

Practical No. 07

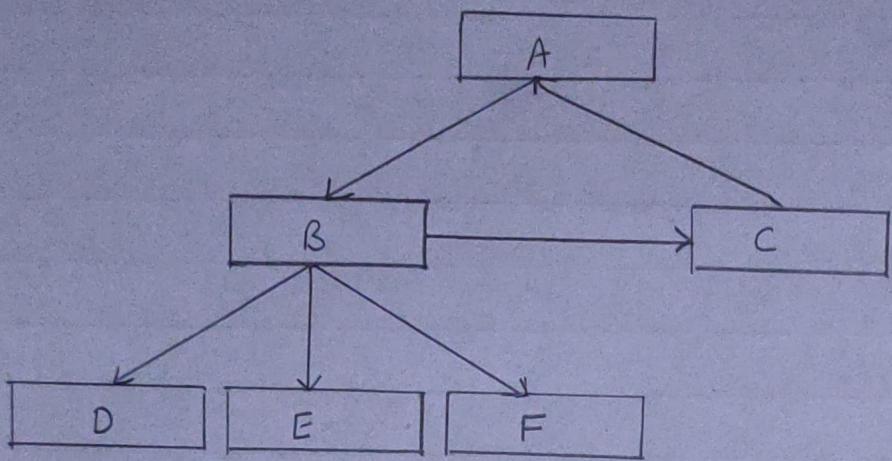
- * Aim : Design database using Network Model, Hierarchical model, Relational model and E-R model
- * Theory :

Database model -

A database model is a type of model that determines the logical structure of a database and fundamentally determines in which manner data can be stored, organised and manipulated. The most popular example of database model is relational model.

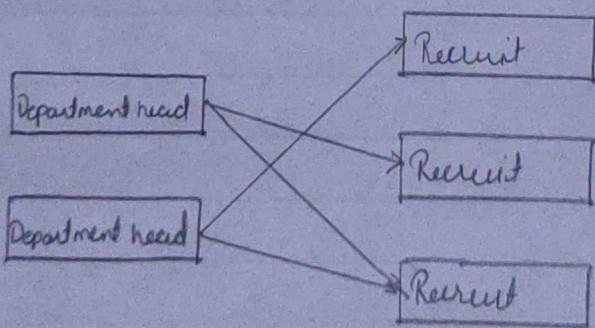
Network model -

- This model uses pointers towards data but there is no need of parent to child association so it does not necessarily use a downward tree structure.
- This model is used in network database.
- This database model is similar to hierarchical model up to some aspects.
- There are some concepts involved in network model as follows:
 - i) SET - A relationship between any two record types is called as a set.
 - ii) Record - ① Owner record is like parent record in hierarchical model
② Parent record is like child record in hierarchical model



NETWORK MODEL

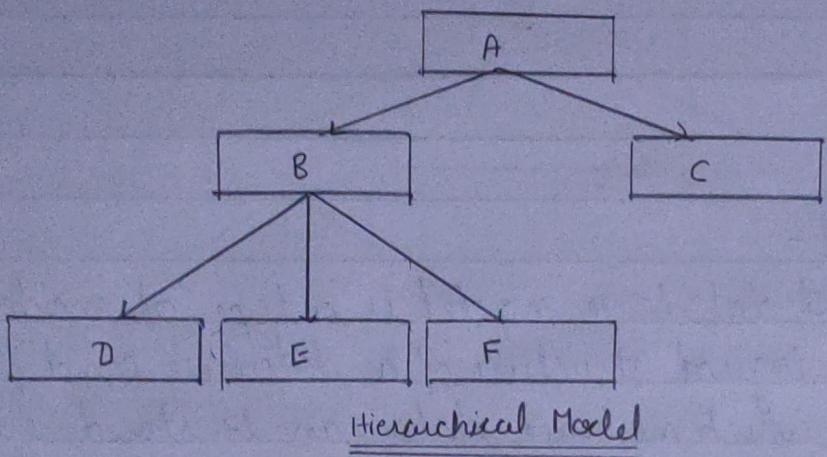
Example: Two department heads giving instruction to the new recruits!



