Databases Basics of Relational Database Management

Query Languages

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Plan

Introduction

Data Management

Data management

Numerous applications (standalone software, Web sites, etc.) need to manage data:

- Structure data useful to the application
- Store them in a persistent manner (data retained even when the application is not running)
- Efficiently query information within large data volumes
- Update data without violating some structural constraints
- Enable data access and updates by multiple users, possibly concurrently

Often, desirable to access the same data from several distinct applications, from distinct computers.

Example: Information system of a hotel

Access from an in-house software (front desk), a Website (guests), an accounting software suite. Requirements:

- Structured data representing rooms, customers, guests, bookings, rates, etc.
- No loss of data when these applications are unused, or when a power cut arises
- Find quasi-instantaneously which rooms are booked, by whom, a given day, within a history containing several years of bookings
- Easily add a booking by ensuring the same room is not booked twice the same day
- The guest, the front desk employee, the accountant, must not have the same view of the data (confidentiality, ease of use, etc.)
- If a room is available, it cannot be booked by different guests at the same time

- Implementation in a classical programming language (C++, Java, Python, etc.) of data structures that can represent all useful data
- Definition of ad-hoc file formats to store data on disk, with regular synchronization and a mechanism for failure recovery
- In-memory storage of application data, with data structures (search trees, hash tables) and algorithms (search, sort, aggregation, graph navigation, etc.) for efficiently finding information
- Data update functions, with code ensuring no constraint is violated

- Definition within the application of user access rights and an authentication process; use of parallel programming to answer different requests at the same time, locks/semaphores on critical data manipulation steps
- Definition and implementation of a network communication protocol to access this software component from the Web, from a Windows application, from an accounting suite, etc.

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Lots of work!



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Lots of work! Requires a programmer that masters OOP, serialization, failure recovery, data structures, algorithms, integrity constraint verification, role management, parallel programming, concurrency control, network programming, etc.

- Definition within the application of user access rights and an authentication process; use of parallel programming to answer different requests at the same time, locks/semaphores on critical data manipulation steps
- Definition and implementation of a network communication protocol to access this software component from the Web, from a Windows application, from an accounting suite, etc.

Lots of work! Requires a programmer that masters OOP, serialization, failure recovery, data structures, algorithms, integrity constraint verification, role management, parallel programming, concurrency control, network programming, etc. Needs to be done again for every new application that manages data!

Role of a DBMS

Database Management System

Software that simplifies the design of applications that handle data, by providing a unified access to the functionalities required for data management, whatever the application.

Database

Collection of data (specific to a given application) managed by a DBMS

Features of DBMSs (1/2)

- Physical independence. The user of a DBMS does not need to know how data are stored (in a file, on a raw partition, in a distributed filesystem, etc.); storage can be modified without impacting data access
- Logical independence. It is possible to provide the user with a partial view of the data, corresponding to what he needs and is allowed to access
- Ease of data access. Use of a declarative language describing queries and updates on the data, specifying the intent of a user rather than the way this will be implemented
- Query optimization. Queries are automatically optimized to be implemented as efficiently as possible on the database

Features of DBMSs (2/2)

- Logical integrity. The DBMS imposes constraints on data structure; every modification violating these constraints is denied
- Physical integrity. The database remains in a coherent state, and data are durably preserved, even in case of software or hardware failure
- Data sharing. Data are accessible by multiple users, concurrently, and these multiple and concurrent accesses cannot violate logical or physical data integrity
- Standardization. The use of a DBMS is standardized, so that it may be possible to replace a DBMS with another without changing (in a major way) the code of the application

Plan

Introduction

Types of DBMSs

Diversity of DBMSs

- Dozens of existing DBMSs that are broadly used
- All DBMSs do not provide all these features
- DBMSs can be differentiated based on:
 - data model used
 - trade-offs made between performance and features
 - ease of use
 - scalability
 - internal architecture

