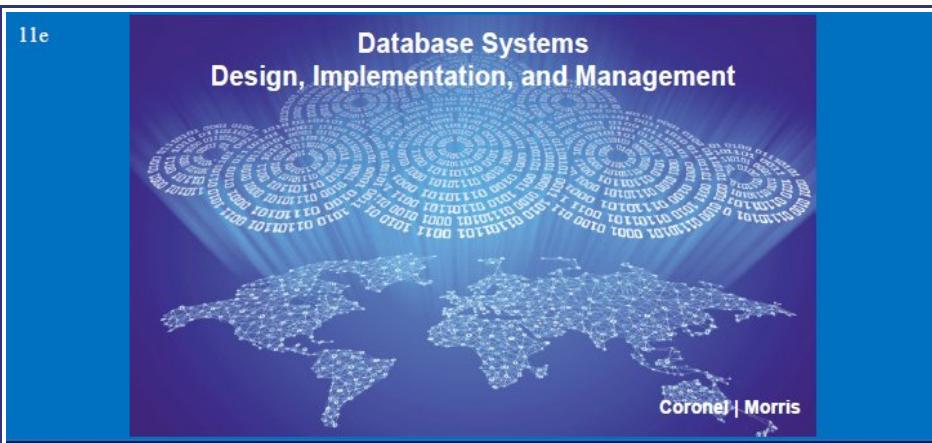


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Introduction

Database systems



Chapter 1 Database Systems

What you will learn:

Learning Objectives

- In this chapter, you will learn:
 - The difference between data and information
 - What a database is, the various types of databases, and why they are valuable assets for decision making
 - The importance of database design
 - How modern databases evolved from file systems

What else you will learn:

Learning Objectives

- In this chapter, you will learn:
 - About flaws in file system data management
 - The main components of the database system
 - The main functions of a database management system (DBMS)

Data != information!

Data vs. Information

Data

- Raw facts
 - Raw data - Not yet been processed to reveal the meaning
- Building blocks of information
- **Data management**
 - Generation, storage, and retrieval of data

Information

- Produced by processing data
- Reveals the meaning of data
- Enables **knowledge** creation
- Should be accurate, relevant, and timely to enable good decision making

DB, DBMS

Database

- Shared, integrated computer structure that stores a collection of:
 - End-user data - Raw facts of interest to end user
 - **Metadata:** Data about data, which the end-user data are integrated and managed
 - Describe data characteristics and relationships
- **Database management system (DBMS)**
 - Collection of programs
 - Manages the database structure
 - Controls access to data stored in the database

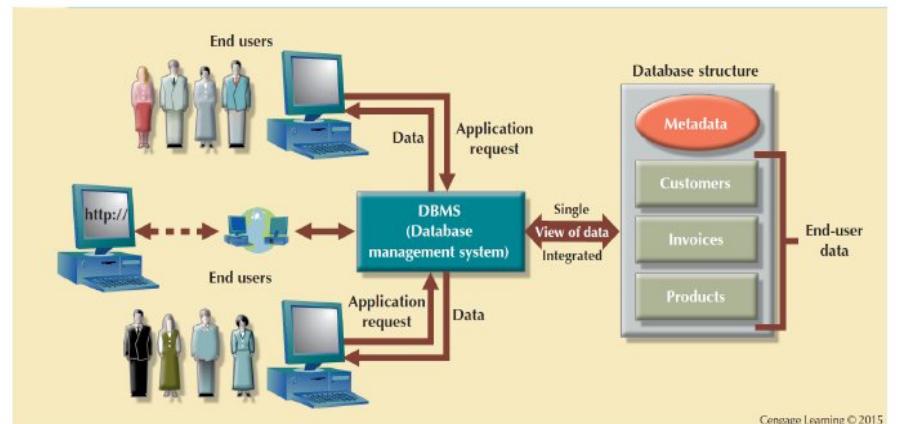
Why DBMS?

Role of the DBMS

- Intermediary between the user and the database
- Enables data to be shared
- Presents the end user with an integrated view of the data
- Receives and translates application requests into operations required to fulfill the requests
- Hides database's internal complexity from the application programs and users

DBMS is a go-between

Figure 1.2 - The DBMS Manages the Interaction between the End User and the Database



DBMS: advantages

Advantages of the DBMS

- Better data integration and less data inconsistency
 - **Data inconsistency:** Different versions of the same data appear in different places
- Increased end-user productivity
- Improved:
 - Data sharing
 - Data security
 - Data access
 - Decision making
 - **Data quality:** Promoting accuracy, validity, and timeliness of data

Types of DBs: based on user count

Types of Databases

- **Single-user database:** Supports one user at a time
 - **Desktop database:** Runs on PC
- **Multiuser database:** Supports multiple users at the same time
 - **Workgroup databases:** Supports a small number of users or a specific department
 - **Enterprise database:** Supports many users across many departments

Types of DBs: based on location

Types of Databases

- **Centralized database:** Data is located at a single site
- **Distributed database:** Data is distributed across different sites
- **Cloud database:** Created and maintained using cloud data services that provide defined performance measures for the database

Types of DBs: based on content

Types of Databases

- **General-purpose databases:** Contains a wide variety of data used in multiple disciplines
- **Discipline-specific databases:** Contains data focused on specific subject areas

Types of DBs: based on data currency

Types of Databases

- **Operational database:** Designed to support a company's day-to-day operations
- **Analytical database:** Stores historical data and business metrics used exclusively for tactical or strategic decision making
- **Data warehouse:** Stores data in a format optimized for decision support

Types of DBs [cont'd]

Types of Databases

- **Online analytical processing (OLAP)**

- Enable retrieving, processing, and modeling data from the data warehouse

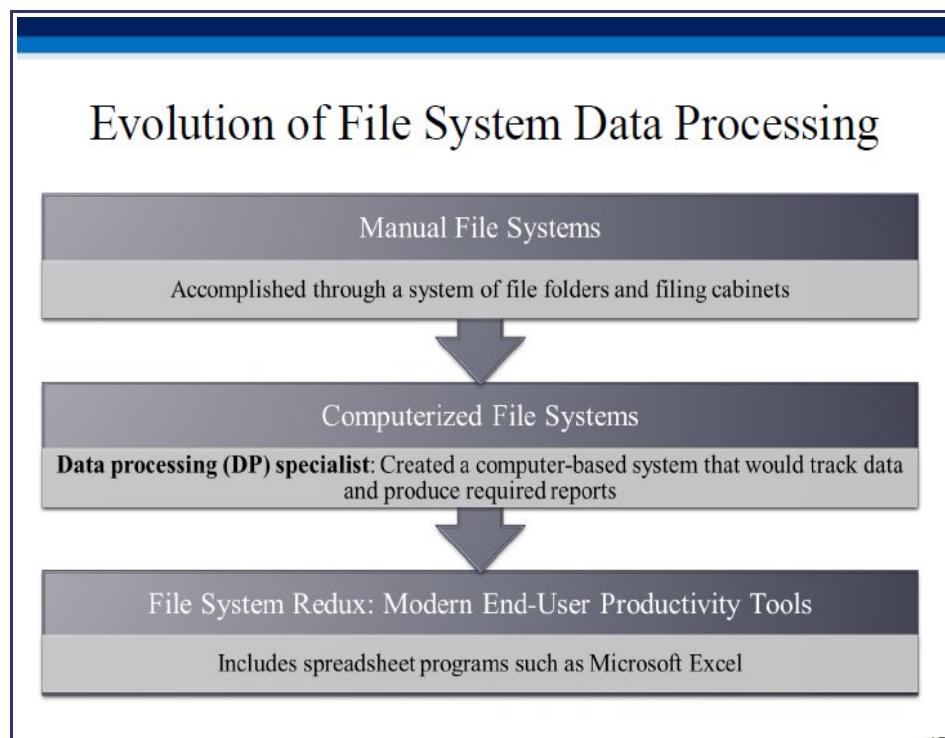
- **Business intelligence:** Captures and processes business data to generate information that support decision making