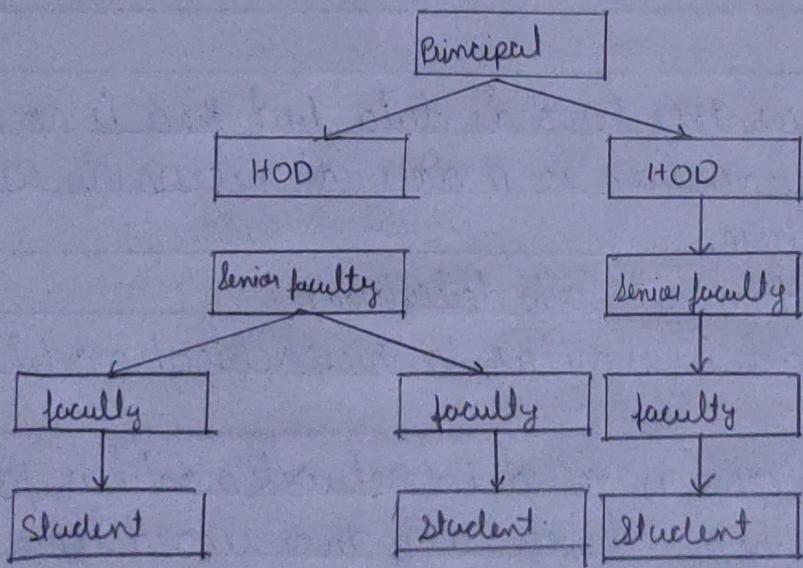
- A relationship model can be 1:N, or M:N relationship.

Hierarchical Model -

- It was developed by joint efforts of IBM and North American Rockwell known as Information Management System.
- It was the first DBMS model.
- The data is stored hierarchically, either in top down or bottom up approach of designing.
- This model uses pointers to navigate between stored data.
- This model represents data as a hierarchical tree.
- This business rule of the Hierarchical model states that one parent node may have many child nodes, but one child node cannot have more than one parent.
- Advantages of hierarchical model
 - ① Conceptual simplicity.
 - ② Simple creation, update and access.
 - ③ Database security.
 - ④ Database integrity.
 - ⑤ Data independence.
 - ⑥ Efficiency.
- Disadvantages of hierarchical model.
 - ① Complex implementation.
 - ② Difficult to manage.
 - ③ Lack of structural independence.
 - ④ Complex application programming.
 - ⑤ Limitations in implementation.



Example: Let us consider simple organisational structure.



Relational model -

- The relational model was first proposed by E.F. Codd hence.
- Relational database was an attempt to simplify database by making use of tables and columns.
- Tables are known as 'relations'.
- Columns are known as 'attributes'.
- Rows are known as 'tuples'.
- A relational database is a collection of 2-dimensional tables consisting of rows and columns.
- This model uses collection of tables to represent relationships amongst the data.
- In this model, each database item is viewed as record with attributes.
- A set of records with similar attributes is called a table. Each table contains a record of a particular type.

Row →

Column ↓

	Value		

Table

Relational model

ER model -

- ER model stands for entity-relationship model.
- It is a high level data model.
- This model is used to define the data elements and relationships for a specified system.
- It develops a conceptual design for the database.
- It also develops a very simple and easy to design view of data.
- In E-R modeling, the database structure is portrayed as a diagram called an entity relationship diagram.
- The components of ER diagram are:

- (1) Entity
- (2) Attribute
- (3) Relationship

- (1) Entity :

An entity may be any object, class, person or place. It can be represented as rectangles in ER diagrams.

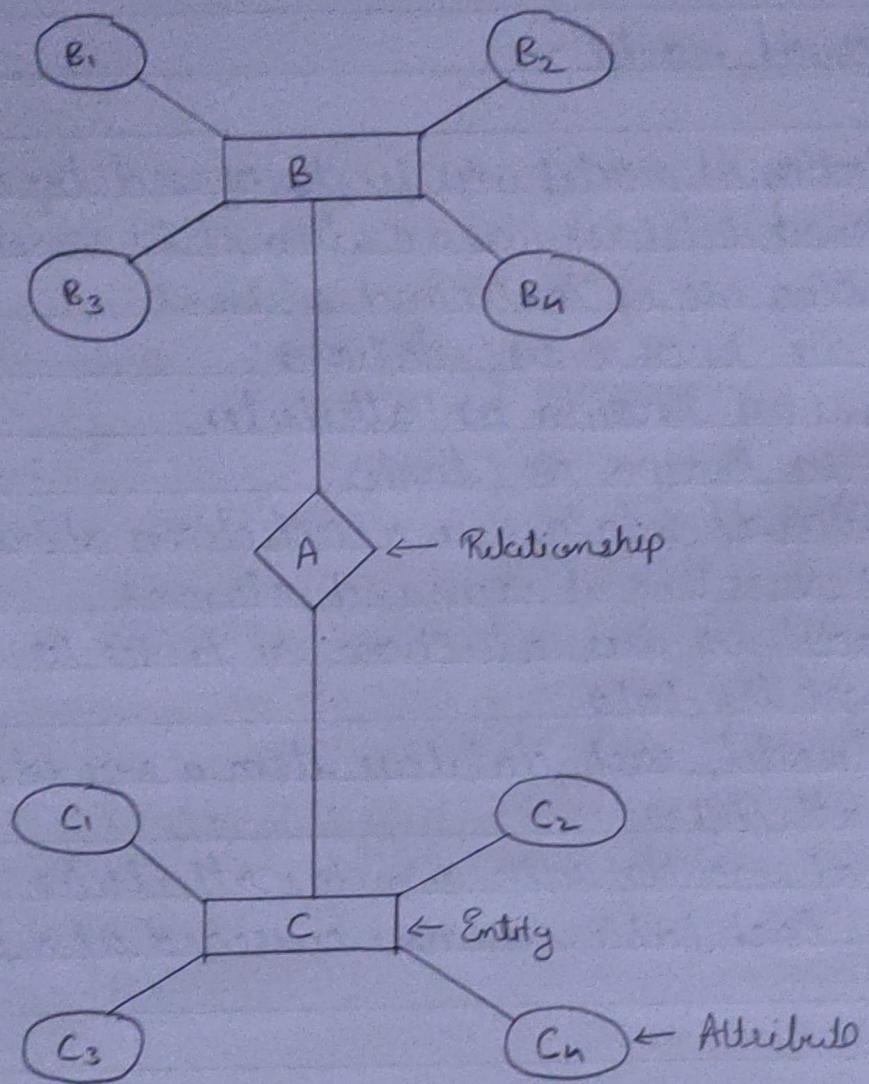
(2) Attribute :

