



Unit 2- SQL

Subject Code: 303105203

Prof. S.W.Thakare
Assistant Professor,
Computer science & Engineering



CHAPTER-2

SQL



Structured Query Language(SQL)

- SQL stands for Structured Query Language
- SQL lets you access and manipulate databases
- SQL became a standard of the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) in 1986, and of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) in 1987



What Can SQL do?

- SQL can execute queries against a database
- SQL can retrieve data from a database
- SQL can insert records in a database
- SQL can update records in a database
- SQL can delete records from a database
- SQL can create new databases
- SQL can create new tables in a database
- SQL can create stored procedures in a database
- SQL can create views in a database
- SQL can set permissions on tables, procedures, and views

SQL Commands

- SQL commands are instructions. It is used to communicate with the database. It is also used to perform specific tasks, functions, and queries of data.

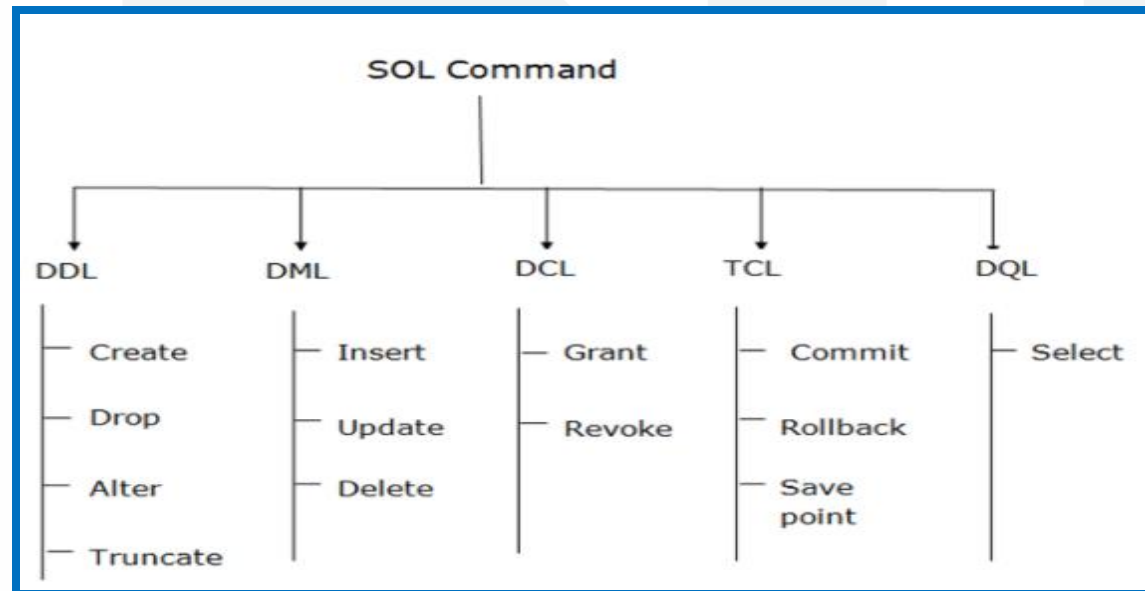


Figure: 1.24 SQL Commands

(Image Source :

<https://www.google.com/imgres?imgurl=https%3A%2F%2Fstatic.javatpoint.com%2Fdbms%2Fimages%2Fdbms-sql-command.png&imgrefurl=http>



Data Definition Language (DDL)

- DDL changes the structure of the table like creating a table, deleting a table, altering a table, etc.
- All the command of DDL are auto-committed that means it permanently save all the changes in the database.
- Here are some commands that come under DDL:
 1. CREATE
 2. ALTER
 3. DROP
 4. TRUNCATE



Data Definition Language (DDL Command)

1. **CREATE** It is used to create a new table in the database.

- **Syntax:**

- `CREATE TABLE TABLE_NAME (COLUMN_NAME DATATYPES[,....]);`

- **Example:**

- `CREATE TABLE EMPLOYEE(Name VARCHAR2(20), Email VARCHAR2(100), DOB DATE);`



Data Definition Language (DDL Command)

2. **DROP:** It is used to delete both the structure and record stored in the table.