Major types of DBMSs

Relational (RDBMS). Tables, complex queries (SQL), rich features

> XML. Trees, complex queries (XQuery), features similar to RDBMS

Graph/Triples. Graph data, complex queries expressing graph navigation

Objects. Complex data model, inspired by OOP

Documents. Complex data, organized in documents, relatively simple queries and features

Key-Value. Very basic data model, focus on performance

Column Stores. Data model in between key-value and RDBMS; focus on iteration and aggregation on columns

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Classical relational DBMSs

- Based on the relational model: decomposition of data into relations (i.e., tables)
- A standard query language: SQL
- Data stored on disk
- Relations (tables) stored row by row
- Centralized system, with limited distribution possibilities















Strengths of classical relational DBMSs

- Independence between:
 - data model and storage structures
 - declarative queries and the way queries are executed
- Complex queries
- Fine optimization of queries, indexes allowing quick access to data
- Mature technology, stable, efficient, rich in features and interfaces
- Integrity constraints ensuring invariants on data
- Efficient management of very large volume of data (up to terabytes)
- Transactions (sequences of elementary operations) with guaranties on concurrency control, isolation between users, failure recovery

ACID properties

Query Languages

Classical relational DBMS transactions satisfy ACID properties:

ACID properties

Classical relational DBMS transactions satisfy ACID properties:

Atomicity: The set of operations within a transaction is either executed as a whole or canceled as a whole

Consistency: Transactions ensure integrity constraints on the base are respected

Isolation: Two concurrent executions of transactions result in a state equivalent to serial execution of the transactions

Durability: Once transactions are committed, corresponding data stay durably in the base, even in case of system failure

Weaknesses of classical RDBMSs

- Incapable of managing extremely large data volume (of the order of a petabyte)
- Impossible to manage extreme query rates (beyond) thousands of queries per second)
- The relational data model is sometimes poorly adapted to the storage and querying of some data types (hierarchical data, unstructured data, semi-structured data)
- ACID properties imply major costs in latency, disk accesses, processing time (locks, logging, etc.)
- Performances limited by disk accesses

NoSQL

- No SQL or Not Only SQL
- DBMSs with other trade-offs than those made by classical systems
- Very diverse ecosystem
- Desiderata: different data model, scalability, extreme performance
- Abandoned features: ACID, (sometimes) complex queries

NewSQL

- Some applications require:
 - A rich (SQL) query language
 - conformity to ACID properties
 - but greater performance than classical RDBMSs

NewSQL

- Some applications require:
 - A rich (SQL) query language
 - conformity to ACID properties
 - but greater performance than classical RDBMSs
- Possible solutions:
 - Getting rid of classical bottleneck of RDBMSs: locks, logging, cache management
 - In-memory databases, with asynchronous copy on disk
 - Lock-free concurrency control (MVCC)
 - Shared-nothing distributed architecture with transparent load balancing







In this course

- We mostly cover classical relational DBMSs (the most used, the most mature, by far!)
- ... and the rich underlying theory
- Many aspects also relevant to other forms of DBMSs

Plan

Relational Model Model

Relational schema

We fix countably infinite sets:

- L of labels
- V of values
- \mathcal{T} of types, s.t., $\forall \tau \in \mathcal{T}, \tau \subset \mathcal{V}$

Definition

A relation schema (of arity n) is an n-tuple (A_1, \ldots, A_n) where each A_i (called an attribute) is a pair (L_i, τ_i) with $L_i \in \mathcal{L}$, $\tau_i \in \mathcal{T}$ and such that all L_i are distinct

Definition

A database schema is defined by a finite set of labels $L \subset \mathcal{L}$ (relation names), each label of L being mapped to a relation schema.