The attribute is used to describe the property of an entity.

Eclipse is used to represent an attribute.

(3) Relationships :

(3) A relationship is used to describe the relation between entities. Diamonds or rhombus is used to represent relationship.

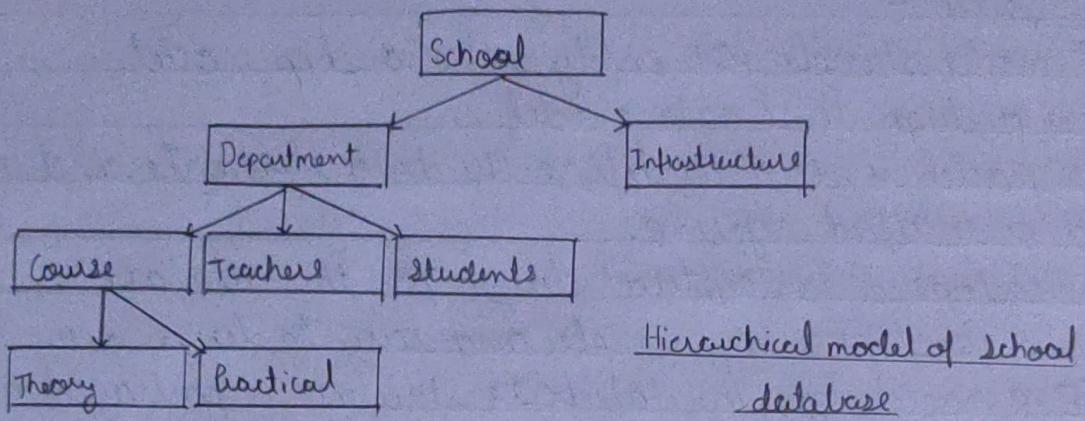


ER Model (Entity-Relationship-Model)

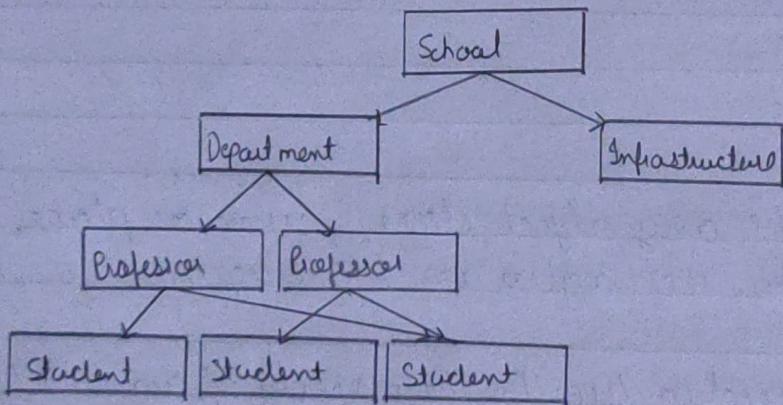
Compare Network and Hierarchical Model.

Hierarchical Model	Network model
① Relationship between record is of parent child type.	① Relationship between records is expressed in the form of pointers or links.
② It can have data inconsistency during updation and deletion of the data.	② No data inconsistency.
③ Traversing of data is complex.	③ Data traversing is easy because node can be accessed from parent to child or child to parent.
④ It does not support many to many relationship.	④ It supports many to many relationship.
⑤ It creates tree like structure	⑤ It creates graph like structure.

Problem statement 1: Design school database by Hierarchical Model.



Problem statement 2: Design school database by Network model.