Types of DBs: based on the structure of contained data

Types of Databases

- **Unstructured data:** It exists in their original state
- **Structured data:** It results from formatting
 - Structure is applied based on type of processing to be performed
- **Semistructured data:** Processed to some extent
- **Extensible Markup Language (XML)**
 - Represents data elements in textual format

Early DBs: file systems



File systems

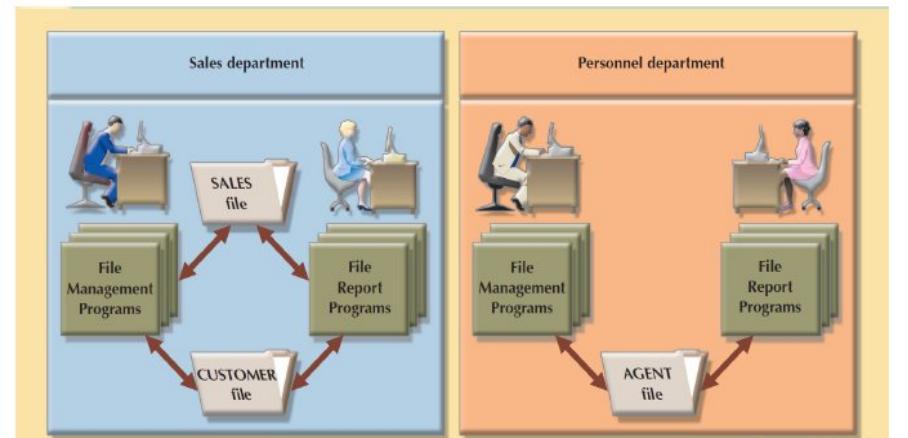
Table 1.2 - Basic File Terminology

TERM	DEFINITION
Data	Raw facts, such as a telephone number, a birth date, a customer name, and a year-to-date (YTD) sales value. Data have little meaning unless they have been organized in some logical manner.
Field	A character or group of characters (alphabetic or numeric) that has a specific meaning. A field is used to define and store data.
Record	A logically connected set of one or more fields that describes a person, place, or thing. For example, the fields that constitute a record for a customer might consist of the customer's name, address, phone number, date of birth, credit limit, and unpaid balance.
File	A collection of related records. For example, a file might contain data about the students currently enrolled at Gigantic University.

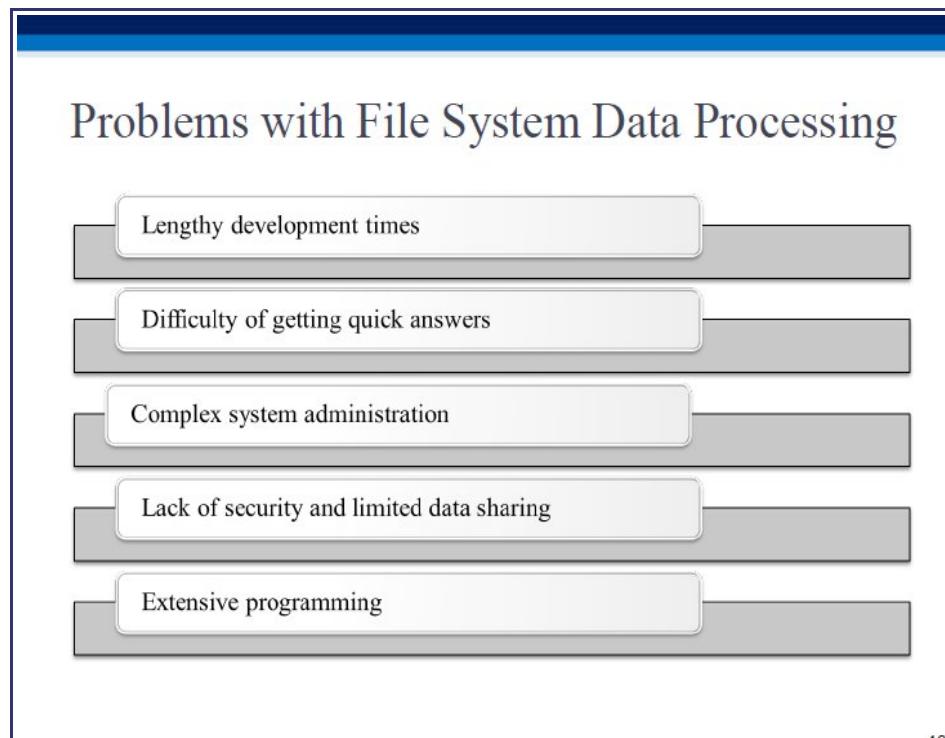
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File system

Figure 1.6 - A Simple File System



File systems: problems



'Structural' dependence (not a good thing!)

Structural and Data Dependence

- **Structural dependence:** Access to a file is dependent on its own structure
 - All file system programs are modified to conform to a new file structure
- **Structural independence:** File structure is changed without affecting the application's ability to access the data

Structural dependence [cont'd]

Structural and Data Dependence

- Data dependence
 - Data access changes when data storage characteristics change
- Data independence
 - Data storage characteristics is changed without affecting the program's ability to access the data
- Practical significance of data dependence is difference between logical and physical format

Redundancy of data (again, not a good thing!)

Data Redundancy

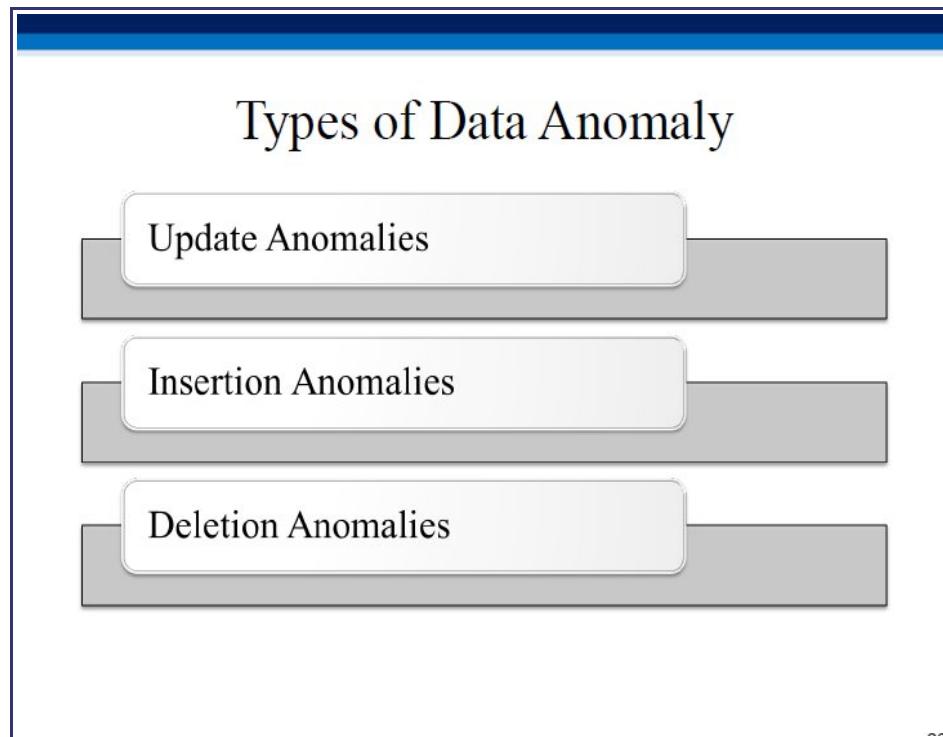
- Unnecessarily storing same data at different places
- **Islands of information:** Scattered data locations
 - Increases the probability of having different versions of the same data

Why is redundancy not a good thing?

