

## Aims

This exercise aims to introduce you to:

- practice SQL queries and DBMS meta-commands
- practice on an alternative DBMS

The goal of this lab practice is to try an alternative DBMS and know the difference between different DBMS. The DBMS used in this practice is SQLite, which is a light DBMS and already installed in the CSE servers.

This exercise contains a lot of reading and deals with some concepts in the background part. You can take the background section as a review of previous DBMS knowledge or you can also jump to the exercise part directly.

Here are some useful readings for you.

[Comparison of different SQL implementations](#)

Troels Arvin, on his home page

[Comparison of relational database management systems](#)

Wikipedia.

## Background

Database Management Systems (DBMSs) are software systems that maintain and provide access to *database instances* and their *meta-data*. So, what's a *database instance*? A useful working definition might be a "collection of inter-related data items". *Meta-data* is information that describes what the data items represent (i.e. it's data about data). In terms of these, a *database* would then be a pair (meta-data, database-instance). A DBMS allows you to describe the structure of a database by reading and storing meta-data, and allows you to "populate" the database by reading and storing data items that fit this structure.

In fact, there are several different "styles" of databases and DBMSs. In this course, we will be primarily concerned with one particular style of database, *relational databases*, and their software systems, *relational database management systems* (RDBMSs). Relational databases are, in some senses, the "classical" style of database, but they are also extremely popular, extremely useful and have a simple, elegant theory which translates neatly to a practical implementation (a characteristic which is, unfortunately, rare in computer science).

But before we get too abstract, let's consider a

Imagine that we are movie buffs and want to build a database. What kind of information do we need to store? Some obvious ones are movies, actors, crew, plot, popularity, genre, bloopers, etc. etc. The list could go on almost endlessly, but let's start with the basics: movies, actors, and information about the roles that actors play in movies.

The next question is: what kind of information do we want to store about a movie? The year it was made. Storing the year would be useful. For example, the 1933 version of "King Kong", the 1976 version (think: Jessica Lange), and Peter Dinklage (Fi). In fact, some movies could belong to several genres.

What information do we want to store about an actor? The year they were born, their gender, and other biographical information (which, like a director's, might help to distinguish two actors who have the same name). For directors, we might want to store the year they were born, their gender, and other biographical information (which, like a director's, might help to distinguish two directors who have the same name). For directors, we might want to store the year they were born, their gender, and other biographical information (which, like a director's, might help to distinguish two directors who have the same name).

Information about roles played by actors in movies is different to data objects. An actor plays a particular role in the context of a given movie, or might play the same role in several movies. Another similar example is describing the director of a movie; this is a relationship between the movie and the person who directed it. If we assume that each movie has only one director, then this relationship is actually simpler than that between actors, movies and roles.

Let's put all of this together into some kind of data structure. If we were to code the database in C, our meta-data might look something like:

```
typedef struct Movie {
    char *title;      // e.g. "Avatar"
    int  yearMade;    // sometime after 1850
    char *genre;      // what kind of movie is it
} Movie;

typedef struct Actor {
    char *name;       // e.g. "Clint Eastwood"
    int  yearBorn;    // sometime after 1850
    char gender;      // i.e. 'm' or 'f'
} Actor;

typedef struct Director {
    char *name        // e.g. "Steve Spielberg" or "Clint Eastwood"
    int  yearBorn;    // sometime after 1850
} Director;
```

Note that we have a gender for actors, but not for directors. Since there are not separate awards for directors and directoresses, the gender is not an issue in this context. (Although, if there were Best Director and Best Directoress awards, James Cameron would have rightfully gotten a Best Director award for "Avatar" :-)

The above doesn't deal with the relationships between actors and movies and directors and movies. If we consider the director/movie case, the relationship could potentially be implemented via:

```
typedef struct Movie {
    char *title;      // e.g. "Avatar"
    int  yearMade;    // sometime after 1850
    char *director;   // e.g. "James Cameron"
} Movie;
```

This works ok as long as each movie has only one director *and* all directors have different names. Ignoring multiple-director movies for the time being, here is an alternative which ensures that the movie is connected to exactly the right director:

```
typedef struct Movie {
    char *title;           // e.g. "Avatar"
    int  yearMade;         // sometime after 1850
    char *genre;           // what kind of movie is it
    Director *director;    // e.g. ref to "James Cameron"
} Movie;
```

