MySQL Assignment



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DATA Cohort 1 DEFW4

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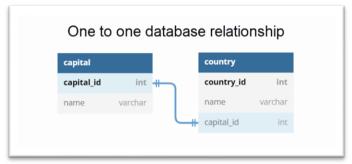
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TASK 1: LIST THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF RELATIONSHIPS IN RELATIONAL DATABASES AND PROVIDE EXAMPLES.

DEFINITION: A relational database is a type of database that focuses on the relation between stored data elements. It allows users to establish links between different sets of data within the database and use these links to manage and reference related data.

ONE - To - ONE (1:1)

A one-to-one relational database contains data in a form that a single record in one table will relate to only one record in the other table. The diagram below shows this type of relationship:



The above diagram illustrates the concept of one-to-one relationships in databases, using the example of countries and their capital cities. This relationship is typically represented within a single table, as creating a second table for a single value is unnecessary.

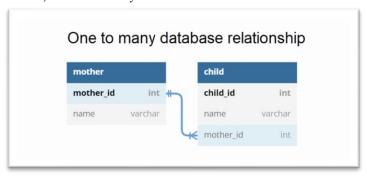
However, there are situations where a one-to-one relational database can be beneficial. It can be thought of as vertically partitioning a table. This approach can save time, memory, and processing power if the data field isn't frequently used, as it doesn't need to be cached.

Also, if the data isn't fully populated or poses a security risk, separating it might be a wise decision. Lastly, for usability purposes, if a table has numerous columns (100), splitting it could make it more manageable.

ONE to ONE RELATIONAL DATABASE		
Advantages	Disadvantages	
Data Streamlining: Utilizing one-to-one relationships can aid in data normalization. This is achieved by dividing a table with numerous columns into two distinct tables with fewer columns, thereby minimizing data duplication and enhancing data uniformity.	Complexity: One-to-one relationships can introduce complexity into the database schema, making it more challenging to manage.	
Security Measures: One-to-one relationships can be used to house sensitive or classified information in a separate table. This table can then be safeguarded with stricter access controls for better security.	Data Retrieval: One-to-one relationships require the use of joins to fetch related data, which could be slower than querying a single table.	
Performance Enhancement: One-to-one relationships can boost query performance. By reducing the column count in a table, indexing becomes more efficient, leading to improved performance.	Storage Implications: One-to-one relationships can escalate storage needs by generating additional tables.	

ONE - To - MANY (1: N)

A one-to-many entry in a database, has one entry on one side and many entries in the other side of the link. As can be seen in the illustration below, the relationship between mother and child is a one-to-many one. A mother can have many children, but a child only has one mother.



In the example above the mother_id is a primary key in the mother table, but a foreign key in the child table (where it is no longer unique, as many children can be linked to this id). This relationship is mandatory at both ends, to be a mother there must be a child, child will always have a mother.

ONE To MANY RELATIONSHIP		
Advantages Data Streamlining: One-to-many relationships can facilitate data normalization by dividing a table into two distinct tables with fewer columns. This can aid in minimizing data duplication and enhancing data uniformity.	Disadvantages Data Access: One-to-many relationships necessitate the use of joins to fetch related data, which could be slower than querying a single table.	
Ease of Use: One-to-many relationships are straightforward to comprehend and implement, making them an excellent choice for beginners.	Storage Considerations: One-to-many relationships can increase storage needs by generating additional tables.	
Performance Enhancement: One-to-many relationships can boost query performance by reducing the column count in a table, leading to more efficient indexing.	Complexity: One-to-many relationships can introduce complexity into the database schema, making it more challenging to manage.	

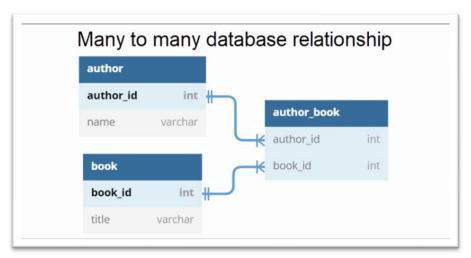
MANY-To-MANY (N: N)

Many-to-many relationships in a database have **multiple entries on both ends** of the relationship. Since many entries can exist on both ends, a common solution is to create a **bridging** table with foreign keys from both tables.