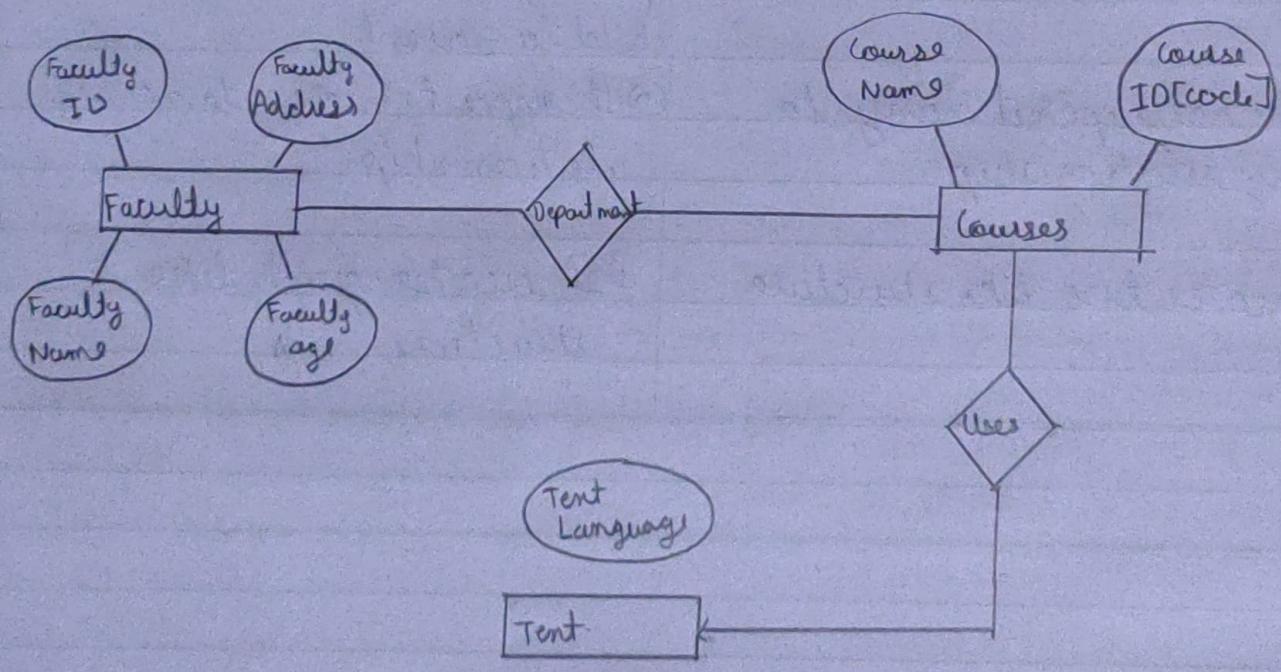
Network model of School Database

Problem Statement 3: Design School Database by Relation Model

Employees

Roll No.	First Name	Last Name	Department
18G21	Naruto	Uzumaki	Leaf
18G22	Gaara	Yugawa	Sand
18G23	Killer Bee	Bee	Clouds
18G24	Itachi	Uchiha	Leaf
18G25	Zabuza	Momochi	Mist

Problem Statement 4: Design School Database by relational Model



Conclusion:

Hence, I designed a database of school system using Network model, Hierarchical model, Relational model and ER model.

Practical No. 02

dim: Identify entities, attributes, Tuple, Domains and Prime keys available in above created model

Theory:

- What is an entity?

→ An entity can be a real world object, either animate or inanimate, that can easily be identifiable. For example, in a school database student, teacher, classes and courses offered can be considered as entities. All these entities have some attributes or properties that give them their identity.

An entity set is a collection of similar types of entities.

- What is an attribute?

→ Entities are represented by means of their properties, called attributes. All attributes have value. For example an employee may have name, age, salary, etc. as the value, i.e. as their attribute.

There exists a domain or range of values that can be assigned to attributes. For example, a student's name cannot be a numeric value. It has to be alphabetic. A student's age cannot be negative, etc.

- What is a tuple?

→ A table has rows and columns, where rows represent records and columns represent attributes.

Tuple is a single row of table, which contains a single record for that relation. A finite set of tuples in the relational database system represents relational instance.

- What is a domain?

→ A table in DBMS is a set of rows and columns that contain data. Columns in a table have a unique name, often referred as attributes in DBMS.

A domain is a unique set of values permitted for an attribute in a table. For example, a domain of month-of-a-year can accept January, February, ... December as possible values.

- What is a prime key?

→ A prime key is a column in a table whose value uniquely identifies the rows in the table. The primary key is chosen from this list of candidates based on its preferred value to the business as an identifier.

If the primary key is a combination of more than one column then it is called as composite key.

