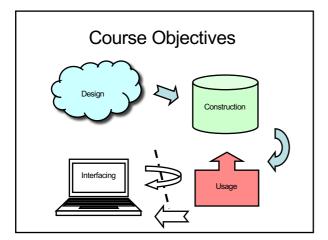
Lecture 5

Database Construction and Usage

SQL DDL and DML Relational Algebra

Announcement

- Sign up to the Google Group for updates!
 - https://groups.google.com/forum/#!forum/tda357-ht2016
- · Fill in the doodles
 - No-one signed up == no TA attending
 - More rooms are added if needed



Connecting to PostgreSQL

- Chalmers postgresql server:
 psql -h ate.ita.chalmers.se -U <username> <dbname>
- Local postgresql server:
 and otherway
- · Semicolon and postgres prompt:

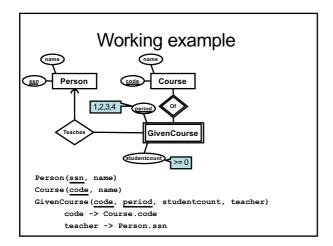
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Lines should end with ';', otherwise statements are continued on the next line. Note the prompt change!

Case convention

- SQL is <u>completely case insensitive</u>. Upper-case or Lower-case makes no difference. We will use case in the following way:
 - **UPPERCASE** marks keywords of the SQL language.
 - lowercase marks the name of an attribute.
 - Capitalized marks the name of a table.

SQL Data Definition Language



Creating and dropping tables

Relations become tables, attributes become columns.

```
CREATE TABLE Tablename (
    t of table elements>
);
```

· Get all info about a created table:

\d+ Tablename;

PostgreSQL specific!

Remove a created table:

DROP TABLE Tablename;

Table declaration elements

- The basic elements are pairs consisting of a column name and a type.
- · Most common SQL types:
 - INT or INTEGER (synonyms)
 - REAL or FLOAT (synonyms)
 - CHAR(n) = fixed-size string of size n.
 - VARCHAR(n) = variable-size string of up to size n.
 - TEXT = string of unrestricted length

```
Example

CREATE TABLE Courses (
   code CHAR(6),
   name TEXT NOT NULL
);

Created the table courses:

Code name
```

Declaring keys

- An attribute or a list of attributes can be declared PRIMARY KEY or UNIQUE
 - PRIMARY KEY: (At most) One per table, never NULL. Efficient lookups in all DBMS.
 - UNIQUE: Any number per table, can be NULL. Could give efficient lookups (may vary in different DBMS).
- Both declarations state that all other attributes of the table are functionally determined by the given attribute(s).

Example

```
CREATE TABLE Courses(
code CHAR(6),
name TEXT NOT NULL,
PRIMARY KEY (code)
);
```

Foreign keys

- Referential constraints are handled with references, called foreign keys.
 - FOREIGN KEY attribute
 REFERENCES table(attribute).

FOREIGN KEY course REFERENCES Courses(code)

Foreign keys

- General:
 FOREIGN KEY course REFERENCES Courses (code)
- If course is Primary Key in Courses: FOREIGN KEY course REFERENCES Courses
- Give a name to the foreign key: CONSTRAINT ExistsCourse FOREIGN KEY course REFERENCES Courses

Example

```
CREATE TABLE GivenCourses (
    course CHAR(6),
    period INT,
    numStudents INT,
    teacher INT NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (course, period),
    FOREIGN KEY (course) REFERENCES Courses(code)
    FOREIGN KEY (teacher) REFERENCES People(ssn)
);
```

Example

```
CREATE TABLE GivenCourses (
    course CHAR(6) REFERENCES Courses,
    period INT,
    numStudents INT,
    teacher INT REFERENCES People(ssn) NOT
    NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (course, period)
);
```

Value constraints

- Use CHECK to insert simple value constraints.
 - CHECK (some test on attributes)

CHECK (period IN (1,2,3,4))

Example

```
CREATE TABLE GivenCourses (
course CHAR(6) REFERENCES Courses,
period INT CHECK (period IN (1,2,3,4)),
numStudents INT,
teacher INT REFERENCES People(ssn) NOT
NULL,
PRIMARY KEY (course, period)
);
```

Example

```
CREATE TABLE GivenCourses (
    course CHAR(6) REFERENCES Courses,
    period INT,
    numStudents INT,
    teacher INT REFERENCES People(ssn) NOT
    NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (course, period),
    CONSTRAINT ValidPeriod CHECK (period in (1,2,3,4))
);
```

Example

• Legal:

- INSERT INTO GivenCourses
VALUES ('TDA357',2,199,1);

• Not Legal:

- INSERT INTO GivenCourses
 VALUES ('TDA357',7,199,1);
- ERROR: new row for relation
 "givencourses" violates check constraint
 "givencourses_period_check"DETAIL:
 Failing row contains (TDA357, 7, 199, 1).