Many-to-many relationships are commonly used with relational databases and in web technologies, such as ecommerce websites.

A many-to-many relationship exists between books and authors. For example, a single book can have many authors and a single author can have numerous books.

If there is a table with books and another with authors, the best way to make a relationship between the two is through a **new table**. The new table has foreign keys from both parent tables, creating a many-to-many relationship.



Performing different types of JOIN queries fetches data from both tables efficiently while protecting the original tables from redundancies.

MANY to MANY Relationship		
Advantages	Disadvantages	
Data Organization: Many-to-many relationships can aid in data normalization by splitting a table with many columns into two separate tables with fewer columns. This can help reduce data redundancy and improve data consistency.	Complexity: Many-to-many relationships can increase the complexity of the database schema, making it more difficult to manage.	
Comprehensive Support: Relational databases and SQL provide extensive support for many-to-many relationships.	Data Retrieval: These relationships require joins to access related data, which could be slower than querying a single table	
User Accessibility: Relationships improve usability for end users and help uphold data integrity.	Data Uncertainty and Replication: These relationships can lead to uncertainty and duplications in data that may result in incorrect query statements.	

TASK 2: NORMALISATION – WHAT IS IT AND WHY IS IT IMPORTANT TO DATABSE DEVELOPMENT

Data normalization is a method of structuring data in a database to minimize redundancy and enhance data consistency. The steps to normalize data for a database:

- 1. **Entity Identification**: Recognise the entities that you wish to store in the database. An entity is an object that holds significance to your application, such as customers, orders, or products.
- 2. **Table Creation for Each Entity**: Create a table for each entity and define the columns that you wish to store in the table. Each column should represent a single attribute of the entity.
- 3. **Primary Key Definition**: Assign a primary key for each table. A primary key is a column or set of columns that uniquely identifies each record in the table.
- 4. **Relationship Identification**: Determine the relationships between the tables. Relationships are formed through primary keys and foreign keys.
- 5. **Table Normalization**: Normalize the tables by applying normalization rules to eliminate redundancy and enhance data consistency. There are several normal forms, such as 1NF to 5NF (1NF to 3NF are illustrated with examples later)
- 6. View Creation: Construct views to simplify complex queries and enhance performance.
- 7. **Database Testing**: Examine the database to ensure that it functions as expected and meets your requirements.

Normalisation is a process that optimizes database structure by reducing data redundancy and enhancing data integrity. It is a set of rules and guidelines that help organize data efficiently and prevent common data anomalies like update anomalies, insertion anomalies, and deletion anomalies. Normalization is typically divided into several stages.

Normalization is typically divided into several levels, referred to as normal forms. The typical normal forms are:

- 1. **First Normal Form (1NF)**: Ensures that each column in a table contains atomic, single(indivisible) values. There should be no repeating groups, and each column should have a unique name.
- 2. **Second Normal Form (2NF)**: Building on 1NF, 2NF eliminates partial dependencies. A table is in 2NF if it's in 1NF and all non-key attributes are functionally dependent on the entire primary key.
- 3. **Third Normal Form (3NF)**: Building on 2NF, 3NF eliminates transitive dependencies. A table is in 3NF if it's in 2NF and all non-key attributes are functionally dependent on the primary key, but not on other non-key attributes.
- 4. **Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF)**: A stricter version of 3NF, BCNF ensures that every non-trivial functional dependency is a super key. This means that no partial dependencies or transitive dependencies are allowed.
- 5. **Fourth Normal Form (4NF)**: 4NF deals with multi-valued dependencies, where an attribute depends on another attribute but is not a function of the primary key.
- 6. **Fifth Normal Form (5NF)** (or Project-Join Normal Form, PJNF): These forms deal with cases where a table is in 4NF, but there are join dependencies that can be further optimized.

