INTRODUCTION TO RELATIONAL DATABASE SYSTEMS DATENBANKSYSTEME 1 (INF 3131)

Torsten Grust Universität Tübingen Winter 2021/22



A DIVERSION INTO SQL

- We will now temporarily shift focus from table schema and state change to querying table states.
- The ubiquitous SELECT construct forms the core of the SQL DML query language.
- SELECT embodies the principal data language operations we have studied before:
- 1. Iteration over rows of (multiple) tables, filtering based on predicates
- 2. Computation over column values (expression evaluation), construction of literal tables (VALUES)
- 3. Grouping of rows and aggregation of all (or groups of) values in a column
- 4. ... lots more ...
- We will use PostgreSQL's dialect of the SQL query language which implements a variant of SQL:2016, a recent language standard update (see ISO/IEC 9075 "Database Language SQL").

SELECT

The SQL DML command SELECT retrieves rows from zero or more tables to construct one result table:

```
SELECT [ ALL | DISTINCT ] expression [ [ AS ] output_name ] [, ...] [ FROM from_item [, ...] ] [ WHERE condition ]
```

where from_items denote the source tables from which rows are drawn:

```
from_item: (query) [ AS ] alias [ (column_name [, ...]) ]
```

- Note that each source table itself is computed by a parenthesized SQL query expression (query). These "queries in a query" are known as **nested queries** or **subqueries**.

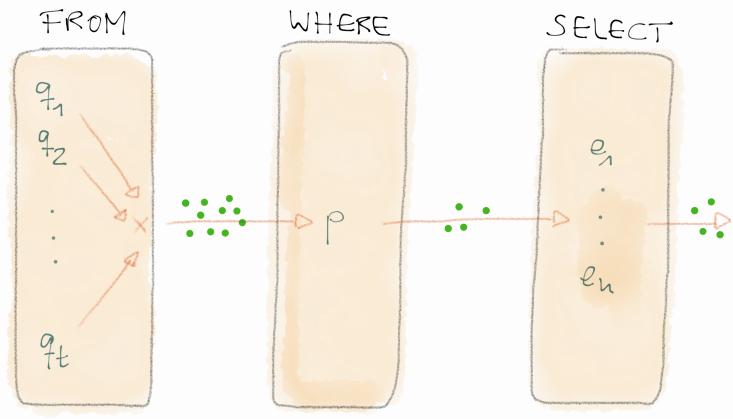
The semantics of SELECT can be quite precisely explained by a PyQL program. Consider these equivalent queries:

```
SELECT e_1 AS c_1, ..., e_n AS c_n FROM (q_1) AS v_1, (q_2) AS v_2, ..., (q_t) AS v_t WHERE p
```

- 1. In the PyQL query, q_i is the PyQL code for the SQL subquery q_i (compositionality)
- 2. $p(v_1, v_2, ..., v_t)$ is a Boolean PyQL expression that refers to the variables v_i (i.e., the v_i occur free in expression p). Likewise for $e_i(v_1, v_2, ..., v_t)$.

```
SELECT e_1 AS c_1, ..., e_n AS c_n FROM (q_1) AS v_1, (q_2) AS v_2, ..., (q_t) AS v_t WHERE p
```

- SQL refers to the v_i as **table aliases** but the PyQL equivalent makes it clear that **row variables** would be a better name: v_i is bound to each row of table q_i in turn (in *some* order).
- Data flow in a SQL SELECT query:
- 1. FROM clause: generate **all possible combinations** of row variable bindings. (Note that the order of the q_i under FROM is immaterial since SELECT returns an unordered table of rows anyway—in other words: the ',' under FROM is commutative.)
- 2. WHERE clause: discard all row variable binding combinations that cannot satisfy predicate p.
- 3. SELECT clause: under all bindings that pass, evaluate the expressions e_i to construct a result table row of n columns named c_1 , ..., c_n .



Data flow through a SQL SELECT-FROM-WHERE block

- SQL implements a variety of syntactical sugar and abbreviations to aid the concise formulation of common query cases.
 - FROM clause: TABLE subqueries may be abbreviated:

```
SELECT ... \equiv SELECT ... FROM ..., t AS v, ...
```

- WHERE clause: absence is interpreted as WHERE true.
- SELECT clause: if row variable v iterates over the rows of $R(a_1,...,a_n)$, then v.* is interpreted as v. a_1 AS a_1 , ..., v. a_n AS a_n .
- Thus:

```
TABLE t \equiv SELECT v.* FROM t AS v
```

SQL: ROW TYPES AND ROW VALUES

- If row variable v iterates over the rows of table $R(a_1,...,a_n)$ with $type(a_i) = t_i$, v itself has the row type

$$(a_1 \ t_1, ..., a_n \ t_n)$$

- This row type is implicitly added to the set of all types \mathbb{T} when the CREATE TABLE command for R is executed. CREATE TYPE can create such **composite** types, too:

```
CREATE TYPE R (a_1 t_1, ..., a_n t_n)
```

- The **row values** of row type *R* can also be constructed via

$$ROW(e_1, ..., e_n) :: R$$

provided that the expressions are correctly typed, i.e., if e_i has type t_i . Keyword ROW is optional as long as n > 1.