Data Redundancy Implications

- Poor data security
- Data inconsistency
- Increased likelihood of data-entry errors when complex entries are made in different files
- **Data anomaly:** Develops when not all of the required changes in the redundant data are made successfully

The three types of data anomalies



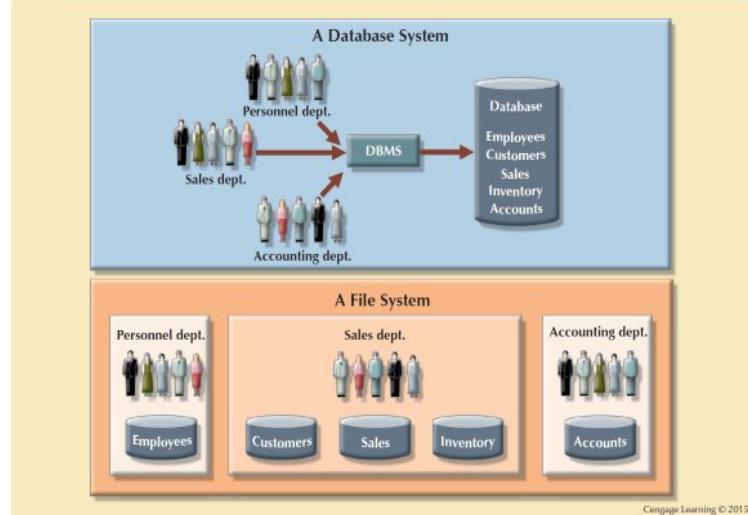
DB systems

Database Systems

- Logically related data stored in a single logical data repository
 - Physically distributed among multiple storage facilities
 - DBMS eliminates most of file system's problems
- Current generation DBMS software:
 - Stores data structures, relationships between structures, and access paths
 - Defines, stores, and manages all access paths and components

DB vs file system

Figure 1.8 - Contrasting Database and File Systems



DBMS

DBMS Functions

Data dictionary management

- **Data dictionary:** Stores definitions of the data elements and their relationships

Data storage management

- **Performance tuning:** Ensures efficient performance of the database in terms of storage and access speed

Data transformation and presentation

- Transforms entered data to conform to required data structures

Security management

- Enforces user security and data privacy

..

DBMS [cont'd]

DBMS Functions

Multiuser access control

- Sophisticated algorithms ensure that multiple users can access the database concurrently without compromising its integrity

Backup and recovery management

- Enables recovery of the database after a failure

Data integrity management

- Minimizes redundancy and maximizes consistency

DBMS [cont'd]

DBMS Functions

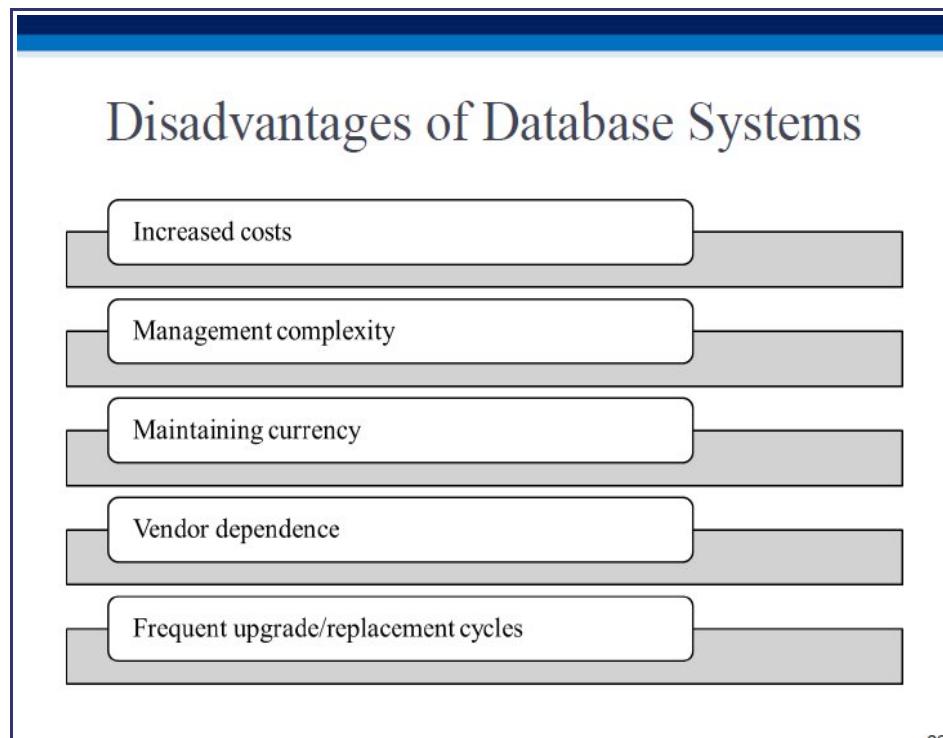
Database access languages and application programming interfaces

- **Query language:** Lets the user specify what must be done without having to specify how
- **Structured Query Language (SQL):** De facto query language and data access standard supported by the majority of DBMS vendors

Database communication interfaces

- Accept end-user requests via multiple, different network environments

How DBs could be "bad"



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Data Modeling

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The image shows the front cover of the 11th edition of the book 'Database Systems: Design, Implementation, and Management' by Coronel and Morris. The cover is primarily purple and blue. At the top left, it says '11e'. The title 'Database Systems' is at the top center, followed by 'Design, Implementation, and Management' in a smaller font. Below the title is a circular graphic composed of many small, repeating text snippets like 'DATA MODELING', 'DESIGN', 'IMPLEMENTATION', etc., radiating from the center. At the bottom, there is a world map composed of network nodes and connections. The authors' names, 'Coronel | Morris', are at the bottom right.

Chapter 2
Data Models

Learning Objectives

- In this chapter, you will learn:
 - About data modeling and why data models are important
 - About the basic data-modeling building blocks
 - What business rules are and how they influence database design

Learning Objectives

- In this chapter, you will learn:
 - How the major data models evolved
 - About emerging alternative data models and the need they fulfill
 - How data models can be classified by their level of abstraction

Data Modeling and Data Models

- **Data modeling:** Iterative and progressive process of creating a specific data model for a determined problem domain
- **Data models:** Simple representations of complex real-world data structures
- Useful for supporting a specific problem domain
- **Model** - Abstraction of a real-world object or event

•

Importance of Data Models

- Are a communication tool
- Give an overall view of the database
- Organize data for various users
- Are an abstraction for the creation of good database

-

Data Model Basic Building Blocks

- **Entity:** Unique and distinct object used to collect and store data
 - **Attribute:** Characteristic of an entity
- **Relationship:** Describes an association among entities
 - **One-to-many (1:M)**
 - **Many-to-many (M:N or M:M)**
 - **One-to-one (1:1)**
- **Constraint:** Set of rules to ensure data integrity

- - Business Rules
 - Brief, precise, and unambiguous description of a policy, procedure, or principle
 - Enable defining the basic building blocks
 - Describe main and distinguishing characteristics of the data



-

Reasons for Identifying and Documenting Business Rules

- Help standardize company's view of data
- Communications tool between users and designers
- Allow designer to:
 - Understand the nature, role, scope of data, and business processes
 - Develop appropriate relationship participation rules and constraints
 - Create an accurate data model

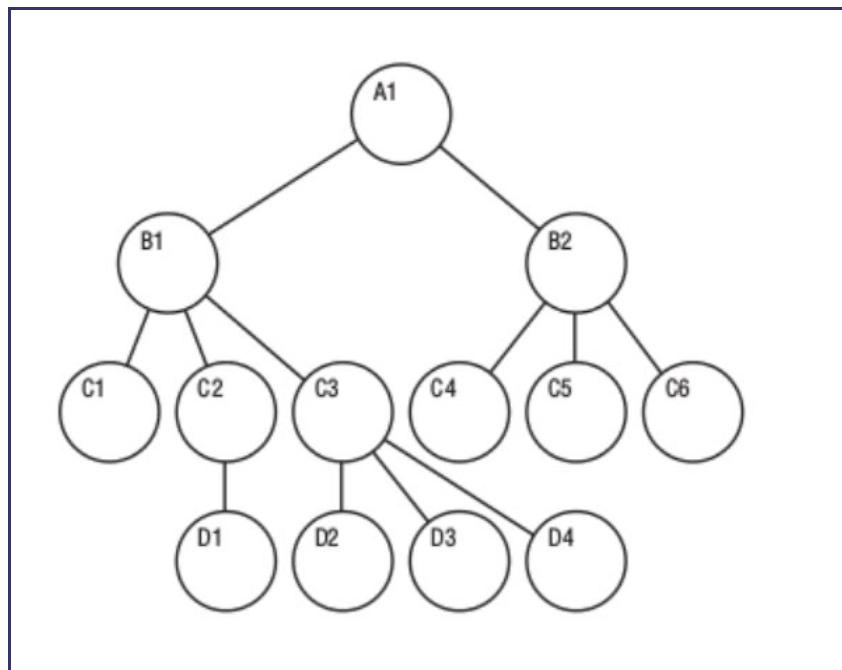
Translating Business Rules into Data Model Components

- Nouns translate into entities
- Verbs translate into relationships among entities
- Relationships are bidirectional
- Questions to identify the relationship type
 - How many instances of B are related to one instance of A?
 - How many instances of A are related to one instance of B?