1NF (First Normal Form): A table is in 1NF if it contains atomic values, meaning each cell holds only one value. There are no duplicate rows. For example:

This Table not in 1NF because it has multiple values in each cell of the subject field.

This table is now in 1NF as each cell only holds one value

				0 0 . 01- 01- 0		
StudentID	name	subject		StudentID	name	subject
1	Sally	Maths, Science	\Longrightarrow	1	Sally	Maths
2	Graham	Maths, History		1	Sally	Science
			\rightarrow	2	Graham	Maths
				2	Graham	History

<u>2NF (Second Normal Form)</u>: In the table below, "Name" is dependent on "StudentID", but "Teacher" is dependent on "Subject", not "StudentID". For example:

StudentID	name	subject	teacher
1	Sally	Maths	Mr Blue
1	Sally	Science	Ms Green
2	Graham	Maths	Mr Blue
2	Graham	History	Mr Grey

A table is in 2NF if it is in 1NF, and all non-key attributes are fully functionally dependent on the primary key. To convert it to 2NF, we would move the "Teacher" column to a separate table that relates subjects to teachers.

To Normalise this to 2NF we need to split the table into two tables:

These 2 tables now are in 2NF, each non-key attribute is dependent on a primary key

	attribute is dependent of		
I	StudentID	name	subject
I	1	Sally	Maths
I	1	Sally	Science
I	2	Graham	English
I	2	Graham	Maths

subject	teacher
Maths	Mr. Blue
Science	Ms. Green
History	Mr. Grey

3NF (Third Normal Form): A table is in 3NF if it satisfies the rules for 2NF, and no transitive dependency exists. An

example of a transitive dependency would be:

employeeID	name	departmentID	departmentName
1	Mr Blue	101	Maths
2	Ms Green	102	Science
3	Ms Pink	101	Maths

In this table, the "DepartmentName" is dependent on the "DepartmentID", not directly on the "EmployeeID". This is an example of a transitive dependency because "DepartmentName" is not directly dependent on the primary key ("EmployeeID"), but rather on another column in the table.

To convert this table to 3NF, we move the "DepartmentName" to a separate table that relates departments to their IDs.

Employee Table		
employeeID	name	departmentID
1	Mr Blue	101
2	Ms Green	102
3	Ms Pink	101

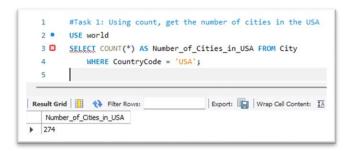
Department Table	
DepartmentID	Department name
101	Maths
102	Science

Each non-key attribute in each table (Name and DepartmentID in the Employee table, and DepartmentName in the Department table) is dependent on the primary key. Therefore, both these tables are in 3NF.

In summary, normalisation is very important to database development because it helps to reduce duplicated data, which reduces storage overhead. Having only one piece of data in one place ensures that if you need to update or delete it then it can be done easily and accurately. Rather than having to go to many places to make these changes. A well defined and organized database can improve query performance as well as the speed and simplifying the query process. This is especially crucial to databases with very large sets of data.

MYSQL TASKS:

TASK 1: Using count, get the number of cities in the USA

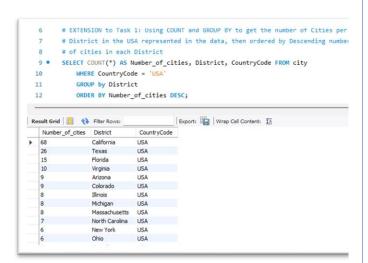


As an extension to this task, Count has been used on the table 'city' and grouped by district to show the number of cities in each district

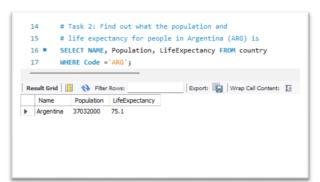
← Count * is used on the city table in the USA. I have Used 'AS' to make the label on the result table more meaningful.

