loan numbers for loans made at the Perryridge branch with loan amounts greater than \$1200:

select loan-number
from loan
where branch-name = "Perryridge" and amount > 1200

- SQL uses the logical connectives **and**, **or**, (and **not**). It allows the use of arithmetic expressions as operands to the comparison operators.
- SQL includes a **between** comparison operator in order to simplify *where* clauses that specify that a value be less than or equal to some value and greater than or equal to some other value.
 - Find the loan number of those loans with loan amounts between \$90,000 and \$100,000 (that is, \geq \$90,000 and \leq \$100,000)

select loan-number from loan
where amount between 90000 and 100000



The from clause

- The **from** clause corresponds to the Cartesian product operation of the relational algebra. It lists the relations to be scanned when evaluating the whole *select* expression.
- Find the Cartesian product borrower × loan:
 select * from borrower, loan
- Find the name and loan number of all customers having a loan at the Perryridge branch:

```
select distinct customer-name, borrower.loan-number
from borrower, loan
where borrower.loan-number = loan.loan-number and
    branch-name = "Perryridge"
```



The rename operation

• The SQL mechanism for renaming relations and attributes is accomplished through the **as** clause:

old-name as new-name

• Find the name and loan number of all customers having a loan at the Perryridge branch; replace the column name loan-number with the name lid.

select distinct customer-name, borrower.loan-number as lid
from borrower, loan
where borrower.loan-number = loan.loan-number and
 branch-name = "Perryridge"



Tuple variables

- **Tuple variables** are defined in the *from* clause via the use of the *as* clause.
- Find the customer names and their loan numbers for all customers having a loan at some branch.

select distinct *customer-name*, *T.loan-number* **from** *borrower* **as** *T*, *loan* **as** *S* **where** *T.loan-number* = *S.loan-number*

• Find the names of all branches that have greater assets than some branch located in Brooklyn.

select distinct T.branch-name
from branch as T, branch as S
where T.assets > S.assets and S.branch-city = "Brooklyn"



UU - П - UDBL 12

String operations

- SQL includes a string-matching operator for comparisons on character strings. Patterns are described using two special characters:
 - percent (%). The % character matches any substring.
 - underscore (_). The _ character matches any character.
- Find the names of all customers whose street includes the substring "Main":

select customer-name from customer where customer-street like "%Main%"

Match the name "Main%":

like "Main\%" escape "\"



Ordering the display of tuples

• List in alphabetic order the names of all customers having a loan at Perryridge branch:

- We may specify **desc** for descending order or **asc** for ascending order, for each attribute; ascending order is the default.
- SQL must perform a sort to fulfill an **order by** request. Since sorting a large number of tuples may be costly, it is desirable to sort only when necessary.

Set operations

- The set operations union, intersect, and except operate on relations and correspond to the relational algebra operations \cup , \cap , and -.
- Each of the above operations automatically eliminates duplicates; to retain all duplicates use the corresponding multiset (sets with duplicates) versions union all, intersect all and except all.
- Suppose a tuple occurs *m* times in *r* and *n* times in *s*, then, it occurs:
 - m + n times in r union all s
 - min(m, n) times in r intersect all s
 - $\max(0, m n)$ times in r except all s



UU - П - UDBL 15

Set operations cont.

• Find all customers who have a loan, an account, or both:

```
(select customer-name from depositor) union (select customer-name from borrower)
```

• Find all customers who have both a loan and an account:

```
(select customer-name from depositor) intersect (select customer-name from borrower)
```

• Find all customers who have an account but no loan:

```
(select customer-name from depositor)
except
(select customer-name from borrower)
```



Aggregate functions

• These functions operate on the multiset of values of a column of a relation, and return a value

avg
min
minimum value
max
sum
sum of values
count
average value
minimum value
maximum value
sum of values
number of values

• Find the average account balance at the Perryridge branch.

```
select avg (balance)
from account
where branch-name = "Perryridge"
```

• Find the number of tuples in the customer relation.

```
select count (*)
from customer
```

• Find the number of depositors in the bank

```
select count (distinct customer-name) from depositor
```



Aggregate functions - group by

• Find the number of depositors for each branch:

```
select branch-name, count (distinct customer-name)

from depositor, account

where depositor.account-number = account.account-number

group by branch-name
```

• Note: Attributes in select clause outside of aggregate functions must appear in group by list.



Aggregate functions - having

• Find the names of all branches where the average account balance is more than \$1,200

```
select branch-name, avg (balance)
from account
group by branch-name
having avg (balance) > 1200
```

• Note: predicates in the **having** clause are applied **after** the formation of groups



Null values

- It is possible for tuples to have a **null value**, denoted by *null*, for some of their attributes; null signifies an unknown value or that a value does not exist.