Naming Conventions

- Entity names - Required to:
 - Be descriptive of the objects in the business environment
 - Use terminology that is familiar to the users
- Attribute name - Required to be descriptive of the data represented by the attribute
- Proper naming:
 - Facilitates communication between parties
 - Promotes self-documentation

Hierarchical modeling

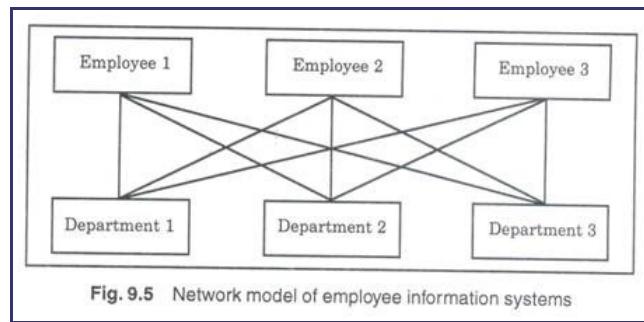


At first, data was stored in individual files (transitioned from paper). The next improvement was a 'hierarchical DB model', where data was structured in the form of a tree [similar to a modern filesystem].

Data, in the form of nodes, are linked in a tree-like fashion. To traverse the tree, we need to know the underlying format ('class hierarchy, to make an analogy with classes and objects), and the actual path [eg. to relate A1 and D2, we need to traverse A1->B1->C3>D2].

Hierarchies are good for '1:M' [tree], but not 'M:N' [graph or multiple inheritance].

Network modeling



A network model is better than a hierarchical one, because it can capture M:N [in addition to the above, another example is 'products and orders'].

•

Hierarchical and Network Models

Hierarchical Models

- Manage large amounts of data for complex manufacturing projects
- Represented by an upside-down tree which contains segments
 - **Segments:** Equivalent of a file system's record type
- Depicts a set of one-to-many (1:M) relationships

Network Models

- Represent complex data relationships
- Improve database performance and impose a database standard
- Depicts both one-to-many (1:M) and many-to-many (M:N) relationships

Hierarchical Model

Advantages

- Promotes data sharing
- Parent/child relationship promotes conceptual simplicity and data integrity
- Database security is provided and enforced by DBMS
- Efficient with 1:M relationships

Disadvantages

- Requires knowledge of physical data storage characteristics
- Navigational system requires knowledge of hierarchical path
- Changes in structure require changes in all application programs
- Implementation limitations
- No data definition
- Lack of standards

Network Model

Advantages

- Conceptual simplicity
- Handles more relationship types
- Data access is flexible
- Data owner/member relationship promotes data integrity
- Conformance to standards
- Includes data definition language (DDL) and data manipulation language (DML)

Disadvantages

- System complexity limits efficiency
- Navigational system yields complex implementation, application development, and management
- Structural changes require changes in all application programs

-

Standard Database Concepts

Schema

- Conceptual organization of the entire database as viewed by the database administrator

Subschema

- Portion of the database seen by the application programs that produce the desired information from the data within the database

Data creation, querying

Schema data definition language (DDL)

- Enables the database administrator to define the schema components

Data manipulation language (DML)

- Environment in which data can be managed and is used to work with the data in the database

Relational model

The Relational Model

- Based on a relation
 - **Relation or table:** Matrix composed of intersecting tuple and attribute
 - **Tuple:** Rows
 - **Attribute:** Columns
 - Describes a precise set of data manipulation constructs

Relational model

Relational Model

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Structural independence is promoted using independent tables▪ Tabular view improves conceptual simplicity▪ Ad hoc query capability is based on SQL▪ Isolates the end user from physical-level details▪ Improves implementation and management simplicity	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Requires substantial hardware and system software overhead▪ Conceptual simplicity gives untrained people the tools to use a good system poorly▪ May promote information problems

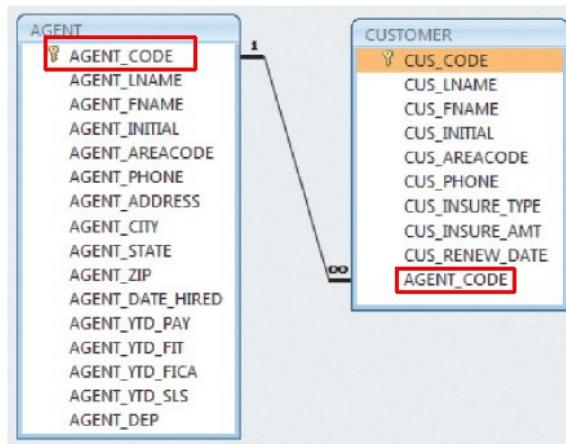
Relational DBMS

Relational Database Management System(RDBMS)

- Performs basic functions provided by the hierarchical and network DBMS systems
- Makes the relational data model easier to understand and implement
- Hides the complexities of the relational model from the user

Relation - BETWEEN entities

Figure 2.2 - A Relational Diagram



Note: this relation is NOT what relational modeling is about!! Here, we relate two entities, via a common attribute (AGENT_CODE, in our example).

SQL + RDBMS

SQL-Based Relational Database Application

- End-user interface
 - Allows end user to interact with the data
- Collection of tables stored in the database
 - Each table is independent from another
 - Rows in different tables are related based on common values in common attributes
- SQL engine
 - Executes all queries

E-R

The Entity Relationship Model

- Graphical representation of entities and their relationships in a database structure
- **Entity relationship diagram (ERD)**
 - Uses graphic representations to model database components
- **Entity instance or entity occurrence**
 - Rows in the relational table
- **Connectivity:** Term used to label the relationship types

E-R

Entity Relationship Model

Advantages

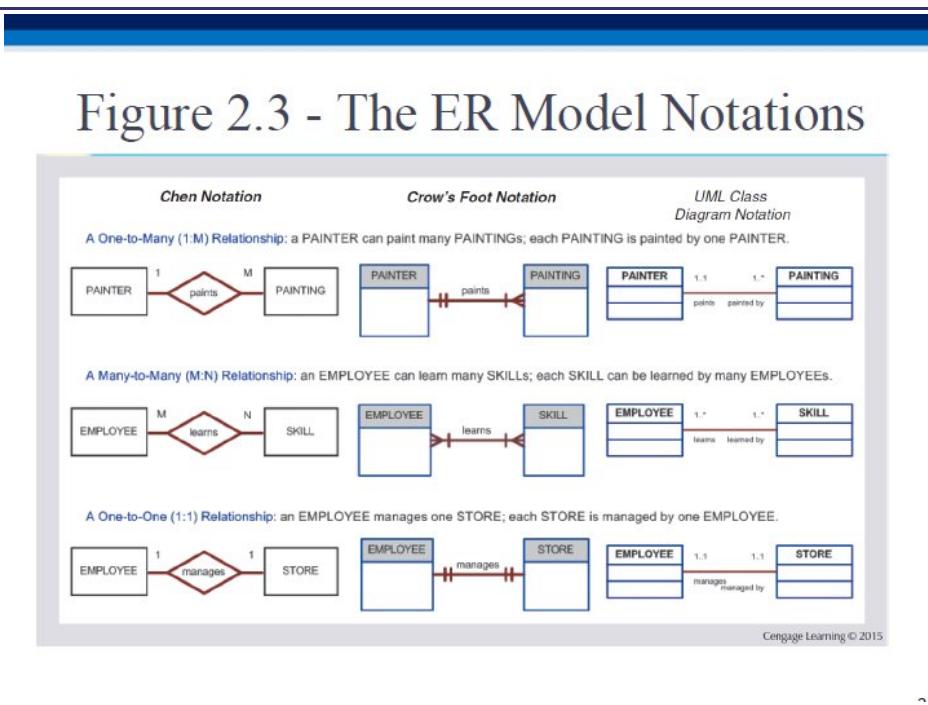
- Visual modeling yields conceptual simplicity
- Visual representation makes it an effective communication tool
- Is integrated with the dominant relational model

Disadvantages

- Limited constraint representation
- Limited relationship representation
- No data manipulation language
- Loss of information content occurs when attributes are removed from entities to avoid crowded displays

Notations

Figure 2.3 - The ER Model Notations



Notations - more..