COUNT * is used preferably to say COUNT (CountryCode) because a database can often count rows by accessing an index which is faster than accessing the table-column or just return a row count. Accessing the table-column is slower because it will first check for nulls and only return a count of non-null values.

In this example there was no difference as CountryCode is defined as NOT NULL $\,$

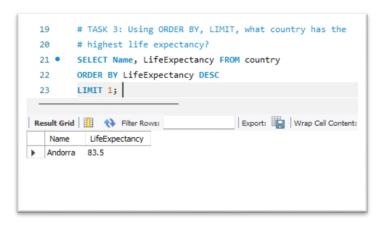


Task 2: Find out what the population and life expectancy for people in Argentina (ARG) is



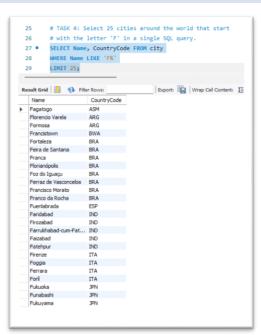
Here a simple SELECT statement is used to return Population and LifeExpectancy from the country table (which holds the Population data for the whole country). The WHERE command allows us to limit the results so that the only results returned are those where the Code value matches the string 'ARG'. In this case there was only one entry for Argentina.

TASK 3: Using ORDER BY, LIMIT, what country has the highest life expectancy?



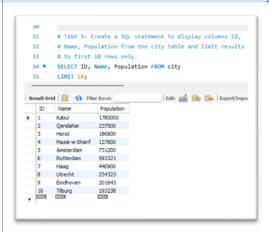
This query returns Name and LifeExpectancy from the country table but uses a descending sort (DESC) to show the Highest life expectancy at the top of the results returned and then LIMIT is used to only return a certain number of results, in this example only 1 result is returned.

TASK 4: Select 25 cities around the world that start with the letter 'F' in a single SQL query.



Here the LIKE operator is used when you only want to specify a subset of letter(s) from that string to find the values needed. LIKE can be used in conjunction with '%' symbol to allow any characters to follow 'F'

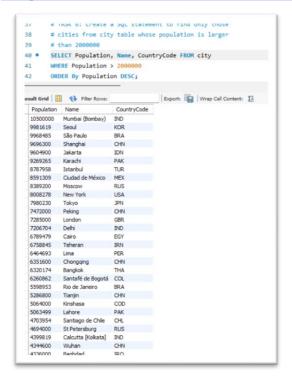
TASK 5: Create a SQL statement to display columns Id, Name, Population from the city table and limit results to first 10 rows only.

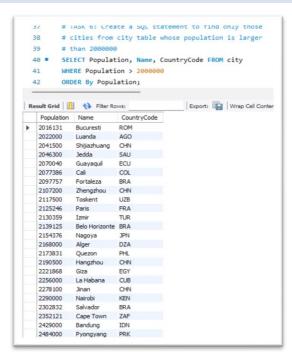


Here LIMIT restricts the results returned to the first 10 rows,

The rows that are returned here can be altered by ordering the results in a different way, here they have been ordered by ID by MYSQL (which tends to order by the first table column values regardless of whether the first column in the table is returned as part of the SQL statement). The only way to guarantee the table is ordered by a certain field is to use ORDER BY.

TASK 6: Create a SQL statement to find only those cities from city table whose population is larger than 2000000

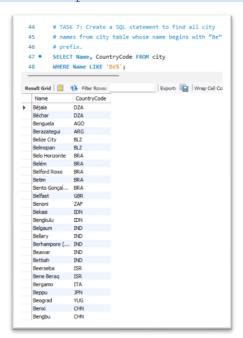




This table shows the highest population at the top as it has been sorted DESC.

This table shows the lowest population at the top as it has been sorted ASC by default

TASK 7: Create a SQL statement to find all city names from city table whose name begins with "Be" prefix.