For the relationship describing an actor's role in a movie, we have a bigger challenge. Since an actor can have many roles in many movies, we need a data structure to represent multiple relationships. The following structure might work:

```
typedef struct Role {
    Movie *movie; // e.g. ref to "Wall Street"
    char *role;   // e.g. "Gordon Gekko"
    struct Role *next;
} Role;

typedef struct Actor {
    char *name;      // e.g. "Clint Eastwood"
    int  yearBorn;   // sometime after 1850
    char gender;     // i.e. 'm' or 'f'
    Role *roles;     // linked list of Roles
} Actor;
```

An alternative structure would be to put a linked list of (actor,role) pairs into each Movie struct. We have a similar issue if we want to allow a movie to be classified under several genres. We *could* implement this via a comma-separated string (e.g. "Sci-Fi,Horror"), but a more typical approach would be to have a linked list of genres for each movie:

```
typedef struct Genre {
    char *name;
    struct Genre *next;
} Genre;

typedef struct Movie {
    char *title;           // e.g. "Avatar"
    int  yearMade;         // sometime after 1850
    Genre *genre;          // linked list of Genres
    Director *director;    // e.g. ref to "James Cameron"
} Movie;
```

If we wanted to allow the multiple-director case, we could use a linked list of directors.

An important point to note is that, in this model, we don't need to use the year of their creation by using a pointer to a struct for that object.

Of course, the above discussion has nothing to do with the issues that they need to deal with, and we consider those now as we develop a relational database.

First, relational databases have only two simple types of data: a set of values related to a single object or relation, and a set of heterogeneous data values, where each value has a name and a type. The second type is a set of *tuples*, where each tuple contains a collection of heterogeneous data values, where each value has a name and a type. The first type is often thought of as tables, where each row of the table is a tuple, and each column contains a single value.

Don't be confused by the two terms *relation* and *relationship*. A *relation* is as we defined it above: a set of tuples. A *relationship* represents a relationship between objects. For example, in NSW, you *are enrolled in* COMP9311. Now that that's clear, we'll muddy the waters again by pointing out that relations are relationships ... but more on that below.

In the above example, some obvious potential relations are Movies, Actors, Directors, and the relationship between them. If we want to represent these relations, we could come up with a description like:

```
Movies(title, yearMade, director)
Actors(name, yearBorn, gender)
Directors(name, yearBorn)
```

Note that one of the fields `director` in the `Movies` relation is actually representing the relationship "director *directed* Movie". The other relationships, between actors and movies, cannot be represented in the relational model in the same way as they are in the C struct above, because the relational model has no equivalent to an array or linked list. Since all it has are relations and tuples, we end up introducing new relations to represent the relationships. And if we want to allow the more realistic possibility of a movie being directed by several people, we have a similar issue with the relationship between movies and directors.

The above considerations lead to the following data model:

```
// relations representing "objects"
Movies(title, yearMade)
Actors(name, yearBorn, gender)
Directors(name, yearBorn)
// relations representing relationships
BelongsTo(movie, genre)
AppearsIn(actor, movie, role)
Directs(director, movie)
```

We can now completely represent all of the different objects and relationships in our scenario. However, we're still not quite done, because the fields like `actor` in the `AppearsIn` relation (which we will denote from now on as `AppearsIn.actor`) requires that we specify a particular actor, but simply giving the name may not do this if there are two actors with the same name. Similar considerations apply to `AppearsIn.movie`, `Directs.director`, `Directs.movie` and `BelongsTo.movie`.

This issue arises because relational databases do not have pointers or object IDs, and so a value-based mechanism is used to establish the identity of objects. In RDBMSs, we can either use a subset of the data values or introduce a new field to contain an ID for the tuple which uniquely identifies that tuple within the table. Examples of this approach are common e.g. your student number, your tax file number, etc. If we call all the ID fields in the different tables `id`, just to simplify things, we end up with a data model like:

```
// relations representing "objects"
Movies(id, title, yearMade)
```

```
Actors(id, name, yearBorn, gender)
Directors(id, name, yearBorn)
// relations representing relationships
BelongsTo(movieID, genre)
AppearsIn(actorID, movieID, role)
Directs(directorID, movieID)
```

Once we can uniquely identify objects via an ID, the `yearMade` and `yearBorn` fields become less critical. We will now make the somewhat arbitrary decision to drop the `Actors.yearBorn` and `Directors.yearBorn` fields (maybe we're not interested in any biographical information), but to keep the `Movies.yearMade` field (because it's useful to distinguish "King Kong (1933)" from "King Kong (2005)" when talking about movies). This leads to the following refinement of our data model:

```
// relations representing "objects"
Movies(id, title, yearMade)
Actors(id, name, gender)
Directors(id, name)
// relations representing relationships
BelongsTo(movieID, genre)
AppearsIn(actorID, movieID, role)
Directs(directorID, movieID)
```