Example database schema

- Universe:
 - L the set of alphanumeric character strings starting with a letter
 - V the set of finite sequences of bits
 - T is formed of types such as INTEGER (representation as a sequence of bits of integers between -2³¹ and 2³¹ 1), REAL (representation of floating-point numbers following IEEE 754), TEXT (UTF-8 representation of character strings), DATE (ISO 8601 representation of dates), etc.
- Database schema formed of 2 relation names, Guest and Reservation
- Guest: ((id, INTEGER), (name, TEXT), (email, TEXT))
- Reservation: ((id, INTEGER), (guest, INTEGER), (room, INTEGER), (arrival, DATE), (nights, INTEGER))

Database

Definition

An instance of a relation schema $((L_1, \tau_1), \ldots, (L_n, \tau_n))$ (also called a relation on this schema) is a finite set $\{t_1, \ldots, t_k\}$ of tuples of the form $t_j = (v_{j1}, \ldots, v_{jn})$ with $\forall j \forall i \ v_{ji} \in \tau_i$.

Definition

An instance of a database schema (or, simply, a database on this schema) is a function that maps each relation name to an instance of the corresponding relation schema.

Note: Relation is used somewhat ambiguously to talk about a relation schema or an instance of a relation schema.

Example

Guest

id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

Reservation

id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

Some notation

- If $A = (L, \tau)$ is the *i*th attribute of a relation R, and t an *n*-tuple of an instance of R, we note t[A] (or t[L]) the value of the *i*th component of t.
- Similarly, if A is a k-tuple of attributes among the n attributes of R, t[A] is the k-tuple formed from t by concatenating the t[A] for A in A.
- A tuple is an *n*-tuple for some *n*.

Simple integrity constraints

One can add to the relational schema some integrity constraints, of different nature, to define a notion of validity of an instance

- Key. A tuple of attribute A of a relation schema R is a key if there cannot exist two distinct tuples t_1 and t_2 in an instance of R such that $t_1[A] = t_2[A]$
- Foreign key. A k-tuple of attributes A of a relation schema R is a foreign key referencing a k-tuple of attributes \mathcal{B} of a relation schema S if for all instances I^R and I^S of R and S, for every tuple t of I^R , there exists a unique tuple t' of I^S with t[A] = t'[B]
- Check constraint. Arbitrary condition on the values of the attributes of a relation (applying to each tuple of the instances of that relation)

Examples of constraints

- id is a key of Guest
- email is a key of Guest
- id is a key of Reservation
- (room, arrival) is a key of Reservation
- (guest, arrival) is a key of Reservation (?)
- guest is a foreign key of Reservation referencing id of Guest
- In Guest, email must contain a "@"
- In Reservation, room must be between 1 and 650
- In Reservation, nights must be positive

Impossible to express more complex constraints (e.g., a room cannot be occupied twice the same night, which depends on the date and the number of nights for multiple tuples of Reservation)

Variants: named and unnamed perspectives

The version presented considers the attributes of a relation are ordered and have a name. This is what best matches the way RDBMSs work, but not necessarily the most pleasant to reason on the relational model.

Named perspective. We forget the position of attributes, and consider they are uniquely identified by their names.

Unnamed perspective. We forget the name of attributes, and consider they are uniquely identified by their position. One uses notation such as t[2] to access the value of the second attribute of a tuple.

No major impact, one will use one or the other depending on what is convenient.

Variant: bag semantics

- A relation instance is defined as a (finite) set of tuples. One can also consider a bag semantics of the relational model, where a relation instance is a multiset of tuples.
- This is what best matches how RDBMSs work...
- ... but most of relational database theory has been established for the set semantics, more convenient to work with
- We will mostly discuss the set semantics in this lecture, but explain where differences matter

Variant: untyped version

- In implementations, attributes are always typed
- In models and theoretical results, one often abstracts attribute types away and considers each attribute has a universal type \mathcal{V}
- We will most often omit attribute types

Plan

Query Languages Relational Algebra

The relational algebra

- Algebraic language to express queries
- A relational algebra expression produces a new relation from the database relations
- Each operator takes 0, 1, or 2 subexpressions
- Main operators:

Op.	Arity	Description	Condition
R	0	Relation name	$R\in\mathcal{L}$
$ ho_{A o B}$	1	Renaming	$A,B\in\mathcal{L}$
$\Pi_{A_1A_n}$	1	Projection	$A_1 \dots A_n \in \mathcal{L}$
$\sigma_{oldsymbol{arphi}}$	1	Selection	arphi formula
×	2	Cross product	
U	2	Union	
\	2	Difference	
\bowtie_φ	2	Join	arphi formula

Guest id name email John Smith john.smith@gmail.com 2 Alice Black alice@black.name 3 John Smith john.smith@ens.fr

Query Languages

		Reser	rvation	
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

Expression: Guest

id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

		Kesei	vation	
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
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3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

Expression: $\rho_{id \to guest}(Guest)$

guest	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

Guest id name email John Smith john.smith@gmail.com Alice Black alice@black.name 3 John Smith john.smith@ens.fr

Query Languages

		Reser	vation	
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
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3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

Expression: $\Pi_{\text{email,id}}(\text{Guest})$

email	id
john.smith@gmail.com	1
alice@black.name	2
john.smith@ens.fr	3

		Guest
id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	iohn.smith@ens.fr

		reser	Vacion	
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

Expression:

 $\sigma_{\texttt{arrival}>2017-01-12 \land \texttt{guest}=2}(\texttt{Reservation})$

Result:

id	guest	room	arrival	nights
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

The formula used in the selection can be any Boolean combination of comparisons of attributes to attributes or constants.

		Guest
id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

id guest room arrival night 1 1 504 2017-01-01 5 2 2 107 2017-01-10 3 3 3 302 2017-01-15 6			Rese	rvation	
2 2 107 2017-01-10 3	id	l guest	guest room	arrival	nights
	1	1	1 504	2017-01-01	5
3 3 302 2017-01-15 6	2	2	2 107	2017-01-10	3
	3	3	3 302	2017-01-15	6
4 2 504 2017-01-15 2	4	2	2 504	2017-01-15	2
5 2 107 2017-01-30 1	5	2	2 107	2017-01-30	1

Expression: $\Pi_{id}(Guest) \times \Pi_{name}(Guest)$

id	name
1	Alice Black
2	Alice Black
3	Alice Black
1	John Smith
2	John Smith
3	John Smith

		Guest
id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

		Reser	rvation	
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

Expression:

$$\Pi_{\mathtt{room}}(\sigma_{\mathtt{guest}=2}(\mathtt{Reservation})) \cup$$

 $\Pi_{\text{room}}(\sigma_{\text{arrival}=2017-01-15}(\text{Reservation}))$

Result:

Union

id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

Query Languages

		Reser	rvation	
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

Expression:

$$\Pi_{\mathtt{room}}(\sigma_{\mathtt{guest}=2}(\mathtt{Reservation})) \ \cup$$

$$\Pi_{\mathtt{room}}(\sigma_{\mathtt{arrival}=2017\text{-}01\text{-}15}(\mathtt{Reservation}))$$

Result:

room
107
302
504

This simple union could have been written

 $\Pi_{\text{room}}(\sigma_{\text{guest}=2\vee \text{arrival}=2017\text{-}01\text{-}15}(\text{Reservation})).$ Not always possible.

Difference

id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

Query Languages

		Kesei	vation	
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3
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4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

Expression:

$$\Pi_{\mathtt{room}}(\sigma_{\mathtt{guest}=2}(\mathtt{Reservation})) \setminus$$

$$\Pi_{\mathtt{room}}(\sigma_{\mathtt{arrival}=2017\text{-}01\text{-}15}(\mathtt{Reservation}))$$

Result:

room

107

Difference

id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

Query Languages 0000000000000

		Kesei	vation	
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

Expression: $\Pi_{\mathtt{room}}(\sigma_{\mathtt{guest}=2}(\mathtt{Reservation})) \setminus$ $\Pi_{\text{room}}(\sigma_{\text{arrival}=2017-01-15}(\text{Reservation}))$ Result:

room 107

This simple difference could have been written $\Pi_{\text{room}}(\sigma_{\text{guest}=2 \land \text{arrival} \neq 2017-01-15}(\text{Reservation}))$. Not always possible.