Here the LIKE command looks for anything starting 'Be' followed by any character which is denoted by the % symbol.

TASK 8: Create a SQL statement to find only those cities from city table whose population is between 500000-1000000.



Here the BETWEEN operator returns all values inclusive of the boundary values in the conditional statement.

TASK 9: Create a SQL statement to find a city with the lowest population in the city table

Below are two different queries to get the same result:

This query orders by the population (from lowest to highest) but only returns one value due to the LIMIT operator. This query is faster than the alternative on the right if the data is already sorted and the data set is very big, for small data sets the difference in time taken is negligible.

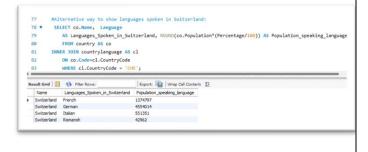


In the second SELECT statement we assign to Population a value that is the minimum in the table, then the first SELECT statement returns that as a result. This has the advantage that if there were more than one country with the same minimum Population value, you would see them all. This method also does not need to sort the data and is more efficient for a large data set.

TASK 10: Create a SQL statement to show the population of Switzerland and all the languages spoken there.

Here a table join is made to access data from both tables.

The GROUP_CONCAT allows the languages all to be shown in one row. The second example does not use GROUP_CONCAT but shows the languages in separate table rows, which allows clear display of the number of people speaking that language by population.



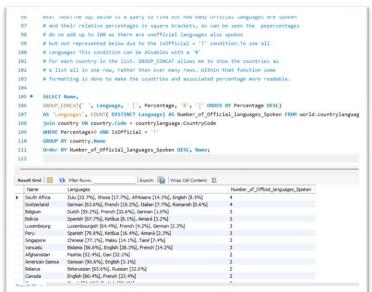
OTHER EXTENSION (FURTHER LEARNING) TASKS WITH DIFFERENT SQL QUERIES:

This query shows Language and the countries that

Language is spoken in. A table join allows data from two tables and GROUP_CONCAT allows countries to be showed in one row.

EXT TASK: Create a SQL statement to show Languages 94 # and what countries they are spoken in. 95 • SELECT cl.Language, GROUP_CONCAT(DISTINCT co.Name SEPARATOR ', ') 96 AS Countries_speaking_this_language FROM country AS co 97 INNER JOIN countrylanguage AS cl 98 ON co.Code=cl.CountryCode 99 GROUP BY cl.Language; Export: Wrap Cell Content: IA Countries_speaking_this_language [South]Mande Côte d'Ivoire Abhyasi Acholi Uganda Adja Benin Djibouti, Eritrea Namibia, South Africa Afrikaans Ainu Japan Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana Akan Albaniana Albania, Italy, Macedonia, Yugosl... Amhara Ethiopia

This query uses GROUP BY country Name to show the Official languages spoken in that Country along with the percentage representation of that language in the country. The COUNT gives the number of official languages due to the boolean condition in the WHERE statement as T is True for language being official.