- The result of any arithmetic expression involving null is *null* and comparisons involving null return *unknown*:

```
(true or unknown) = true,

(false or unknown) = unknown,

(unknown or unknown) = unknown,

(true and unknown) = unknown,

(false and unknown) = false,

(unknown and unknown) = unknown
```

- Result of the **where** clause predicate is treated as *false* if it evaluates to *unknown* and "P is unknown" evaluates to *true* if predicate P evaluates to *unknown*.
- Find all loan numbers which appear in the loan relation with null values for amount:

select loan-number from loan where amount is null

– Find the total all loan amounts:

select sum (amount) from loan

- The statement above ignores null amounts; result is null if there is no non-null amount. All aggregate operations except **count(*)** ignore tuples with *null* values on the aggregated attributes.

Nested subqueries

- SQL provides a mechanism for the nesting of subqueries.
- A subquery is a select-from-where expression that is nested within another query.
- A common use of subqueries is to perform tests for set membership, set comparisons, and set cardinality.



Set membership

• $F \text{ in } r \Leftrightarrow \exists t \in r \land (t = F)$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
0 \\
4 \\
5
\end{array}) = true$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
0 \\
4 \\
6
\end{array}) = \text{false}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
(5 \text{ not in} & \begin{array}{c|c}
0 \\ 4 \\ 6 \end{array}) = \text{true}$$



Example query

Find all customers who have both an account and a loan at bank.

select distinct customer-name

from borrower

where customer-name in (select customer-name

from depositor)

• Find all customers who have a loan at the bank but do not have an account at the bank.

from borrower
where customer-name not in (select customer-name from depositor)



Example query

• Find all customers who have both an account and a loan at the Perryridge branch.



Set comparison

• Find all branches that have greater assets than some branch located in Brooklyn:

```
select distinct T. branch-name
from branch as T, branch as S
where T.assets > S.assets and S.branch-city = "Brooklyn"
```



UU - Π - UDBL 25

The some clause

• F <comp> some $r \Leftrightarrow \exists t \ (t \in r \land [F = <comp> t])$ where <comp> can be: <, \(\le \tau \rightarrow \rightarrow

(5 < some
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$
 = false
(5 = some $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ = true
(5 \Leftrightarrow some $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ true (since $0 \neq 5$)

• Also (= some) = in, but (\Leftrightarrow some) \neq not in



Example query

• Find all branches that have greater assets than some branch located in Brooklyn.



The all clause

• F <comp> all $r \Leftrightarrow \exists t \ (t \in r \land [F = <comp> t])$

$$(5 < \mathbf{all} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}) = \mathbf{false}$$

$$(5 < \mathbf{all} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}) = \mathbf{true}$$

$$(5 = \mathbf{all} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}) = \mathbf{false}$$

$$(5 < \mathbf{all} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}) = \mathbf{true} \text{ (since } 5 \neq 4, 6)$$

• Note that $(\Leftrightarrow all) = not in$, but $(= all) \neq in$



UU - Π - UDBL 28

Example query

• Find the names of all branches that have greater assets than all branches located in Brooklyn.



Test for empty relations

• The **exists** construct returns the value *true* if the argument subquery is nonempty.

- exists $r \Leftrightarrow r \neq \emptyset$
- not exists $r \Leftrightarrow r = \emptyset$



Example query

 Find all customers who have an account at all branches located in Brooklyn.



Test for absence of duplicate tuples

- The **unique** construct tests whether a subquery has any duplicate tuples in its result.
- Find all customers who have only one account at the Perryridge branch.



Another example query

• Find all customers who have at least two accounts at the Perryridge branch.



Derived relations

• Find the average account balance of those branches where the average account balance is greater than \$1200.

```
select branch-name, avg-balance
from (select branch-name, avg (balance)
     from account
     group by branch-name)
     as result (branch-name, avg-balance)
where avg-balance > 1200
```

• Note that we do not need to use the having clause, since we compute in the from clause the temporary relation result, and the attributes of result can be used directly in the where clause.



Views

• Provides a mechanism to hide certain data from the view of certain users. To create a view we use the command:

create view viewname as <query expression>

where: <query expression> is any legal expression.