Join

id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

Query Languages 00000000000000

Mesel Agrion				
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

D-------

Expression: Reservation ⋈_{guest=id} Guest Result:

id	guest	room	arrival	nights	name	email
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1	Alice Black	alice@black.name

The formula used in the join can be any Boolean combination of comparisons of attributes of the table on the left to attributes of the table on the right.

Note on the join

- The join is not an elementary operator of the relational algebra (but it is very useful)
- It can be seen as a combination of renaming, cross product, selection, projection
- Thus:

```
 \begin{split} & \text{Reservation} \bowtie_{\texttt{guest}=\texttt{id}} \texttt{Guest} \\ & \equiv \frac{\Pi_{\texttt{id},\texttt{guest},\texttt{room},\texttt{arrival},\texttt{nights},\texttt{name},\texttt{email}(}{\sigma_{\texttt{guest}=\texttt{temp}}(\texttt{Reservation} \times \rho_{\texttt{id} \rightarrow \texttt{temp}}(\texttt{Guest})))} \end{split}
```

• If R and S have for attributes A and B, we note $R \bowtie S$ the natural join of R and S, where the join formula is $\bigwedge_{A \in A \cap B} A = A$.

Illegal operations

- All expressions of the relational algebra are not valid
- The validity of an expression generally depends on the database schema
- For example:
 - No reference to the name of a relation that doesn't exist in the database schema
 - One cannot reference (within a renaming, projection, selection, join) an attribute that does not exist in the result of a sub-expression
 - One cannot union two relations with different attributes
 - One cannot produce (cross product, join, renaming) a table with two attributes with the same name
- Systems implementing the relational algebra may do a static or dynamic verification of these rules, or sometimes ignore them

Bag semantics

Query Languages

In bag semantics (what is actually used by RDBMS):

- All operations return multisets
- In particular, projection and union can introduce multisets even when initial relations are sets

Extension: Aggregation

- Various extensions have been proposed to the relational algebra to add additional features
- In particular, aggregation and grouping [Klug, 1982, Libkin, 2003] of results
- With a syntax inspired from [Libkin, 2003]:

$$\sigma_{\texttt{avg}>3}(\gamma_{\texttt{room}}^{\texttt{avg}}[\lambda x.\texttt{avg}(x)](\Pi_{\texttt{room},\texttt{nights}}(\texttt{Reservation})))$$

computes the average number of nights per reservation for each room having an average greater than 3

room	avg
302	6
504	3.5

Plan

Query Languages •000000000000000

Query Languages

SQL

• Structured Query Language, standard language (ISO/IEC 9075, several versions [ISO, 1987, 1999]) to interact with an **RDBMS**

- Unfortunately, implementation of the standard very variable from one RDBMS to the next
- Many little things (e.g., available types) vary between RDBMSs instead of following the standard
- Differences more syntactical than major
- Where it makes a difference, we use the PostgreSQL version
- Two main parts: DDL (Data Definition Language) to define the schema and DML (Data Manipulation Language) to query and update data
- Declarative language: express what you mean, the system will take care of translating this into an efficient execution plan

Syntax of SQL

- Quite verbose, designed to be almost readable as English words [Chamberlin and Boyce, 1974]
- Keywords are case-insensitive, traditionally written in all uppercase
- Identifiers often case-insensitive (depends of the RDBMS), often written with an initial uppercase for table names, in all lower case for attribute names
- Comments introduced with --
- SQL statements end with a ";" in some contexts (e.g., command line client) but the ";" id not properly part of the statement