One final refinement to the model is also based on user interface considerations. If we ever need to present a list of people's names, it's useful to do it in alphabetical order on their family name. Unless the name is written as "Spielberg, Steve", sorting based on family name is tricky to achieve, so we decide to break the names into two components:

```
// relations representing "objects"
Movies(id, title, yearMade)
Actors(id, familyName, givenName, gender)
Directors(id, familyName, givenName)
// relations representing relationships
BelongsTo(movieID, genre)
AppearsIn(actorID, movieID, role)
Directs(directorID, movieID)
```

The above data model is still somewhat abstract, but we can envisage tuples such as the following appearing in the database instance.

```
Movies(61,"Intolerable Cruelty",2003)
Actor(2999,"Zeta-Jones","Catherine","f")
AppearsIn(2999,61,"Marylin")
```

Before we can use this data model, we need to make some decisions about the precise types of the fields, known as a query language, but the SQL standard models are typically called *schemas* (or *schemata*). We then explain the bits that do not appear in abstract

nd. This requires us to make some concrete tuples in each relation. The *SQL* language is best describe data models for RDBMSs. SQL data ation (schema) of the above data model, and

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```
create table Movies (
    id            integer,
    title         varchar(256),
    year          integer check (year >= 1900),
    primary key (id)
);

create table BelongsTo (
    movie         integer references Movies(id),
    genre         varchar(32),
    primary key (movie,genre)
);

create table Actors (
    id            integer,
    familyName    varchar(64),
    givenNames    varchar(64),
    gender        char(1),
    primary key (id)
);

create table AppearsIn (
    actor         integer references Actors(id),
    movie         integer references Movies(id),
    role          varchar(64),
    primary key (movie,actor,role)
);

create table Directors (
    id            integer,
    familyName    varchar(64),
    givenNames    varchar(64),
    primary key (id)
);

create table Directs (
    director      integer references Directors(id),
    movie         integer references Movies(id),
    primary key (director,movie)
);
```

A copy of this schema is available in the file

`/home/cs9311/web/21T1/lab/03/schema.sql`

The first thing to note is that the relations and fields have almost exactly the same names as in our abstract data model, except that we've dropped the ID from names like `movieID`. We introduce a new relation via the `create table` statement, which requires us to provide a name for the relation and then give the details of all of its fields. We can also specify which combination of fields is unique within the table via the `primary key` statement.

One clear difference with abstract relational model is that we need to specify types for each field. Note also that types can be specified more precisely than in C, where we can only state in the `struct` definition that the `yearMade` field is an integer value (although you should note that we changed the



name of the field from yearMade to year). The check in SQL enforces that the yearMade value (actually year) is not only an integer, but it must be greater than 1899 (assuming that no movies were made before 1900).

String data types are different in SQL than they are in C. There are actually two different kinds of string: fixed-length (char) and variable-length (varchar). In both cases, we need to specify a maximum string length. Any char values that are shorter than the maximum length are blank padded to be exactly the specific length. Any varchar values that are shorter than the specified length are stroed in the DBMS exactly as written. Another important difference between C strings and SQL strings, is that SQL strings are written in single quotes (e.g. 'a string') and do not support C's escape characters (e.g. \n).

One final point of explanation on the schema ... a line such as

```
movie          integer references Movies(id),
```

tells the DBMS that there is a field called movie which contains an integer value. However, it cannot be just any old integer value; it must contain an integer that occurs in the id field of a tuple in the Movies table. Hopefully, it's reasonably clear that this is how we "link" tuples together.

We could load the above schema into an RDBMS, and it would give us a collection of empty tables. In order to do fun and useful things, we need some data. There is a large file containing SQL statements to add tuples to the tables in this database:

```
/home/cs9311/web/21T1/lab/03/data.sql
```

You can look at this if you want, but a more interesting way to interact with the data is via an RDBMS. In this prac, we are going to use the [SQLite](#) DBMS. Like most DBMSs it stores both meta-data and database instances. It also provides the SQL query language for looking at the data. And, like other DBMSs, it provides a set of meta-commands for doing things like reading SQL from files, looking at the meta-data, and so on. For the remainder of this prac exercise, we will largely be playing with an SQLite instance of the movies database described above.

### Exercise

If you're logged in to a CSE workstation, you can start an SQLite interactive shell to work on our database via the command:

```
$ sqlite3 /home/cs9311/web/21T1/lab/03/movies.db
```

(The data is imported with \*.db file. You can also try to figure out how to imported with data.sql and schema.sql.) This should produce a response something like:

```
SQLite version 3.7.13 2012-06-11 02:05:22
Enter ".help" for instructions
Enter SQL statements terminated with a ";"
sqlite>
```

The specific vesion of SQLite may be differen below should work.

In the sample interactions in these prac exerics to type at you will be in normal font. The Linu

Note that you can't read the movies.db file usin of the database, along with some text data repr Linux file command will tell you what kind o

```
$ file /home/cs9311/web/21T1/lab/03/movies
movies.db: SQLite 3.x database
```

Returning to the SQLite command that you jus sqlite> prompt, you can type either SQL statements or SQLite meta-commands. To find out what meta-commands are available type:

```
sqlite> .help
.backup ?DB? FILE      Backup DB (default "main") to FILE
.bail ON|OFF           Stop after hitting an error.  Default OFF
.databases             List names and files of attached databases
etc. etc. etc.
.trace FILE|off        Output each SQL statement as it is run
.vfsname ?AUX?         Print the name of the VFS stack
.width NUM1 NUM2 ...   Set column widths for "column" mode
.timer ON|OFF          Turn the CPU timer measurement on or off
sqlite>
```

Note that all of the meta-commands begin with a period ( ' . ' ) character. The most useful meta-command at this stage is .quit, which allows us to escape from SQLite:

```
sqlite> .quit
$
```

Now, restart SQLite and try this command:

```
sqlite> .schema
```

SQLite will give you a list of tables in the database. This list should match the list above, although the tables may not be in the same order as in the schema above. Another difference is that the create table is capitalized. The two words create and table are SQL keywords and SQL keywords are case-insensitive. Identifiers in SQL are also case insensitive, so we could write the name of the Movies table as movies or even as MoViEs.

Now let's try some data analysis. We know that there's a table called Directors in the database, but what directors do we actually know about? We can find out their names via the SQL statement:

```
sqlite> select givenNames,familyName from Directors;
James|Cameron
Lars|von Trier
Chan-wook|Park
Steven|Spielberg
David|Lynch
Joel|Coen
sqlite>
```

The above SQL statement asks SQLite to show you the two name fields from every tuple in the `Directors` table. The names look a bit strange because SQLite displays the field values in each tuple separated by a bar/pipe (`'|'`) character. If we wanted to make the names look more "normal", we could use SQL's string concatenation operator (`||`) to join the two name components together, separated by a space:

```
sqlite> select givenNames||' '||familyName from Directors;
James Cameron
Lars von Trier
Chan-wook Park
Steven Spielberg
David Lynch
Joel Coen
sqlite>
```

Remember that one reason we split the names was so that we could sort them alphabetically on family name, so let's do that:

```
sqlite> select givenNames||' '||familyName from Directors order by familyName;
Joel Coen
David Lynch
Chan-wook Park
Steven Spielberg
Lars von Trier
sqlite>
```

Now let's consider the entire contents of the `Movies` table. In SQL, we can ask for all fields in each tuple to be displayed by using a `*` instead of a list of field names, as in:

```
sqlite> select * from Directors;
1|Cameron|James
2|von Trier|Lars
3|Park|Chan-wook
4|Spielberg|Steven
5|Lynch|David
6|Coen|Joel
```

Each tuple now has all three fields displayed, the ID, the family name and the given names. Note that all of the ID values are distinct, so that a given ID identifies one specific director.

As well as giving information about individual movies, we can also count the number of movies in the database. For example, if I was too lazy to count that there were six directors from the above output

```
sqlite> select count(*) from Directors;
6
```

Before getting you to play around with some of the more advanced features of the SQLite interface are needed. You no doubt noticed that each of the SQL statements above tend over multiple lines, you need some way of indicating "Ok, this SQL statement is finish

If you end a line without a semi-colon, SQLite will accept the statement and changes the prompt to `". . . >`". For example:

```
sqlite> select
. . . > count(*)
. . . > from Directors;
6
```

This behaviour can be important if you get half a statement in and then want to quit. SQLite will ignore meta-commands until you finish off the SQL statement with a semi-colon:

```
sqlite> select count(*)
. . . > from
. . . > .quit
. . . > .quit
. . . > ;
Error: near ".": syntax error
sqlite> .quit
$
```

Armed with above information, try to think of SQL queries to answer the following data retrieval problems:

1. How many movies are in the database?
2. What are the titles of all movies in the database?
3. What is the earliest year that film was made (in this database)? (Hint: there is a `min()` summary function)
4. How many actors are there (in this database)?
5. Are there any actors whose family name is "Zeta-Jones"? (case-sensitive)
6. What genres are there?
7. What movies did Spielberg direct? (title+year)
8. Which actor has acted in all movies (in this database)?
9. Are there any directors in the database who don't direct any movies?

[\[Solution\]](#)