• Create a view consisting of branches and their customers:

• Find all customers of the Perryridge branch:

```
select customer-name
from all-customer
where branch-name = "Perryridge"
```



UU - П - UDBL 35

Modifying the database - deletion

- Delete all account records at the Perryridge branch.
 delete from account where branch-name = "Perryridge"
- Delete all accounts at every branch located in Needham.

```
delete from depositor
where account-number in
   (select account-number
   from branch, account
   where branch-city = "Needham" and
        branch.branch-name = account.branch-name)
```



UU - П - UDBL 36

Example query

• Delete the records of all accounts with balances below the average at the bank.

delete from account
where balance < (select avg (balance) from account)</pre>

- Problem: as we delete tuples from deposit, the average balance changes
- Solution used in SQL:
 - 1. First, compute avg balance and find all tuples to delete
 - 2. Next, delete all tuples found above (without recomputing avg or retesting the tuples)



Modifying the database – insertion

- Add a new tuple to account insert into account values ("Perryridge", A-9732, 1200)
- or equivalently
 insert into account (branch-name, balance, account-number)
 values ("Perryridge", 1200, A-9732)
- Add a new tuple to account with balance set to null insert into account values ("Perryridge", A-777,null)



Modifying the database – insertion

• Provide as a gift for all loan customers of the Perryridge branch, a \$200 savings account. Let the loan number serve as the account number for the new savings account.

insert into account
select branch-name, loan-number, 200
from loan
where branch-name = "Perryridge"
insert into depositor
select customer-name, loan-number
from loan, borrower
where branch-name = "Perryridge"
and loan.account-number = borrower.account-number



Modifying the database – updates

- Increase all accounts with balances over \$10,000 by 6%, all other accounts receive 5%.
- Write two **update** statements:

```
update account
set balance = balance * 1.06
where balance > 10000
```

```
update account
set balance = balance * 1.05
where balance ≤ 10000
```

- The order is important.
- Can be done better using the case statement.



Update of a view

• Create a view of all loan data in the loan relation, hiding the amount attribute:

create view branch-loan as select branch-name, loan-number from loan

• Add a new tuple to branch-loan:

insert into branch-loan
values ("Perryridge", "L-307")

• This insertion must be represented by inserting into the loan relation the tuple:

("Perryridge", "L-307", null)

• Updates on more complex views are difficult or impossible to translate, and hence are disallowed.



Joined relations

- Join operations take two relations and return as a result another relation.
- These additional operations are typically used as subquery expressions in the **from** clause.
- Join **condition** defines which tuples in the two relations match, and what attributes are present in the result of the join.
- Join **type** defines how tuples in each relation that do not match any tuple in the other relation (based on the join condition) are treated.
- Join types
 - inner join
 - left outer join
 - right outer join
 - full outer join

Join conditions

natural

on predicate>

using $(A_1, A_2, ..., A_n)$



Joined relations datasets for examples

• Relation loan

branch-name	loan-number	amount
Downtown	L-170	3000
Redwood	L-230	4000
Perryridge	L-260	1700

• Relation borrower

customer-name	loan-number	
Jones Smith	1-170 L-230	
Hayes	L-155	



Joined relations – examples

loan inner join borrower on
loan.loan-number = borrower.loan-number

branch-name	loan-number	amount	customer-name	loan-number
Downtown	1-170	3000	Jones	1-170
Redwood	L-230	4000	Smith	L-230

loan **left outer join** *borrower* **on** *loan.loan-number* **=** *borrower.loan-number*

branch-name	loan-number	amount	customer-name	loan-number
Downtown	1-170	3000	Jones	1-170
Redwood	L-230	4000	Smith	L-230
Perryridge	L-260	1700	null	null



Joined relations – examples

loan natural inner join borrower

branch-name	loan-number	amount	customer-name
Downtown	1-170	3000	Jones
Redwood	L-230	4000	Smith

loan natural right outer join borrower

branch-name	loan-number	amount	customer-name
Downtown	L-170	3000	Jones
Redwood null	L-230 L-155	4000 <i>null</i>	Smith Hayes



Joined relations – examples

loan full outer join borrower using (loan-number)

branch-name	loan-number	amount	customer-name
Downtown	L-170	3000	Jones
Redwood	L-230	4000	Smith
Perryridge	L-260	1700	null
null	L-155	null	Hayes

• Find all customers who have either an account or a loan (but not both) at the bank.

select customer-name from (depositor natural full outer join borrower) where account-number is null or loan-number is null



Data Definition and Schema Evolution

- Data definition include the specification of a database *schema* as well as descriptors for each element in the schema including, tables, constraints, views, domains, indexes, and other contructs such as authorization and physical storage structures.
- Example:

create schema company authorization kjell;

• SQL also uses the *catalog* concept to refer to a named collection of schemas



Creating relations in SQL

- Relations or tables are created using the CREATE TABLE command that specifies a relation by name, attributes and constraints.
- Attributes have a name, a data type (its value domain) and possible constraints.
- Key, entity integrity, and referential integrity constraints can also be specified.