NULL

- In SQL, NULL is a special value that an attribute can take within a tuple
- Denotes absence of value
- Different from 0, from an empty string, etc.
- Weird tri-valued logic: True, False, NULL
- A normal comparison (equality, inequality, etc.) with NULL always returns NULL
- IS NULL, IS NOT NULL can be used to test whether a value is NULL
- NULL est ultimately converted to False
- Weird consequences, poor integration with the formal relational model

Data Definition Language

Query Languages

CREATE TABLE Guest(id INTEGER, name TEXT, email TEXT); CREATE TABLE Reservation(id INTEGER, guest INTEGER, room INTEGER, arrival DATE, nights INTEGER);

But also:

- DROP TABLE Guest; to destroy a table
- ALTER TABLE Guest RENAME TO Guest2: to rename a table
- ALTER TABLE Guest ALTER COLUMN id TYPE TEXT; to change the type of a column

Constraints

Query Languages 00000 00000000000

Specified at the creation of a table, or added later on (with **ALTER TABLE**)

PRIMARY KEY for the primary key; only one per table, it is the key that will be used for physical organization of data; implies **NOT NULL**

UNIQUE for other keys

REFERENCES for foreign keys

CHECK for Check constraints

NOT NULL to indicate that an attribute cannot take the NULL value

Constraints

```
CREATE TABLE Guest(
 id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY,
 name TEXT NOT NULL,
 email TEXT UNIQUE CHECK (email LIKE '%0%')
);
CREATE TABLE Reservation(
 id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY,
 guest INTEGER NOT NULL REFERENCES Guest(id),
 room INTEGER NOT NULL CHECK (room>0
   AND room<651),
 arrival DATE NOT NULL.
 nights INTEGER NOT NULL CHECK (nights>0),
 UNIQUE(room, arrival),
 UNIQUE(guest, arrival)
```

Updates

• Insertions:

INSERT INTO Guest(id,name) VALUES (5,'John');

• Deletions:

DELETE FROM Reservation WHERE id>4;

Modifications:

UPDATE Reservation **SET** room=205 **WHERE** room=204;

Updates

Query Languages

INSERT INTO Guest VALUES

```
(1, 'Jean Dupont', 'jean.dupont@gmail.com'),
(2, 'Alice Dupuis', 'alice@dupuis.name'),
(3, 'Jean Dupont', 'jean.dupont@ens.fr');
```

INSERT INTO Reservation VALUES

```
(1.1.504.'2017-01-01'.5).
(2.2.107.'2017-01-10'.3).
(3,3,302,'2017-01-15',6),
(4,2,504,'2017-01-15',2),
(5.2.107.'2017-01-30'.1):
```

Queries

```
General following form:
SELECT ... FROM ... WHERE ...
GROUP BY ... HAVING ...
UNION SELECT ... FROM ...
  SELECT projection, renaming, aggregation
    FROM cross product
  WHERE selection (optional)
GROUP BY grouping (optional)
  HAVING selection on the grouping (optional)
   UNION union (optional)
Other keywords: ORDER BY to reorder, LIMIT to limit to
first k results, DISTINCT to impose set semantics, EXCEPT
for set difference, etc.
```

id	name	email
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr

Reservation				
id	guest	room	arrival	nights
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1

 $ho_{\mathtt{id} o \mathtt{guest}}(\mathtt{Guest})$

SELECT id AS guest, name, email FROM Guest;

nights

		Guest		Reservation		
id	name	email	id	guest	room	arrival
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com	1	1	504	2017-01-0
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name	2	2	107	2017-01-1
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr	3	3	302	2017-01-1
			4	2	504	2017-01-1
			5	2	107	2017-01-3