- **Syntax**

- DROP TABLE ;

- **Example**

- DROP TABLE EMPLOYEE;



Data Definition Language (DDL Command)

3. **ALTER:** It is used to alter the structure of the database. This change could be either to modify the characteristics of an existing attribute or probably to add a new attribute.
 - **Syntax:**
 - **To add a new column in the table**
 - ALTER TABLE table_name ADD column_name COLUMN-definition;
 - **To modify existing column in the table:**
 - ALTER TABLE MODIFY(COLUMN DEFINITION....);
 - **EXAMPLE:**
 - ALTER TABLE STU_DETAILS ADD(ADDRESS VARCHAR2(20));
 - ALTER TABLE STU_DETAILS MODIFY (NAME VARCHAR2(20));



Data Definition Language (DDL Command)

4. **TRUNCATE:** It is used to delete all the rows from the table and free the space containing the table.

- **Syntax:**

- TRUNCATE TABLE table_name;

- **Example:**

- TRUNCATE TABLE EMPLOYEE;



Data Manipulation Language(DML)

- DML commands are used to modify the database. It is responsible for all form of changes in the database.
- The command of DML is not auto-committed that means it can't permanently save all the changes in the database. They can be rollback.
- Here are some commands that come under DML:
 1. INSERT
 2. UPDATE
 3. DELETE



Data Manipulation Language(DML Commands)

1. **INSERT:** The INSERT statement is a SQL query. It is used to insert data into the row of a table.
 - **Syntax:**
 - INSERT INTO TABLE_NAME (col1, col2, col3,.... col N)
VALUES (value1, value2, value3, valueN);
 - Or
 - INSERT INTO TABLE_NAME
VALUES (value1, value2, value3, valueN);
 - **For example:**
 - INSERT INTO BOOK (Author, Subject) VALUES ("Shital", "DBMS");

Data Manipulation Language(DML Commands)

2. **UPDATE:** This command is used to update or modify the value of a column in the table.

- **Syntax:**

- UPDATE table_name SET [column_name1= value1,...column_nameN = value N] [WHERE CONDITION]

- **For example:**

- UPDATE students SET User_Name = 'Shital' WHERE Student_Id = '3'



Data Manipulation Language(DML Commands)

3. **DELETE:** It is used to remove one or more row from a table.

- **Syntax:**

- DELETE FROM table_name [WHERE condition];

- **For example:**

- DELETE FROM Book WHERE Author="Shital";



Data Control Language(DCL)

- DCL commands are used to grant and take back authority from any database user.
- Here are some commands that come under DCL:
 1. Grant
 2. Revoke



Data Control Language(DCL Commands)

1. **Grant:** It is used to give user access privileges to a database.

- **Example**

- GRANT SELECT, UPDATE ON MY_TABLE TO SOME_USER, ANOTHER_USER;

2. **Revoke:** It is used to take back permissions from the user.

- **Example**

- REVOKE SELECT, UPDATE ON MY_TABLE FROM USER1, USER2;



Transaction Control Language(TCL)

- TCL commands can only use with DML commands like INSERT, DELETE and UPDATE only.
- These operations are automatically committed in the database that's why they cannot be used while creating tables or dropping them.
- Here are some commands that come under TCL:
 1. COMMIT
 2. ROLLBACK
 3. SAVEPOINT



Transaction Control Language(TCL Commands)

1. **Commit:** Commit command is used to save all the transactions to the database.

- **Syntax:-**COMMIT;
- **Example:**
 - DELETE FROM CUSTOMERS WHERE AGE = 25;
 - COMMIT;



Transaction Control Language(TCL Commands)

2. **Rollback:** Rollback command is used to undo transactions that have not already been saved to the database.

- **Syntax:-**ROLLBACK;
- **Example:**
 - DELETE FROM CUSTOMERS WHERE AGE = 25;
 - ROLLBACK;



Transaction Control Language(TCL Commands)

3. SAVEPOINT: It is used to roll the transaction back to a certain point without rolling back the entire transaction.

- **Syntax:-**SAVEPOINT SAVEPOINT_NAME;



Domain Types in SQL

Domain 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 *d* digits to the right of decimal point. (ex., **numeric(3,1)**, allows 44.5 to be stores exactly, but not 444.5 or 0.32)
- **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.