Data types and domains

- Data types in SQL:
 - **char(n).** Fixed length character string, with user-specified length n.
 - varchar(n). Variable length character strings, with user-specified maximum length n.
 - int. Integer (a finite subset of the integers that is machine-dependent).
 - **smallint.** Small integer (a machine-dependent subset of the integer domain type).
 - **numeric(p,d).** Fixed point number, with user-specified precision of p digits, with n digits to the right of decimal point.
 - **real, double precision.** Floating point and double-precision floating point numbers, with machine-dependent precision.
 - float(n). Floating point number, with user-specified precision of at least n digits.
 - date. Dates, containing a (4 digit) year, month and date.
 - time. Time of day, in hours, minutes and seconds.
- Null values are allowed in all the domain types. Declaring an attribute to be **not null** prohibits null values for that attribute.
- User-defined domain types can be explicitly defined in SQL-92 using a create domain statement that can be reused in defining relations:
 - create domain person-name char(20) not null



Create table construct

• An SQL relation is defined using the **create table** command:

```
create table r(A_1 D_1, A_2 D_2, ..., A_n D_n, integrity-constraint_1 i, ..., integrity-constraint_k i)
```

- r is the name of the relation
- each A_i is an attribute name in the schema of relation r
- D_i is the data type of values in the domain of attribute A_i
- Example:

```
create table branch
(branch-name char(15) not null,
branch-city char(30),
assets integer)
```



Integrity constraints create table

- not null
- primary key (A1,...,A n)
- **check** (*P*), where *P* is a predicate
- E.g. declare branch-name as the primary key for branch and ensure that the values of assets are non-negative.

```
create table branch
(branch-name char(15) not null,
branch-city char(30),
assets integer,
primary key (branch-name),
check (assets >= 0))
```

 primary key declaration on an attribute automatically ensures not null in SQL-92



Schema evolution

• The **drop schema** command deletes all information about the database schema from the database.

drop schema company cascade (restrict);

• The **drop table** command deletes all information about the dropped relation from the database.

drop table dependent cascade (restrict);



Schema evolution cont...

• The **alter table** command is used to add attributes to an existing relation. All tuples in the relation are assigned *null* as the value for the new attribute. The form of the alter table command is

alter table r add A D

where A is the name of the attribute be added to relation r and and D is the domain of A.

• The alter table command can also be used to drop attributes of a relation

alter table r drop A

where A is the name of an attribute of relation r.



Additional SQL features

- Granting and revoking priviligies for database security and authorization (ch 22)
- Embedded SQL and language bindings (C, C++, COBOL, Pascal)
- SQL transaction control commands to provide concurrency control and recovery (ch 19, 20, 21)
- A series of commands for physical database design (storage definition language SDL)



Duplicates

- In relations with duplicates, SQL can define how many copies of tuples appear in the result.
- Multiset versions of some of the relational algebra operators given multiset relations r1 and r2:
 - 1. If there are c_1 copies of tuple t_1 in r_1 , and t_1 satisfies selection σ_{θ} , then there are c_1 copies of t_1 in $\sigma_{\theta}(r_1)$.
 - 2. For each copy of tuple t_1 in r_1 , there is a copy of tuple $\Pi_A(t_1)$ in $\Pi_A(r_1)$, where $\Pi_A(t_1)$ denotes the projection of the single tuple t_1 .
 - 3. If there are c_1 copies of tuple t_1 in r_1 and c_2 copies of tuple t_2 in r_2 , there are $c_1 \times c_2$ copies of the tuple $t_1.t_2$ in $r_1 \times r_2$.



Duplicates cont.

• Suppose relations r_1 with schema (A,B) and r_2 with schema (C) are the following multisets:

$$r_1 = \{ (1,a),(2,a) \} r_2 = \{ (2),(3),(3) \}$$

- Then $\Pi_B(\mathbf{r}_1)$ would be $\{(a),(a)\}$, while $\Pi_B(\mathbf{r}_1) \times \mathbf{r}_2$ would be $\{(a,2),(a,2),(a,3),(a,3),(a,3),(a,3)\}$
- SQL duplicate semantics:

select
$$A_1$$
, A_2 , ..., A_n
from r_1 , r_2 , ..., r_m
where P

• is equivalent to the multiset version of the expression:

$$\Pi_{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n}(\sigma_P(r_1 \times r_2 \times \dots \times r_m))$$



SELECT expressions in SQL

- The **select** expression is the most common way to express queries in SQL. Using the schema customer(cname,balance) this might look like:
 - "Find the names of customers that owe you money."
 - select cname from customer where balance < 0
 - select customer.cname
 from customer
 where customer.balance < 0
 - select cname as kundnamn from customer as c
 where c.balance < 0