SQL: EXPLICIT DUPLICATE REMOVAL

- Instances of SQL tables as well as SQL query results are **unordered lists** of rows and thus may contain duplicates.

calendar

no	appointment	start		stop	
1	team meeting	2013-11-12	09:30	2013-11-12	10:30
2	lunch	2013-11-12	12:00	2013-11-12	13:00
3	team meeting	2013-11-12	14:00	2013-11-12	14:15
4	presentation	2013-11-12	18:00	2013-11-12	19:00

- The DISTINCT modifier to SELECT explicitly requests the removal of duplicate rows from a query result:

```
-- yields 4 rows -- yields 3 rows
SELECT c.appointment vs. SELECT DISTINCT c.appointment
FROM calendar AS c FROM calendar AS c
```

- Modifier ALL may be used to document that a query returns wanted duplicate rows.

SQL: EXPLICIT DUPLICATE REMOVAL

- Duplicate removal comes with potentially significant cost for the RDBMS if the result table is large.
- In some query scenarios, DISTINCT is superfluous and will perform wasted work:
- 1. If a declared table has a primary key, it cannot contain duplicate rows (cf. Codd's tuple set idea).
- 2. If the columns of a SELECT clause form a (super-)key for the query result, no duplicate rows can be returned.
- 3. If the WHERE clause contains conjunctive equality conditions $a_i = c_i$ (c_i literal) and the columns a_i together form a (super-)key of the query result, only one row will be returned.
- 4. [Combination of 2. and 3.] If the SELECTed columns and (constant) filtered columns together form a (super-)key of the result, no duplicate rows can be returned.
- Unfortunately, even such basic (incomplete, even) result **key inference** is not implemented in most RDBMSs.

- In WHERE predicate p as well as in the SELECT expressions e_1 , ..., e_n , all row variables introduced in the FROM clause are **in scope**:

```
SELECT e_1(v_1, ..., v_t) AS c_1, ..., e_n(v_1, ..., v_t) AS c_n FROM (q_1) AS v_1, (q_2) AS v_2, ..., (q_t) AS v_t WHERE p(v_1, ..., v_t)
```

- (Note: v_i is not in scope in q_{i+1} , q_{i+2} , ... But see the SQL keyword LATERAL.)
- This permits the formulation of WHERE predicates p that refer to multiple row variables and thus span tables, the so-called join predicates.
- Join predicates may be used to reduce the arbitrary combinations of rows produced by the FROM clause. In particular, we may bring related rows of separate tables together.
- SELECT-FROM-WHERE blocks featuring such join predicates are also simply referred to as **joins**.

Example: Who is busy at what times?

appointment start stop meeting 11:30 12:00 lunch 12:00 13:00 biking 18:30 □

attendees

a₁

appointment	person
meeting	Alex
meeting	Bert
meeting	Cora
lunch	Bert
lunch	Drew
a ₂	•••

- Data from **both tables needed** to compute the result of the query. Two rows relate to each other if the **join condition** $a_1 = a_2$ is satisfied.

- **Example:** Who is busy at what times?
- Result of the **equi-join**:

			attendees		
appointment	start	stop	appointment	person	
meeting	11:30:00	12:00:00	meeting	Alex	
meeting	11:30:00	12:00:00	meeting	Bert	
meeting	11:30:00	12:00:00	meeting	Cora	
lunch	12:00:00	13:00:00	lunch	Bert	
lunch	12:00:00	13:00:00	lunch	Drew	
a	•••	•••	a	•••	

- In a join of tables R and S, a row of R may find between 0, ..., |S| join partner rows (e.g., the biking row in calendar found no join partner in attendees and thus does not contribute to the join result).
- In general: size of join result between 0, ..., $|R| \times |S|$ rows. **Note:** omitted (forgotten) join conditions lead to join results that are too large.