Additional reading: [here](#) is information on, and comparison between, four ER notations: Chen, Crow, Rein85, IDEFIX.

O-O databases

Also called 'object stores', these dbs offer(ed) a way to store ("persist") objects on disk. The objects (entity instances) are instanced from classes (entities), like with standard OO programming practice.

Advantages:

- 'cleaner' design - objects mimic real-world counterparts
- inheritance and encapsulation possible
- richer datatypes (attributes) available
- good for CAD, multimedia..

Drawbacks:

- harder to query (compared to relational DBs) - no straightforward way to build and traverse relations between objects
- relations are simpler in certain situations

The RDBMS community collectively ignored this development..

O-R databases

These are a compromise between RDBs and OODBs - they feature an O-O front-end over a relational architecture. Interfacing applications do so in an O-O way, and queries/modifications are translated to/from relational form ("ORM").

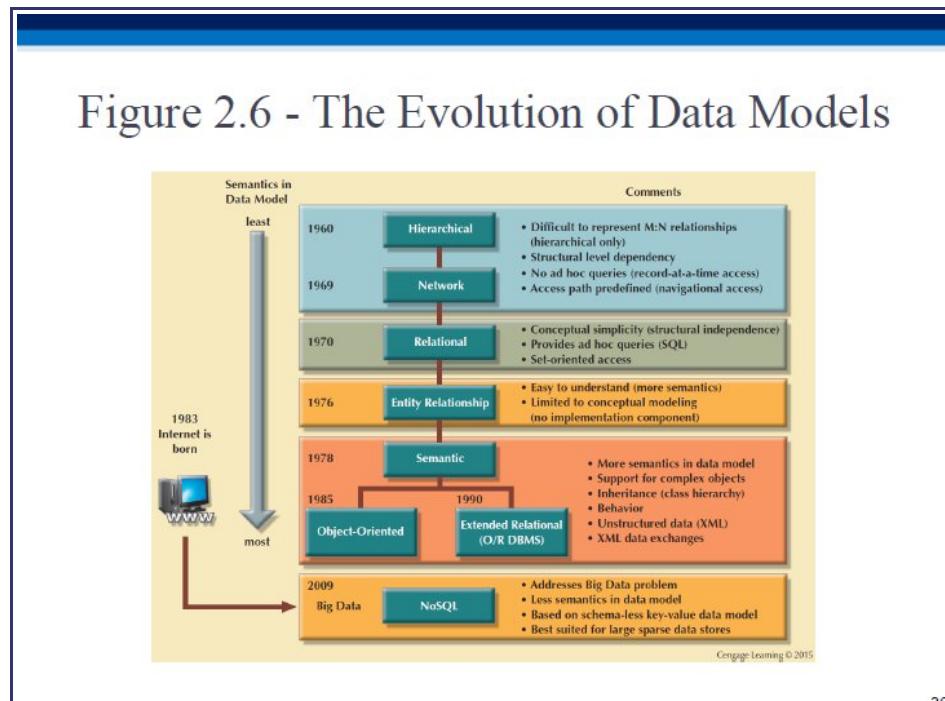
Benefits:

- easy to access the data from an O-O application
- queries can be simpler (can use objects' structure)

Drawback:

- performance can be poor on account of the two-way translation

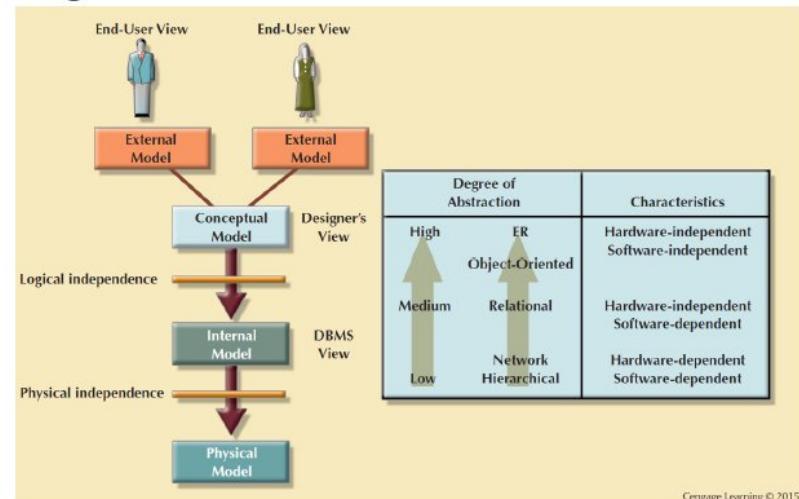
Data models: hierarchical => => NoSQL



Data models have evolved - from 'hierarchical' (very rigid) to 'NoSQL' (VERY flexible).

Layered data abstraction

Figure 2.7 - Data Abstraction Levels



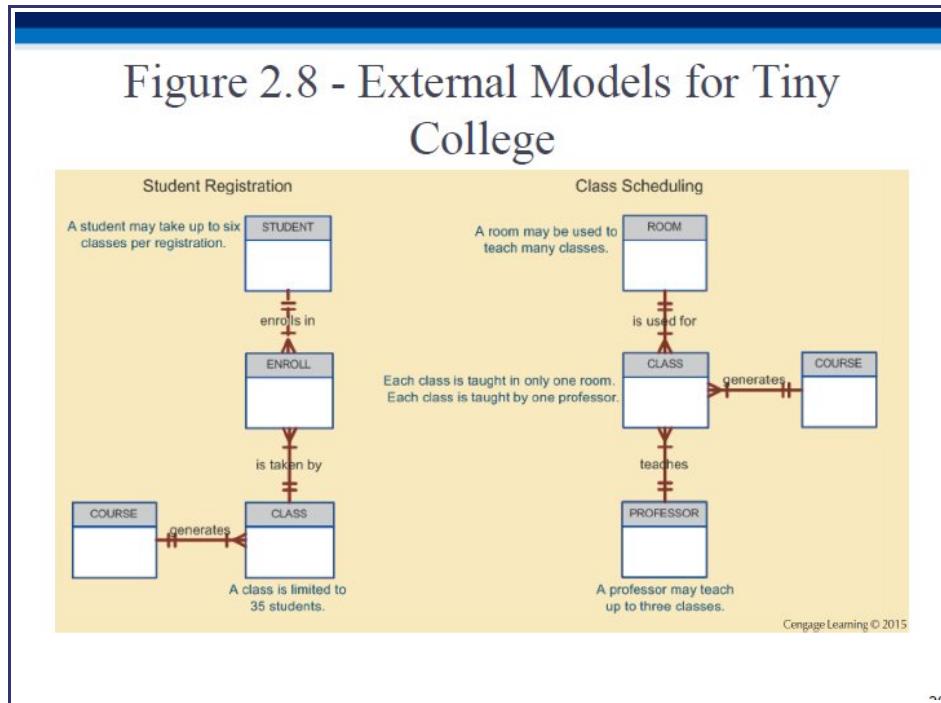
External model

The External Model

- End users' view of the data environment
- ER diagrams are used to represent the external views
- **External schema:** Specific representation of an external view

An external model is a collection of 'fragmented', 'from the stakeholders' POV', modeling of a database.