Primary key Domain

	Roll No	First Name	Last Name	Department	
Entity	18621	Naruto	Uzumaki	Leaf	
	18622	Gara	Yugawa	Sand	← Tuple or Row.
	18623	Killer	Bee	Clouds	
	18624	Itachi	Uchiha	Leaf	
	18625	Zabuza	Momochi	Mist	

↑
Columns or Attributes

- The above diagram is the problem statement 3 i.e. Design school database by relational model.
- The roll no is the primary key because it is unique to every student and teacher.
- The first name, last name and department are domains because there can only be stored value of a specific type. For example, in the above mentioned table only alphabetical values can be stored.
- The data inside the table is called as entity.
- The rows of the above table can also be referred to as tuples.
- The columns of the table can also be referred to as attributes.

* Conclusion:

Hence, by performing this practical I identified the entities, attributes, types, domains and prime keys in the above created EER model.

Practical No. 03

* Ques: Design a normalize database. Identify available dependencies in created database. Identify types of used normal form.

* Theory:

- What is normalisation of database?

- Normalisation is a process of organizing the data in a database to avoid data redundancy, insertion anomaly, update anomaly and deletion anomaly

Types of normalisation :

The most commonly used normal forms are:

First normal form (1NF)

Second normal form (2NF)

Third normal form (3NF)

Boyce Codd normal form (BCNF)

- First normal form:

As per the rule of the first normal form, an attribute (column) of a table cannot hold multiple values. It should have only atomic values.

Example: Suppose a school wants to store the roll nos. Name and courses of student. It creates a table that look like this

Roll no.	Name	Courses
01	Levi Ackerman	Python, SQL
02	Mikasa Ackerman	Javascript.
03	Eren Jaeger.	C#, C++

Two students (Eren and Levi) are having two courses so the school stored them in the same field as you could see in the table above.

Thus the above table is not in 1NF as the rule says "each attribute of the table must have atomic values". So to make the table compatible with 1NF, we should have the data as follows:

Roll No.	Name	Courses
01	Levi Ackerman	Python
01	Levi Ackerman	SQL
02	Mikasa Ackerman	Javascript
03	Eren Jaeger	C#
03	Eren Jaeger	C++

- Second Normal Form:

A table is said to be in 2NF if both the following conditions are met:

- Table is in 1NF
- No non-prime attribute is dependent on the proper subset of any candidate key of table.

Example :

professor-id	Courses	Name	
161	HTML CSS	Alen	Candidate key: { professor-id, classes }
162	Javascript	Alen	
162	Python	Steve	Non-prime attribute: { Name }
163	C#	Harvey	
163	C++	Harvey	

The above table is in 1NF because it meets the conditions for 1NF. But, it is not in 2NF because non-prime attribute name is dependent on professor-id alone. which is proper subset of candidate key.

This validates the rule of 2NF which states - "No non-prime attribute is dependent on the proper subset of any candidate key on the table." To make the table complies with 2NF we can break it into two tables like this, professor_details table :

professor-id	Name
161	Alen
162	Steve
163	Harvey.

professor_courses
teacher_classes table:

professor_id	courses
161	HTML/CSS
161	Javascript
162	Python
163	C#
163	C++

Now, the tables comply with the second normal form (2NF).

- Third Normal Form (3NF):

A table design is said to be ^{3NF} met if both the conditions are met :

- The table must be in 2NF
- Transitive functional dependency of non prime attribute on any super key should be removed.

Example:

roll no.	Name	Zip code	State	city
196	Stephen	440016	MH	Nagpur-S
197	Housah	440042	MH	Nagpur-W
198	Dan	440036	MH	Hingna
199	George	440032	MH	MIDC, NGP
200	Caleb	440010	MH	Central, NGP

Candidate key: roll no.

Here, the non-prime attributes, state and city are transitively dependent upon super key (roll no.). It violates the rule of third normal form. That's why, we need to move the state and city to new table with zipcode as a primary key.

Student's table:

Roll No.	Name	Zipcode
196	Stephen	440016
197	Hannah	440042
198	Dan	440036
199	George	440032
200	Caleb	440010

Residence's table:

Zipcode	State	City
440016	MH	Nagpur-S
440042	MH	Nagpur-W
440036	MH	Hingna
440032	MH	MIDC, NGP
440010	MH	Central/NGP

- Boyce Codd Normal Form (BCNF):

- BCNF is an advance version of 3NF. It is stricter than 3NF.
- A table is in BCNF if every functional dependency $X \rightarrow Y$, X is the superkey of the table.

Example: Let's assume there's a school and the teachers teach in different classes.

Teacher table:

ID	Name	Class	Subject	Students
181	Sakuta	1 st yr A	C	30
181	Sakuta	1 st yr B	C	32
186	Maisan	2 nd yr A	RDBMS	29
186	Maisan	2 nd yr B	RDBMS	31

The above table is not in BCNF because neither ID nor class alone are keys..

To convert the above table into BCNF, we decompose it into three tables as follows:

Name Table :

ID	Name	Candidate Key : ID
181	Sakuta	
186	Maisan	Functional dependency: ID \rightarrow Name.