SQL Data Manipulation Language: Modifications

Inserting data

INSERT INTO tablename
VALUES (values for attributes);

INSERT INTO Courses
 VALUES ('TDA357', 'Databases');

code	name		
TDA357	Databases		

Deletions

DELETE FROM tablename WHERE test over rows;

DELETE FROM Courses
WHERE code = 'TDA357';

Updates

UPDATE tablename

SET attribute = ...
WHERE test over rows

UPDATE GivenCourses

SET teacher = 'Graham Kemp'

WHERE course = 'TDA357'

AND period = 2;

Queries: SQL and Relational Algebra

Querying

- To query the database means asking it for information.
 - "List all courses that have lectures in room VR"
- Unlike a modification, a query leaves the database unchanged.

SQL

- SQL = Structured Query Language
 - The querying parts are really the core of SQL.
 The DDL and DML parts are secondary.
- Very-high-level language.
 - Specify what information you want, not how to get that information (like you would in e.g. Java).
- · Based on Relational Algebra

"Algebra"

- An algebra is a mathematical system consisting of:
 - Operands: variables or values to operate on.
 - Operators: symbols denoting functions that operate on variables and values.

Relational Algebra

- An algebra whose operands are relations (or variables representing relations).
- Operators representing the most common operations on relations.
 - Selecting rows
 - Projecting columns
 - Composing (joining) relations

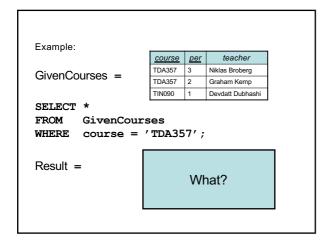
Selection

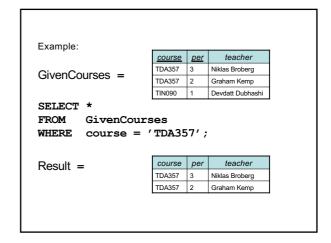
 Selection = Given a relation (table), choose what tuples (rows) to include in the result.

 $\sigma_{\rm C}({\sf T})$ SELECT *

SELECT * FROM T WHERE C;

- Select the rows from relation T that satisfy condition C.
- $-\sigma$ = sigma = greek letter **s** = **s**election



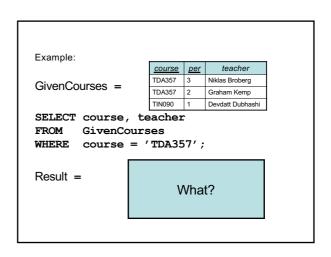


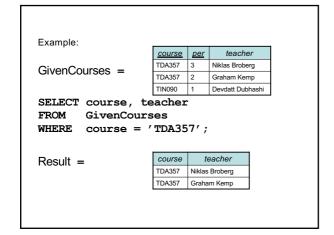
Projection

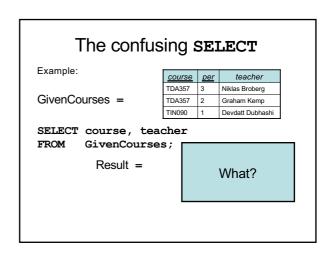
 Given a relation (table), choose what attributes (columns) to include in the result.

 $\pi_X(\sigma_C(T))$ SELECT X FROM T WHERE C;

- Select the rows from table T that satisfy condition C, and project columns X of the result.
- $-\pi$ = pi = greek letter **p** = **p**rojection







The confusing **SELECT**

Example:

GivenCourses =

course	<u>per</u>	teacher
TDA357	3	Niklas Broberg
TDA357	TDA357 2 Graham Kemp	
TIN090	1	Devdatt Dubhashi

SELECT course, teacher FROM GivenCourses;

Result =

course	teacher
TDA357	Niklas Broberg
TDA357	Graham Kemp
TIN090	Devdatt Dubhashi

Quiz: **SELECT** is a projection??

Mystery revealed!

SELECT course, teacher
FROM GivenCourses;

 $\pi_{\text{code,teacher}}(\sigma(\text{GivenCourses}))$ = $\pi_{\text{code,teacher}}(\text{GivenCourses})$

 In general, the SELECT clause could be seen as corresponding to projection, and the WHERE clause to selection (don't confuse the naming though).

Quiz!

What does the following expression compute?