External model



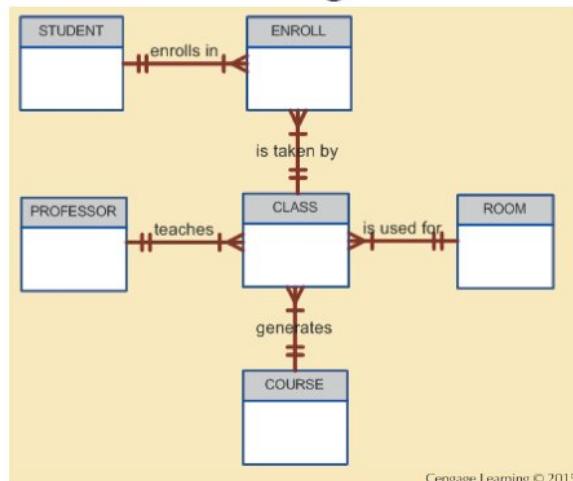
Conceptual model

The Conceptual Model

- Represents a global view of the entire database by the entire organization
- **Conceptual schema:** Basis for the identification and high-level description of the main data objects
- Has a macro-level view of data environment
- Is software and hardware independent
- **Logical design:** Task of creating a conceptual data model

Conceptual model

Figure 2.9 - Conceptual Model for Tiny College



A conceptual model unifies the external views into a cohesive one.

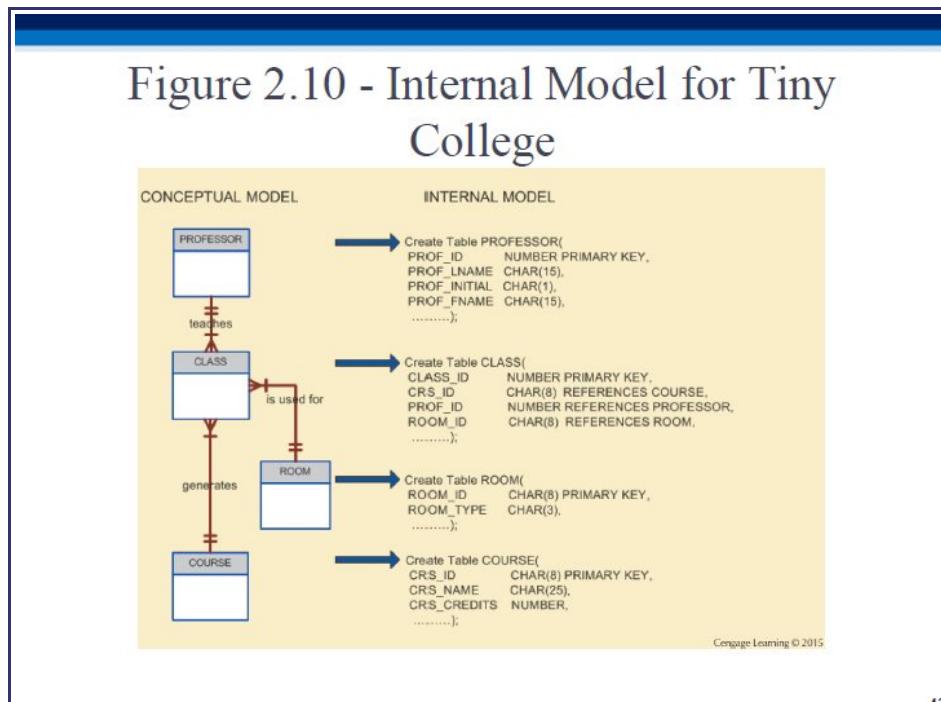
Internal model

The Internal Model

- Representing database as seen by the DBMS mapping conceptual model to the DBMS
- **Internal schema:** Specific representation of an internal model
 - Uses the database constructs supported by the chosen database
- Is software dependent and hardware independent
- **Logical independence:** Changing internal model without affecting the conceptual model

An internal model specifies what type of modeling (eg. relational, NoSQL...) to use for storing the data.

Internal model



Physical model

The Physical Model

- Operates at lowest level of abstraction
- Describes the way data are saved on storage media such as disks or tapes
- Requires the definition of physical storage and data access methods
- Relational model aimed at logical level
 - Does not require physical-level details
- **Physical independence:** Changes in physical model do not affect internal model

The physical model specifies actual data storage specifics (file format, APIs...).

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ER

Entity Relationship Model (ERM)

- Basis of an entity relationship diagram (ERD)
- ERD depicts the:
 - Conceptual database as viewed by end user
 - Database's main components
 - Entities
 - Attributes
 - Relationships
- Entity - Refers to the entity set and not to a single entity occurrence

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Attributes

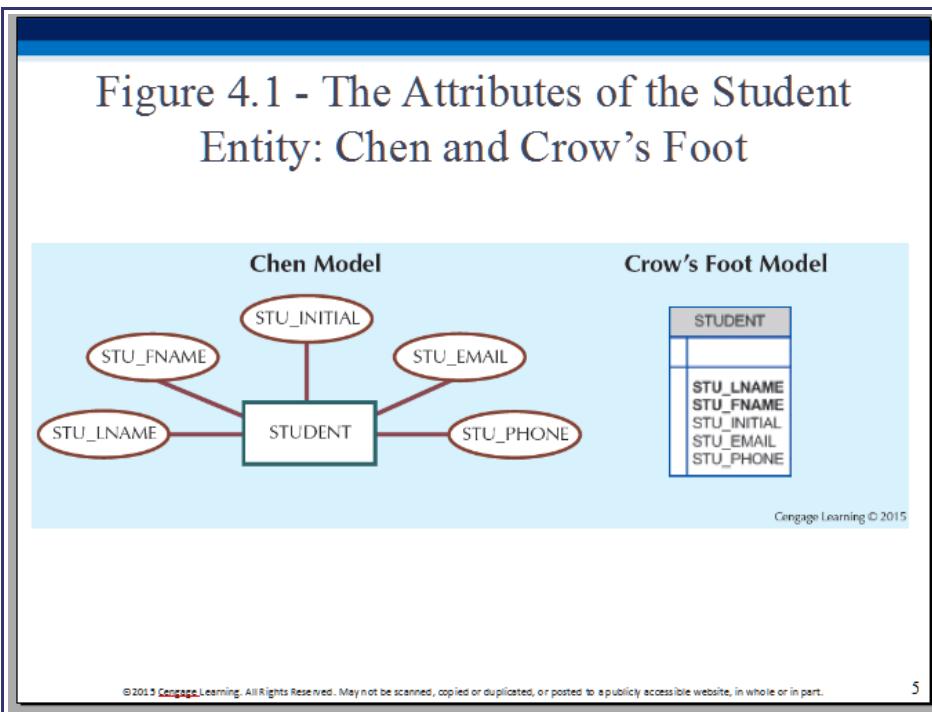
- Characteristics of entities
- **Required attribute:** Must have a value, cannot be left empty
- **Optional attribute:** Does not require a value, can be left empty
- Domain - Set of possible values for a given attribute
- **Identifiers:** One or more attributes that uniquely identify each entity instance

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An identifier is also called a KEY, or PRIMARY KEY - **this is one of the 'key' concepts in all of database theory!!** We'll talk much more about keys later.