Class Table :

Class	Subject	Students	Candidate Key : Class
1 st yr A	C	30	Functional dependency : class \rightarrow subject, students.
1 st yr B	C	32	
2 nd yr A	RDBMS	29	
2 nd yr B	RDBMS	31	

Name, class relation table:

ID	Class
181	1 st yr A
181	1 st yr B
186	2 nd yr A
186	2 nd yr B

Candidate-Key : ID, Class.

* Conclusion:

Hence, I designed a normalize database, identified available dependencies in created database and identified the types used normal form.

Practical No. 04.

* dim: Create and execute DDL commands in SQL and apply various integrity constraints on above created table.

* Theory:

* What is SQL?

- • Structured Query Language (SQL) is the standard and most widely used programming language for relational databases.
- It is used to manage and organise data in all sorts of systems in which various data relationships exists.
- SQL is a value programming language with strong career prospects.

* Components of SQL:

• A DBMS has appropriate language and interface to express database queries and updates. Database language can be used to read, store and update data in the database.

* Types of database languages:

(1) Data definition language (DDL):

It is used to define database structure or pattern. The various commands in this language are: Create, Alter, Drop, Truncate, Rename, Comment.

② Data manipulation language (DML):

It is used for accessing and manipulating data in a database. The various command in this language are SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, MERGE, CALL, Explain, Lock Table.

③ Data Control Language (DCL):

It is used to retrieve the stored or saved data. The commands used in this language are GRANT, REVOKE.

④ Transaction Control Language (TCL):

TCL is used to run the changes made by the DML. The commands used in this language are COMMIT, GRANT.

* Data Definition Language commands :

i) Alter : It is used to alter/add objects in a database.

Syntax : ALTER TABLE table_name

ADD column-name datatype;

Example :

Name table :

ID	Name
23	Sakura
24	Hinata
25	Tenten

ALTER TABLE name
ADD age INTEGER;

	ID	Name	Age
	23	Sakura	29
	24	Hinata	21
	25	Tenten	24.

2) Create: It is used to create objects in the database.

SYNTAX: CREATE TABLE table-name {
column1 datatype,
column2 datatype,
...};

Example: CREATE TABLE Orders {
order_id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY,
order_no VARCHAR(20),
Name VARCHAR(20),
};
order_id order_no Name .

3) Drop: It is used to delete objects from the database.

SYNTAX: DROP TABLE table-name.

Example:

StudentTable:

ID	Name	AGE
23	Sakura	29
24	Hinata	21.

DROP TABLE student;

Thus the table will be deleted.

4) TRUNCATE:

It is used to delete or remove all data from a table.

Syntax: TRUNCATE TABLE table-name;

Example:

Student tab6. -

ID	Name	Age
23	Sakura	23
24	Hinata	26

TRUNCATE TABLE Student;

ID	Name	Age

5) Rename:

It is used to rename an object.

Syntax: RENAME COLUMN old-name to new-name

Example:

ID	Name	Age
23	Sakura	23
24	Hinata	26

RENAME COLUMN ID to Student_id.

Student_id	Name	Age
23	Sakura	23
24	Itinuta	26.

6) COMMENT:

It is used to comment on the data directory.

Syntax: COMMENT ON COLUMN column_name IS 'comment';

Example:

COMMENT ON COLUMN students.name IS 'studentname here'.

* Conclusion:

Hence, I created DDL commands in SQL and applied various integrity constraints on above created table.

Practical No. 05

* dim: Create and execute DML command in SQL.

* Theory:

DML stands for Data Manipulation Language.

The commands used in DML language are:

- | | |
|----------|----------------|
| ① SELECT | ⑤ MERGE |
| ② INSERT | ⑥ CALL |
| ③ UPDATE | ⑦ EXPLAIN PLAN |
| ④ DELETE | ⑧ LOCK TABLE |

① SELECT:

It is used to retrieve data from a database.

Syntax: `SELECT column-1, column-2, ...
FROM table-name;`

Example:

`SELECT * FROM student;`

id	Name	age.
69	Killan	18
68	Jon	12
67	Hakuta	23.

② INSERT:

It is used to insert data in the table.

SYNTAX: `INSERT INTO table-name (column1, column2, ...)
VALUES (value1, value2, value3, ...).`

Example

Student's tabb :

ID	Name	age.
----	------	------

INSERT INTO Student VALUES (196, "Kenma", 16).

ID	Name	age
196	Kenma	16.

3) UPDATE :

It is used to update data in existing table .

Syntan:

UPDATE tabb-name.

SET column 1 = value, column 2 = value, ...

WHERE condition .

Example :

Player's tabb table :

ID	Name	age.
126	Kuro	19.