This query shows the number of languages spoken in each country \blacksquare

This query calculates the number of people who speak each language around the world. This is calculated from the percentage of each population speaking that language which is then aggregated, divided by 1000 to give a smaller number with K added to the end to denote' thousands'. Ideally this query should return results in billions, millions or thousands.

```
114 #This query returns the number of people speaking a certain language around the world
115 # The number of people speaking that language per country is aggregated to give a whole world figure.
116 * SEECT Language, CONTROLOGOUGUE (FORTCHASE / 1989) * (*) As number_speaking_language_around_the_world FROM country
117 join countrylanguage ON country.(code = countrylanguage.CountryCode
118 | MEER Fercentage > 0 | Countrylanguage (*) Countrylanguage.CountryCode
119 GROUP BY Language
110 GROUP BY Language
110 GROUP BY Language
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110 Impute | Countrylanguage, provid_pa_world
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The queries above make use of formatting techniques, concatenation and some simple calculations to show different data, and data from different perspectives such as language or country.

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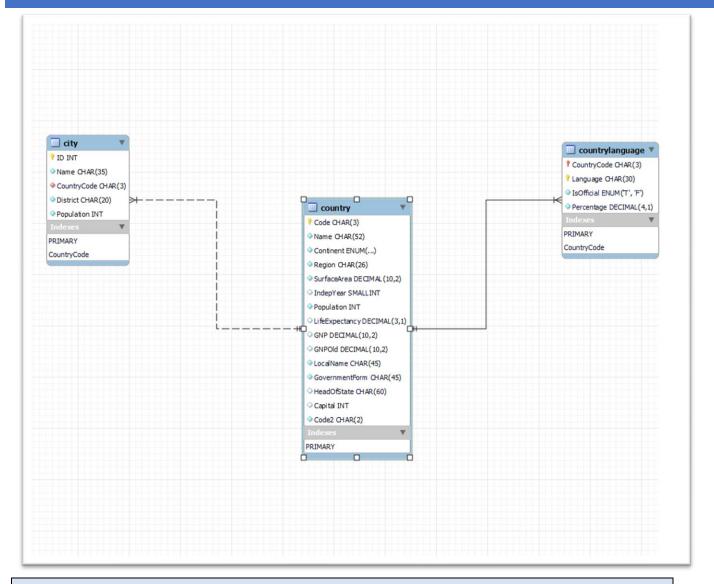
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This Query illustrates 3 tables joined together to show country, district count & language count.

EER DIAGRAM:



Key to the different symbols in the EER diagram above:

In MySQL Workbench, the different coloured keys and symbols next to the fields in a database table have the following meanings: This symbol indicates that the field is only a primary key



A blue lined filled diamond indicates that it's a NOT NULL simple attribute





A blue lined not filled diamond indicates that it's a simple attribute which can be NULL



A red colored filled diamond indicates that it's a NOT NULL foreign key



A red colored key indicates that it's a primary key which is also a foreign key

Task 14:

Identify the primary key in country table: The primary key in the 'country' table is 'Code' which holds unique values for each row in its own table.

Identify the primary key in city table: The primary key in the 'city' table is 'ID" – which holds unique values for each row in its own table.

Identify the primary key in countrylanguage table: The primary key in 'countrylanguage' table is a composite of 'Language' & 'CountryCode'. The combination of these two fields gives a unique key. Languages and CountryCode are not unique and are in fact both repeated in this table, but together they form a unique composite key.

Identify the foreign key in city table: The foreign key in the 'city' table is 'CountryCode' which holds unique values for each row in its own table.

Identify the foreign key in countrylanguage table: The foreign key in 'countrylanguage' table is 'CountryCode' which holds unique values for each row in its table.

REFLECTION:

This assignment has helped me greatly to practice my SQL coding skills from lessons and learn many new features outside of the taught course content. The data set was good to work with as it was possible to perform some mathematical operations within the SQL query, which was good practice. Trying different ways to reach the same result was also helpful to gain better understanding of how different commands work. I also tried new ways of formatting and representing the results. This was all new and was initially a very good exercise in learning how to debug when there were syntax anomalies. I can better understand the SQL reference documentation for different commands and am now confident that I can learn new SQL skills faster.

The assignment has consolidated the course content on the different types of relational database relationships and Normalisation which is a much more complex topic than I had first thought. Moving forward from this assignment I would like to practice my SQL with much larger data sets, as the data set for this assignment and others that we have come across so far have been small. Practicing on a very large data set will make it easier to understand the different ways to optimise a query whilst considering processing speeds, memory use and other aspects, as well as the other difficulties associated with a very large data set. I would also like to learn database testing, which has been outside of the remit of this course. I plan to learn/practice more SQL and possibly get a certification as I have enjoyed the practical problem-solving part of this course module. I did not find the SQL coding part of this assignment stretched my SQL skills but enjoyed including some extension tasks. I did find the topic on normalization quite tricky, and I will be revisiting the topic again especially Normalisation forms 4NF and 5NF.