Figure 4.1 - The Attributes of the Student Entity: Chen and Crow's Foot



Attributes

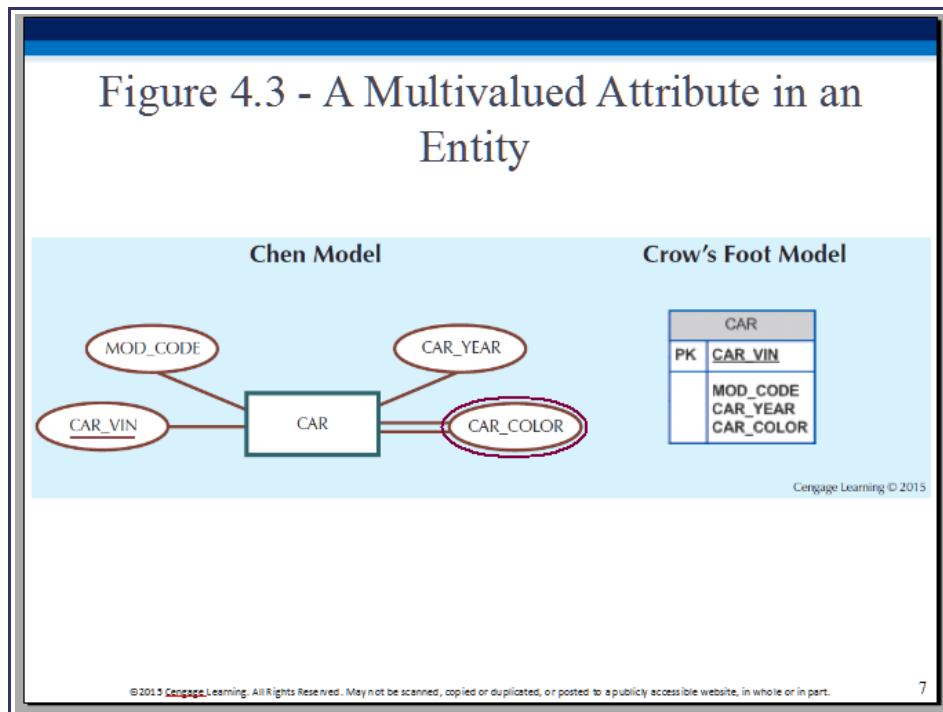
- **Composite identifier:** Primary key composed of more than one attribute
- ~~Compound~~ **Composite attribute:** Attribute that can be subdivided to yield additional attributes
- **Simple attribute:** Attribute that cannot be subdivided
- **Single-valued attribute:** Attribute that has only a single value
- **Multivalued attributes:** Attributes that have many values

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FYI - [here](#) is a page on the various types of attributes.

Figure 4.3 - A Multivalued Attribute in an Entity



In Crow's Foot notation, 'bold' attributes are 'required' (can't be null).

Attributes

- **Multivalued attributes:** Attributes that have many values and require creating:
 - Several new attributes, one for each component of the original multivalued attribute
 - A new entity composed of the original multivalued attribute's components
- **Derived attribute:** Attribute whose value is calculated from other attributes
 - Derived using an algorithm

Figure 4.6 - Depiction of a Derived Attribute

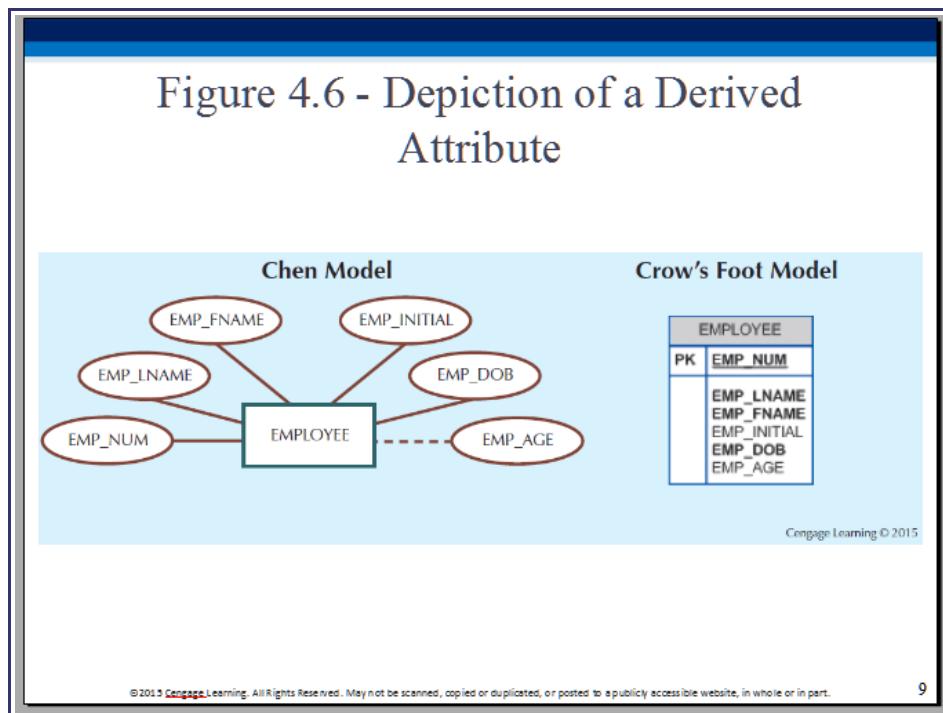


Table 4.2 - Advantages and Disadvantages of Storing Derived Attributes

	STORED	NOT STORED
Advantage	Saves CPU processing cycles Saves data access time Data value is readily available Can be used to keep track of historical data	Saves storage space Computation always yields current value
Disadvantage	Requires constant maintenance to ensure derived value is current, especially if any values used in the calculation change	Uses CPU processing cycles Increases data access time Adds coding complexity to queries

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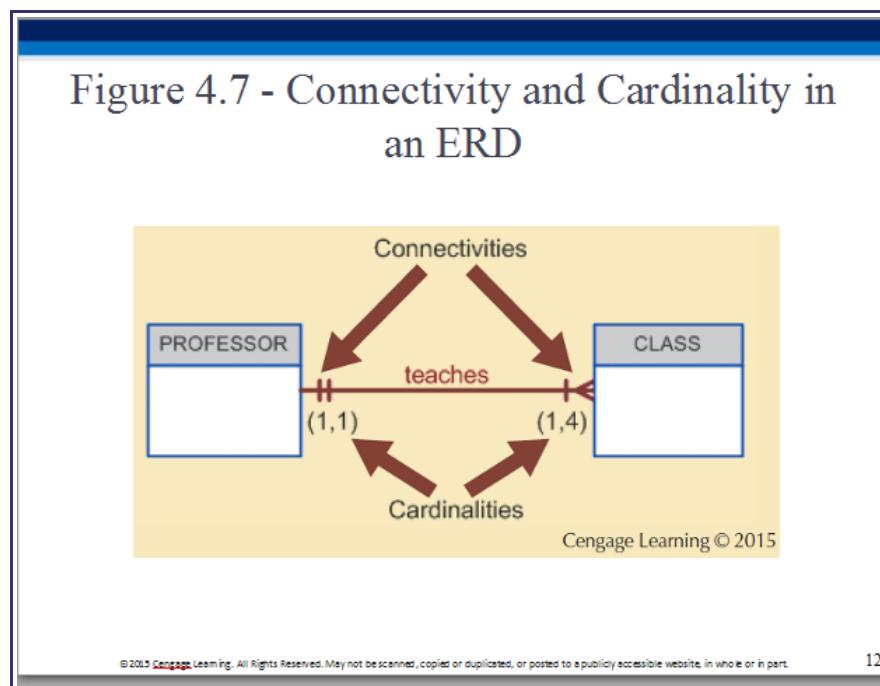
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Relationships

- Association between entities that always operate in both directions
- **Participants:** Entities that participate in a relationship
- **Connectivity:** Describes the relationship classification
- **Cardinality:** Expresses the minimum and maximum number of entity occurrences associated with one occurrence of related entity

Connectivity vs cardinality



Connectivity: 1:1, 1:M or M:N (three diff ways by which two entities are related).

Cardinality: (min,max) for 1:1, 1:M or M:N (eg. 1:1 can have (1,0) as its cardinality, 1:M can have (0,4) as its cardinality). Sometimes, min is called 'modality' (and max is cardinality). The 'inside' symbols denotes min, and the outside ones, max.

Confusingly, the # rows in a table is ALSO called table's cardinality (and, # of columns is called the table's degree).

Also confusingly, 1:1, 1:M, M:N are called 'cardinality ratios'!

'Can I exist apart from you?'

Existence Dependence

Existence dependence	Existence independence
<ul style="list-style-type: none">Entity exists in the database only when it is associated with another related entity occurrence	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Entity exists apart from all of its related entitiesReferred to as a strong entity or regular entity

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Existence independence implies a strong entity; but, existence dependence (alone, ie. by itself) does NOT imply a weak entity (there needs to be one more condition, based on 'relationship strength', for it to become 'weak').

In other words, **we need to look at where the FK in the dependent entity is located.**

Existence dependence

An entity B is "existent dependent" on another entity A, if, a row in B can only exist when its FK is NOT NULL, ie. a corresponding entry exists in A.