UPDATE Player

SET Name = "Kuro"

WHERE ID = 126 ;

ID	Name	age
126.	Kuro	19

WHEN NOT MATCHED BY TARGET
 THEN merge-not-matched
 WHEN NOT MATCHED BY SOURCE
 THEN merge-matched;

Example :

PRODUCT-LIST			UPDATE-LIST		
ID	Name	Price	ID	Name	Price
161	1GBRAM	6,000	161	16 GB RAM	6,200
162	1TB HDD	1,800	162	1TB HDD	1,800
163	SMPS.	3,500	163	SHPS.	3,600

Product List (Target) Updated List (Source)

MERGE PRODUCT-LIST AS TARGET
 USING UPDATE-LIST AS SOURCE

ON (TARGET.ID = SOURCE.ID)

WHEN MATCHED

TARGET.name <> SOURCE.name,

TARGET.price <> SOURCE.price,

THEN UPDATE,

SET TARGET.name = SOURCE.name,

TARGET.name = SOURCE.price,

WHEN NOT MATCHED BY TARGET,

THEN INSERT (ID, name, price),

VALUE (SOURCE.ID, SOURCE.name, SOURCE.price)

WHEN NO MATCHED BY SOURCE

THEN DELETE

4) DELETE :

It is used to delete all records from a table.

Syntax:

`DELETE FROM TABLE WHERE Condition;`

Example :

Wrestler's table.

ID	Name	Weight
261	Russev	195 lbs
169	ReyMystro	169 lbs

`DELETE FROM Wrestler WHERE ID=261;`

ID	Name	Weight
169	ReyMystro	169 lbs.

5) MERGE :

It performs upsert operation ; i.e. insert or update operation.

Syntax:

```
MERGE target-table AS TARGET
USING source-table AS SOURCE
ON condition
WHEN MATCHED
    THEN merge-matched.
```

ID	name	Price.
161	16GB RAM	6,200
162	1TB HDD	1,800
163	SMPS	3,600

6) CALL :

It is used to call a structured query language or a Java subprogram.

Syntax : [variable] CALL procedure-name [expression]

Example :

EXCEL SQL

CALL GETEMPSVR (:V1, V2)

END-EXEC;

7) EXPLAIN-PLAN :

It has the parameter of explaining data.

Syntax :

SELECT PLAN=TABLE-OUTPUT

FROM TABLE.(DBMS_XPLAN.DISPLAY(NULL,
'statement-id'))

Example :

EXPLAIN PLAN

SELECT statement-id = 'ex-plan1' FOR

SELECT phone-number FROM employee

WHERE phonenumber LIKE '650 %';

8) LOCK TABLE :

It controls concurrency.

Syntax:

LOCK TABLE table-name

IN { SHARE | EXCLUSIVE } MODE

Example:

LOCK TABLE students

IN share MODE.

SHARE .

* Conclusion:

Hence, I created various locks and executed them using the DML commands such as SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, MERGE, CALL, EXPLAIN PLAN, LOCK table in SQL.

Practical No. 06

* dim: write queries using review operators arithmetic, set operator, relational operator and comparison operation to retrieve data

* Theory:

What are operators?

→ An operator is a reserved word or a character used primarily in an SQL statement's WHERE clause to perform operations. These operators are used to specify conditions in an SQL statement and to serve as a statement.

▷ Arithmetic operators:

operator	their function
+	to add
-	to subtract
*	to multiply
\	to divide
%	Returns remainder.

▷ Set operators:

Set operators are used to join the results of two (or more) SELECT statements. The SET operators available in Oracle are:

- i) UNION
- ii) UNION & ALL
- iii) INTERSECT
- iv) MINUS

3) Relational operators:

Operators	Description
=	Check if the values are equal, if yes then returns true.
!=	Check if the values are not equal, if yes then returns true.
<	Checks if the values are not equal, if yes then returns true
>	Checks if the value is greater than or not
<	Checks if the value is smaller than or not
>=	Checks if the value is greater than or equal to or not.
<=	Checks if the value is smaller than or equal to or not.
!<	Checks if the value is not less than
!>	Checks if the value is not greater than.

① Arithmetic operators :

(i) '+' operator

SELECT 20 + 10;

20 + 10
30

(ii) '-' operator:

SELECT 20-10;

20-10	
10	

(iii) '/' operator.

SELECT 20/10;

20/10	
2	

(iv) '*' operator.

SELECT 20*10;

20*10	
200	

(v) '%' operator.

SELECT 20%2;

20%2	
0	

② Relational operators.