Courses

code name
TDA357 Databases
TIN090 Algorithms

Giverioourses				
course	<u>per</u>	teacher		
TDA357	3	Niklas Broberg		
TDA357	2	Graham Kemp		
TIN090	1	Devdatt Dubhashi		

SELECT *

FROM Courses, GivenCourses
WHERE teacher = 'Niklas Broberg';

FROM Courses, GivenCourses

code	name	course	per	teacher
TDA357	Databases	TDA357	3	Niklas Broberg
TDA357	Databases	TDA357	2	Graham Kemp
TDA357	Databases	TIN090	1	Devdatt Dubhashi
TIN090	Algorithms	TDA357	3	Niklas Broberg
TIN090	Algorithms	TDA357	2	Graham Kemp
TIN090	Algorithms	TIN090	1	Devdatt Dubhashi

WHERE teacher = 'Niklas Broberg'

code	name	course	per	teacher
TDA357	Databases	TDA357	3	Niklas Broberg
TDA357	Databases	TDA357	2	Graham Kemp
TDA357	Databases	TIN090	1	Devdatt Dubhashi
TIN090	Algorithms	TDA357	3	Niklas Broberg
TIN090	Algorithms	TDA357	2	Graham Kemp
TIN090	Algorithms	TIN090	1	Devdatt Dubhashi

Answer:

SELECT *

FROM Courses, GivenCourses
WHERE teacher = 'Niklas Broberg';

code	name	course	per	teacher
TDA357	Databases	TDA357	3	Niklas Broberg
TIN090	Algorithms	TDA357	3	Niklas Broberg

The result is all rows from Courses combined in all possible ways with all rows from GivenCourses, and then keep only those where the teacher attribute is Niklas Broberg.

Cartesian Products

- The cartesian product of relations R₁ and R₂ is all possible combinations of rows from R₁ and R₂.
 - Written R₁ x R₂
 - Also called cross-product, or just product

```
SELECT *
FROM Courses, GivenCourses
WHERE teacher = 'Niklas Broberg';
```

σ_{teacher} = 'Niklas Broberg' (Courses x GivenCourses)

Quiz!

```
List all courses, with names, that Niklas Broberg is responsible for.

Courses(code,name)

GivenCourses(course,per,teacher)

course -> Courses.code

SELECT *

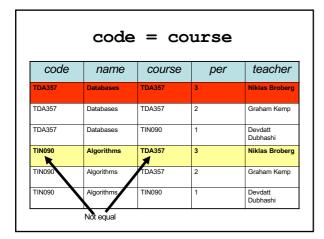
FROM Courses, GivenCourses

WHERE teacher = 'Niklas Broberg'

AND code = course;

code name course per teacher

TDA357 Databases TDA357 3 Niklas Broberg
```



Joining relations

- Very often we want to join two relations on the value of some attributes.
 - Typically we join according to some reference, as in:

SELECT *
FROM Courses, GivenCourses
WHERE code = course;

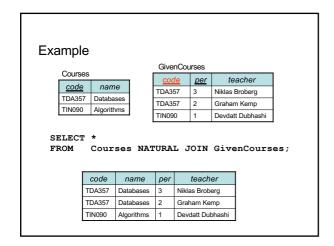
Special operator ⋈_C for joining relations.

 $R_1 \bowtie_C R_2 = \sigma_C(R_1 \times R_2)$ SELECT *
FROM R_1 JOIN R_2 ON C;

Example GivenCourses Courses course per teacher name <u>code</u> TDA357 3 Niklas Broberg TDA357 Databases TDA357 2 Graham Kemp TIN090 Algorithms TIN090 Devdatt Dubhashi SELECT * FROM Courses JOIN GivenCourses ON code = course; name course per TDA357 Databases TDA357 3 Niklas Broberg TDA357 Databases TDA357 2 Graham Kemp TIN090 Algorithms TIN090 1 Devdatt Dubhashi

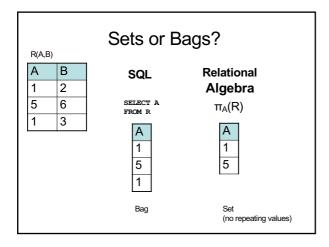
Natural join

- "Magic" version of join.
 - Join two relations on the condition that all attributes in the two that share the same name should be equal.
 - Remove all duplicate columns
 - Written $R_1 \bowtie R_2$ (like join with no condition)



Sets or Bags?

- Relational algebra formally applies to sets of tuples.
- SQL, the most important query language for relational databases is actually a bag language.
 - SQL will eliminate duplicates, but usually only if you ask it to do so explicitly.
- Some operations, like projection, are much more efficient on bags than sets.



Next time, Lecture 6

More Relational Algebra, SQL, Views