Domain Types in SQL

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

```
create table  $r$  ( $A_1 D_1, A_2 D_2, \dots, A_n D_n,$   
                (integrity-constraint1),  
                ...,  
                (integrity-constraintk))
```

- 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 instructor (  
    ID          char(5),  
    name        varchar(20),  
    dept_name varchar(20),  
    salary     numeric(8,2))
```



Update Table in SQL

Updates to tables

■ Insert

- **insert into** *instructor* **values** ('10211', 'Smith', 'Biology', 66000);

■ Delete

- Remove all tuples from the *student* relation
 - ▶ **delete from** *student*

■ Drop Table

- **drop table** *r*

■ Alter

- **alter table** *r* **add** *A D*
 - ▶ where *A* is the name of the attribute to be added to relation *r* and *D* is the domain of *A*.
 - ▶ All exiting tuples in the relation are assigned *null* as the value for the new attribute.
- **alter table** *r* **drop** *A*
 - ▶ where *A* is the name of an attribute of relation *r*
 - ▶ Dropping of attributes not supported by many databases.



SQL

Basic Query Structure

- A typical SQL query has the form:

```
select  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$   
from  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_m$   
where  $P$ 
```

- A_i represents an attribute
 - R_i represents a relation
 - P is a predicate.
- The result of an SQL query is a relation.



SQL

The select Clause

- The **select** clause lists the attributes desired in the result of a query
 - corresponds to the projection operation of the relational algebra
- Example: find the names of all instructors:
select *name*
from *instructor*
- NOTE: SQL names are case insensitive (i.e., you may use upper- or lower-case letters.)
 - E.g., *Name* \equiv *NAME* \equiv *name*
 - Some people use upper case wherever we use bold font.



SQL

- SQL allows duplicates in relations as well as in query results.
- To force the elimination of duplicates, insert the keyword **distinct** after select.
- Find the department names of all instructors, and remove duplicates

```
select distinct dept_name  
from instructor
```

- The keyword **all** specifies that duplicates should not be removed.

```
select all dept_name  
from instructor
```



SQL

- An asterisk in the select clause denotes “all attributes”

```
select *  
from instructor
```

- An attribute can be a literal with no **from** clause

```
select '437'
```

- Results is a table with one column and a single row with value “437”
- Can give the column a name using:

```
select '437' as FOO
```

- An attribute can be a literal with **from** clause

```
select 'A'  
from instructor
```

- Result is a table with one column and *N* rows (number of tuples in the *instructors* table), each row with value “A”



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- The **select** clause can contain arithmetic expressions involving the operation, $+$, $-$, $*$, and $/$, and operating on constants or attributes of tuples.

- The query:

```
select ID, name, salary/12  
from instructor
```

would return a relation that is the same as the *instructor* relation, except that the value of the attribute *salary* is divided by 12.

- Can rename “*salary/12*” using the **as** clause:

```
select ID, name, salary/12 as monthly_salary
```



SQL

The where Clause

- The **where** clause specifies conditions that the result must satisfy
 - Corresponds to the selection predicate of the relational algebra.
- To find all instructors in Comp. Sci. dept

```
select name
from instructor
where dept_name = 'Comp. Sci.'
```
- Comparison results can be combined using the logical connectives **and**, **or**, and **not**
 - To find all instructors in Comp. Sci. dept with salary > 80000



SQL

The from Clause

- The **from** clause lists the relations involved in the query
 - Corresponds to the Cartesian product operation of the relational algebra.
- Find the Cartesian product *instructor X teaches*

```
select *  
from instructor, teaches
```

 - generates every possible instructor – teaches pair, with all attributes from both relations.
 - For common attributes (e.g., *ID*), the attributes in the resulting table are renamed using the relation name (e.g., *instructor.ID*)
- Cartesian product not very useful directly, but useful combined with where-clause condition (selection operation in relational algebra).



SQL

Modification of the Database

- Deletion of tuples from a given relation.
- Insertion of new tuples into a given relation
- Updating of values in some tuples in a given relation



SQL

Insertion

- Add a new tuple to *course*

```
insert into course  
values ('CS-437', 'Database Systems', 'Comp. Sci.', 4);
```

- or equivalently

```
insert into course (course_id, title, dept_name, credits)  
values ('CS-437', 'Database Systems', 'Comp. Sci.', 4);
```

- Add a new tuple to *student* with *tot_creds* set to null

```
insert into student  
values ('3003', 'Green', 'Finance', null);
```




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Deletion

- Delete all instructors

```
delete from instructor
```

- Delete all instructors from the Finance department

```
delete from instructor  
where dept_name = 'Finance';
```

- Delete all tuples in the *instructor* relation for those instructors associated with a department located in the Watson building.

```
delete from instructor  
where dept name in (select dept name  
                        from department  
                        where building = 'Watson');
```



SQL

Updates

- Increase salaries of instructors whose salary is over \$100,000 by 3%, and all others by a 5%
 - Write two **update** statements:

```
update instructor
set salary = salary * 1.03
where salary > 100000;
update instructor
set salary = salary * 1.05
where salary <= 100000;
```
 - The order is important
 - Can be done better using the **case** statement (next slide)

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