Query Languages

 $\Pi_{\texttt{email}, \texttt{id}}(\texttt{Guest})$

SELECT DISTINCT email, id FROM Guest;

nights

Selection

	Guest			Reservation			
id	name	email	id	guest	room	arrival	
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com	1	1	504	2017-01-01	
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name	2	2	107	2017-01-10	
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr	3	3	302	2017-01-15	
			4	2	504	2017-01-15	
			5	2	107	2017-01-30	

Query Languages

 $\sigma_{\texttt{arrival}>2017-01-12 \land \texttt{guest}=2}(\texttt{Reservation})$

SELECT * FROM Reservation WHERE arrival>'2017-01-12' AND guest=2;

Cross product

		Guest		
id	name	email	id	guest
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com	1	1
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name	2	2
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr	3	3
_			4	2

Query Languages

	Reservation				
id	guest	room	arrival	nights	
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5	
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3	
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6	
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2	
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1	

 $\Pi_{\texttt{id}}(\texttt{Guest}) \times \Pi_{\texttt{name}}(\texttt{Guest})$

SELECT *
FROM
 (SELECT DISTINCT id FROM Guest) AS temp1,
 (SELECT DISTINCT name FROM Guest) AS temp2
ORDER BY name, id;

Union

		Guest	
id	name	email	i
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com	
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name	
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr	

	Reservation				
id	guest	room	arrival	nights	
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5	
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3	
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6	
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2	
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1	

```
\Pi_{\mathtt{room}}(\sigma_{\mathtt{guest}=2}(\mathtt{Reservation})) \ \cup \Pi_{\mathtt{room}}(\sigma_{\mathtt{arrival}=2017\text{-}01\text{-}15}(\mathtt{Reservation}))
```

```
SELECT room
FROM Reservation
WHERE guest=2
UNION
SELECT room
FROM Reservation
WHERE arrival='2017-01-15';
```

Difference

Guest				
id	name	email		
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com		
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name		
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr		

Reservation					
id guest room		arrival	nights		
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5	
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3	
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6	
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2	
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1	

```
SELECT room
FROM Reservation
WHERE guest=2
EXCEPT
SELECT room
FROM Reservation
WHERE arrival='2017-01-15';
```

Guest			
id	name	email	
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com	
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name	
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr	

Reservation					
id	d guest room arrival			nights	
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5	
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3	
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6	
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2	
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1	

 $\texttt{Reservation} \bowtie_{\texttt{guest}=\texttt{id}} \texttt{Guest}$

SELECT Reservation.*, name, email FROM Reservation JOIN Guest ON guest=Guest.id;

SELECT Reservation.*, name, email FROM Reservation, Guest WHERE guest=Guest.id;

Aggregation

Guest					
id	name	email	id	guest	
1	John Smith	john.smith@gmail.com	1	1	
2	Alice Black	alice@black.name	2	2	
3	John Smith	john.smith@ens.fr	3	3	
_			4	2	

Reservation					
id	guest	room	arrival	nights	
1	1	504	2017-01-01	5	
2	2	107	2017-01-10	3	
3	3	302	2017-01-15	6	
4	2	504	2017-01-15	2	
5	2	107	2017-01-30	1	

$$\sigma_{\text{avg}>3}(\gamma_{\text{room}}^{\text{avg}}[\lambda x.\text{avg}(x)](\Pi_{\text{room,nights}}(\text{Reservation})))$$

SELECT room, AVG(nights) AS avg FROM Reservation GROUP BY room HAVING AVG(nights)>3 ORDER BY room;

References

References

- Basics on what data management research is [Benedikt and Senellart, 2012
- Classic textbook on the foundations of data management, database theory [Abiteboul et al., 1995]
- Modern textbook, being developed, on database theory [Arenas et al., 2022]
- Classic textbook on database systems [Garcia-Molina et al., 2008]
- Details of SQL: standards are not public documents (and not useful for a final user); use the RDBMS documentation instead
- For example, PostgreSQL has a comprehensive documentation at https://www.postgresql.org/docs/ (and using \h in the command line client)

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http://webdam.inria.fr/Alice/.

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