- Equality conditions are the common case in relational joins but the join conditions can be arbitrary, leading to the so-called **O-joins** ("theta-joins").

calendar

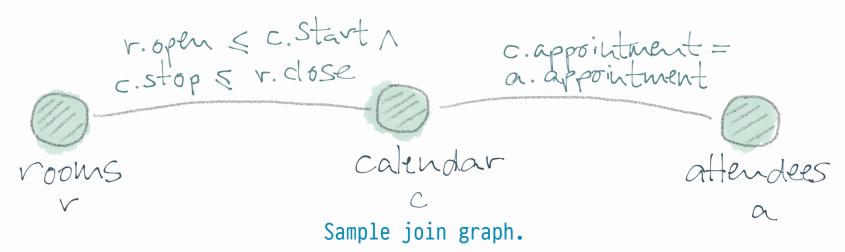
appointment	start	stop
meeting	11:30	12:00
lunch	12:00	13:00
biking	18:30	
•••	S ₁	<i>e</i> ₁

rooms

room	open	close
cafeteria	12:00	13:30
lobby	08:00	12:00
lobby	14:00	18:00
lecture hall	08:00	18:00
000	S ₂	e 2

- Example: Which rooms are available for the scheduled appointments? Join condition: $[s_1,e_1] \subseteq [s_2,e_2]$ (here: $\theta \equiv \text{interval inclusion}$).

- In complex join queries, drawing the **join graph** may help to ensure that join conditions are not omitted and placed correctly between tables:
 - Nodes in join graph: tables participating in the query.
 - Edge $t_1 \stackrel{p}{-} t_2$: tables t_1 , t_2 are joined under condition p.



SQL: COMPOSITIONALITY

The **Principle of Compositionality** is the principle that the meaning of a complex expression is determined by the meanings of its constituent expressions and the rules used to combine them.

(Gottlob Frege)

- Fully compositional (query) languages admit the use of an expression—provided it has type t—wherever a value of type t is expected.
- Admits the assembly of complex queries from simpler constituent queries (or: subqueries) that can be tested separately.
- SQL has become more and more compositional in the course of its development (in particular with the SQL-92 standard) but has not reached full compositionality yet.

SQL: COMPOSITIONALITY

```
SELECT e_1(v_1, ..., v_t) AS c_1, ..., e_n(v_1, ..., v_t) AS c_n FROM (q_1) AS v_1, (q_2) v_2, ..., (q_t) AS v_t WHERE p(v_1, ..., v_t)
```

- SQL admits query nesting in the FROM, WHERE, and SELECT clauses:
 - The q under the FROM clause are subqueries that yield tables. \checkmark
 - Predicate expression p may contain subqueries provided the overall expression yields a Boolean value.
 - Column expression e_i may contain subqueries provided the overall expression yields an atomic value.
- In an expression, SQL regards the atomic value x and a subquery (q) (parentheses!) that yields the following single-row, single-column table as equivalent:



SQL: COMPOSITIONALITY

- SQL further supports a modular, step-by-step formulation of complex queries through common table expressions (think "let ... in for SQL"):

WITH (Common Table Expression)

A **common table expression** (CTE) binds the result of a *query* (i.e., a table) to a user-specified *query_name*. Subsequent bindings and the primary query in the same WITH statement can refer to this name like any other table:

```
WITH

query_name [ ( column_name [, ...] ) ] AS ( query ) [, ...] -- bindings

query -- primary query evaluated under all bindings
```

The column_name list is optional and can be inferred from the queries itself.

SQL: CORRELATION

- Recall row variable scoping: the row variables v_i are accessible ("may occur free") in predicate p as well as in the column expressions:

```
SELECT e_1(v_1, ..., v_t) AS c_1, ..., e_n(v_1, ..., v_t) AS c_n FROM (q_1) AS v_1, (q_2) AS v_2, ..., (q_t) AS v_t WHERE p(v_1, ..., v_t)
```

- This also applies to subqueries embedded in *p* or the *e*: subqueries may refer to row variables that have been bound in the enclosing SELECT-FROM-WHERE block.
- These particular subqueries are referred to as correlated subqueries.
- Note that subquery correlation coincides with the variable scoping rules of most programming languages:
 - 1 The enclosing (or: outer) query block cannot refer to the row variables bound in inner blocks.

SQL: CORRELATION

- Example: Use a correlated subquery in the SELECT clause to translate user ratings held in table users(name, rating) into ***… markers:

(Note how the query uses the row variables and column aliases s(rating, stars) to name the rows and columns of the literal table.)

- The flagged (▶) occurrence of u.rating makes this a correlated query.
- Given the semantics of SELECT-FROM-WHERE blocks, the inner subquery will be evaluated repeatedly for different bindings of outer row variable u.

[End of SQL Diversion.]