Code:

```
CREATE TABLE info (id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY  
                  name TEXT,  
                  marks INTEGER  
                );
```

```
INSERT INTO info VALUES (1, "Deku", 49)  
INSERT INTO info VALUES (2, "Todoroki", 50)  
INSERT INTO info VALUES (3, "Bakugou", 46)  
INSERT INTO info VALUES (4, "Kamenai", 40)  
INSERT INTO info VALUES (5, "Lida", 42)  
INSERT INTO info VALUES (6, "Mineta", 38)  
INSERT INTO info VALUES (7, "Tokoyami", 38)  
INSERT INTO info VALUES (8, "Uzukaka", 42)  
INSERT INTO info VALUES (9, "Kirishima", 35)  
INSERT INTO info VALUES (10, "Tsuyu", 38)
```

```
SELECT * FROM info WHERE marks = 42; Fig 6.1  
SELECT * FROM info WHERE marks != 42; Fig 6.2  
SELECT * FROM info WHERE marks > 45; Fig 6.3  
SELECT * FROM info WHERE marks < 35; Fig 6.4  
SELECT * FROM info WHERE marks >= 40; Fig 6.5  
SELECT * FROM info WHERE marks <= 40; Fig 6.6
```

id	Name	Marks
5	Lida	42
8	Urauaka	42

Fig. 6.1

id	Name	Marks
1	Deku	49
2	Todoroki	50
3	Bakugou	46
4	Kamenari	40
6	Mineta	32
7	Titokoyami	38
9	Kirishimo	35
10	Tsuyu	33

Fig. 6.2

id	Name	Marks
1	Deku	49
2	Todoroki	50
3	Bakugou	46

Fig. 6.3.

id	Name	Marks
6	Mineta	32
10	Tsuyu	33

Fig. 6.4

id	Name	Marks
1	Deku	49
2	Todoroki	50
3	Bakugou	46
4	Kumyari	40
5	Lida	42
8	Uraraka	42

Fig. 6.5

id	Name	Marks
2	Kamenai	40
6	Mineta	32
7	Tokayami	38
9	Kirishima	35
10	Tsuyu	33

Fig. 6.6.

R Conclusion:

Hence I wrote queries using various operators such as arithmetic, relational, conditional, set operations to retrieve the data.

Practical No. 07.

* Obj: Use different aggregate functions, string functions, Date-time functions, Data conversion functions such as to To char(), To number(), and To date(). And also display special date formats using To char() function.

* Theory :

What are aggregate?

→ In database management an aggregate function is a function which values of multiple rows are grouped together as input on certain criteria to form a single value of more significant meaning.

Examples of aggregate functions are:

- (i) Count()
- (ii) Sum()
- (iii) Avg()
- (iv) Min()
- (v) Max()

(i) Count():

Syntax :

```
SELECT COUNT(column-name)
FROM table-name
WHERE condition;
```

Code :

```
CREATE TABLE classes (
    class_id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY
    class_name student_count INTEGER
)
```

INSERT INTO classes VALUES (1, 58)

INSERT INTO classes VALUES (2, 60)

INSERT INTO classes VALUES (3, 62)

INSERT INTO classes VALUES (4, 59)

INSERT INTO classes VALUES (5, 60)

INSERT INTO classes VALUES (6, 61)

SELECT * FROM classes

SELECT COUNT(student_count) FROM classes;

SELECT SUM(student_count) FROM classes;

SELECT AVG(student_count) FROM classes;

SELECT MIN(student_count) FROM classes;

SELECT MAX(student_count) FROM classes;

class	student_count	Count		Min
1	58	6		58
2	60			
3	62	Sum		Max.
4	59	360		62
5	60			
6	61	Avg 60		

String functions:

SQL string function is used primarily for string manipulation.

Code:

```
SELECT CHAR(112) AS ansiToChar;
```

ansiToChar.
P

```
SELECT LOWER("HELLO SQL!") as lowercase;
```

lowercase
hello sql.

```
SELECT UPPERCASE("hello sql!") as uppercase;
```

uppercase
HELLO SQL!

Date-time function:

Date time functions help in querying date and time in the database. The following are some examples of SQL date time function:

- i) NOW()
- ii) CURDATE()
- iii) CURTIME()

Example

SELECT NOW(), CURDATE(), CURTIME();

NOW()	CURDATE()	CURTIME()
2021-1-25 09:43:32	2021-1-25	09:43:32

Data Conversion Functions:

i) To Char:

In Oracle, TO_CHAR function converts a date-time value to a string using a specified format.

Code:

SELECT TO_CHAR(SYSDATE, 'YYYY-MM-DD') FROM Dual;

Output:

2021-11-26

ii) To Number:

The Oracle / PLSQL TO-NUMBER function converts a string to a number.

Syntax:

TO_NUMBER(string [,format-mask] [,nls-language]);

Code:

TO_NUMBER('1210.73');

Result:

1210.73

iii) To Date:

In Oracle, TO_DATE function converts a string value to DATE data type value using the specified format.

Syntax:

TO_DATE(string, format);

Code:

TO_DATE;

Syntax:

TO_DATE(string, format);

Code:

SELECT TO_DATE('2016-05-19', 'yygy-MM-DD') FROM dual.

* Conclusion:

Hence, I used different aggregate functions, string functions, Date-time functions, data conversion functions such as To char(), To number() and To date(). Also display special data formats using To char() function.