Eg. if A is EMPLOYEE and B is DEPENDENT, a dependent (eg. child) in B can only exist if there is a corresponding employee (eg. Dad) in A. THIS ALONE DOES NOT MAKE 'B' A WEAK ENTITY!

Weak vs strong relationship

Again, it's all about the FK [WHERE it goes], in the dependent entity!

Relationship Strength

Weak (non-identifying) relationship

- Primary key of the related entity does not contain a primary key component of the parent entity

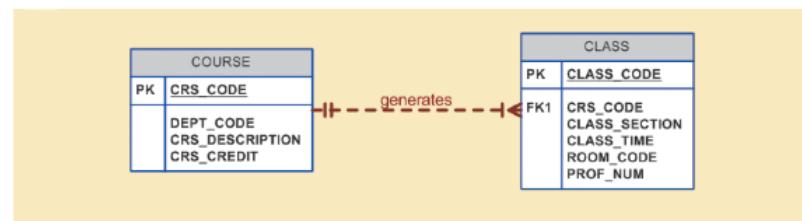
Strong (identifying) relationships

- Primary key of the related entity contains a primary key component of the parent entity

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Figure 4.8 - A Weak (Non-Identifying) Relationship between COURSE and CLASS



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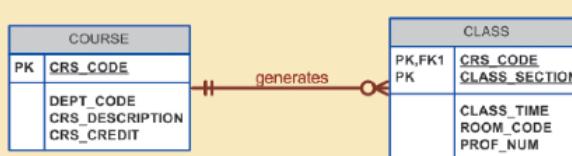
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So, here, CLASS is **not** a weak entity.

Strong ("common PK") course-class relation

Figure 4.9 - A Strong (Identifying) Relationship between COURSE and CLASS



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COURSE and CLASS

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CLASS is now a weak entity (because: it is existence dependent, AND has a strong relationship).

Weak entity [two conditions]

Weak Entity

- Conditions
 - Existence-dependent
 - Has a primary key that is partially or totally derived from parent entity in the relationship
- Database designer determines whether an entity is weak based on business rules

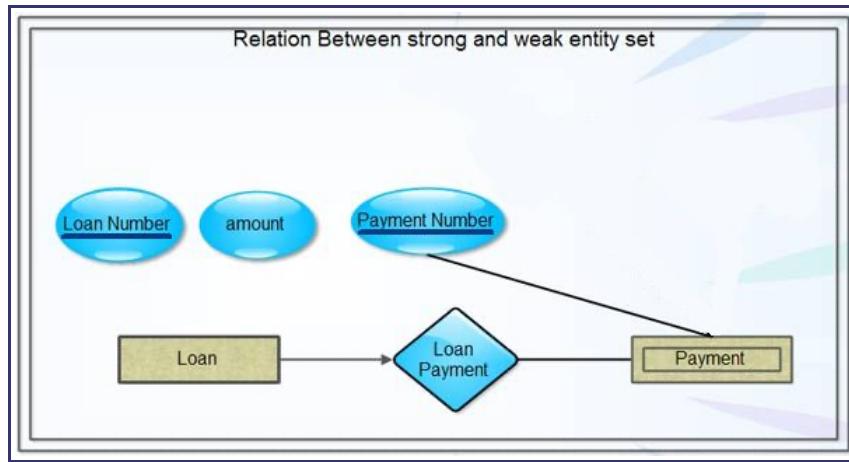
A weak entity needs to satisfy two conditions: existence dependence, strong (identifying/owning) relationship with a parent.

Note that a weak entity implies existence dependence, but existence dependence does not imply a weak entity!

Note too that a weak entity implies a strong ("owning" or "identifying") relationship.

Removing the controlling (owning) entity's key from a weak entity's PK will result in **duplicates** for remaining PK(s) - THAT is what makes it 'weak'.

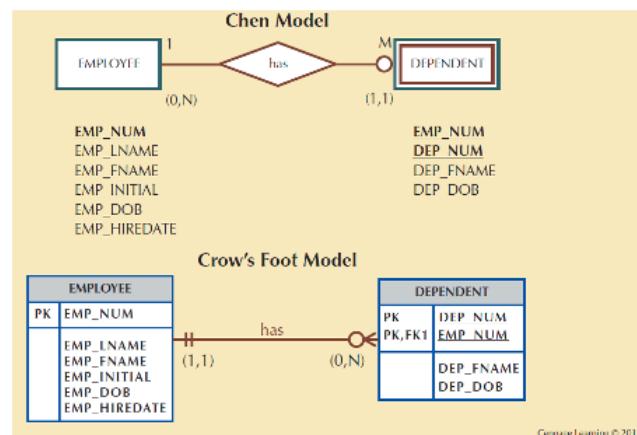
Weak entity - example



Payment cannot exist independent of Loan, AND needs Loan's key to be part of its own key, so it is a weak entity.

Weak entity

Figure 4.10 - A Weak Entity in an ERD



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Weak entity

Figure 4.11 - A Weak Entity

Table name: EMPLOYEE Database name: Ch04_ShortCo

EMP_NUM	EMP_LNAME	EMP_FNAME	EMP_INITIAL	EMP_DOB	EMP_HIREDATE
1001	Califante	Jeanine	J	12-Mar-64	25-May-97
1002	Smithson	William	K	23-Nov-70	28-May-97
1003	Washington	Herman	H	15-Aug-68	28-May-97
1004	Chen	Lydia	B	23-Mar-74	15-Oct-98
1005	Johnson	Melanie		28-Sep-66	20-Dec-98
1006	Ortega	Jorge	G	12-Jul-79	05-Jan-02
1007	O'Donnell	Peter	D	10-Jun-71	23-Jun-02
1008	Brzinski	Barbara	A	12-Feb-70	01-Nov-03

Table name: DEPENDENT

EMP_NUM	DEP_NUM	DEP_FNAME	DEP_DOB
1001	1	Annelise	05-Dec-97
1001	2	Jorge	30-Sep-02
1003	1	Suzanne	25-Jan-04
1006	1	Carlos	25-May-01
1008	1	Michael	19-Feb-95
1008	2	George	27-Jun-98
1008	3	Katherine	18-Aug-03

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Relationship Participation

Optional participation

- One entity occurrence does not require a corresponding entity occurrence in a particular relationship

Mandatory participation

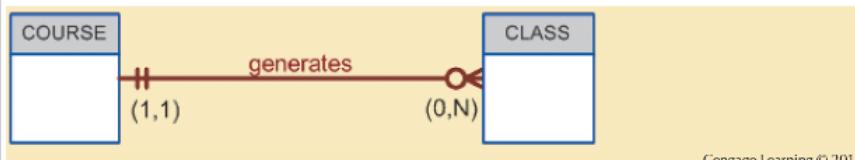
- One entity occurrence requires a corresponding entity occurrence in a particular relationship

Table 4.3 - Crow's Foot Symbols

CROW'S FOOT SYMBOLS	CARDINALITY	COMMENT
	(0,N)	Zero or many; the "many" side is optional.
	(1,N)	One or many; the "many" side is mandatory.
	(1,1)	One and only one; the "1" side is mandatory.
	(0,1)	Zero or one; the "1" side is optional.

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Figure 4.13 - CLASS is Optional to COURSE

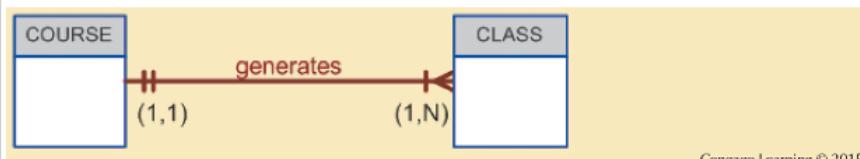


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Figure 4.14 - COURSE and CLASS in a Mandatory Relationship



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Relationship Degree

- Indicates the number of entities or participants associated with a relationship
- **Unary relationship:** Association is maintained within a single entity
 - **Recursive relationship:** Relationship exists between occurrences of the same entity set
- **Binary relationship:** Two entities are associated
- **Ternary relationship:** Three entities are associated

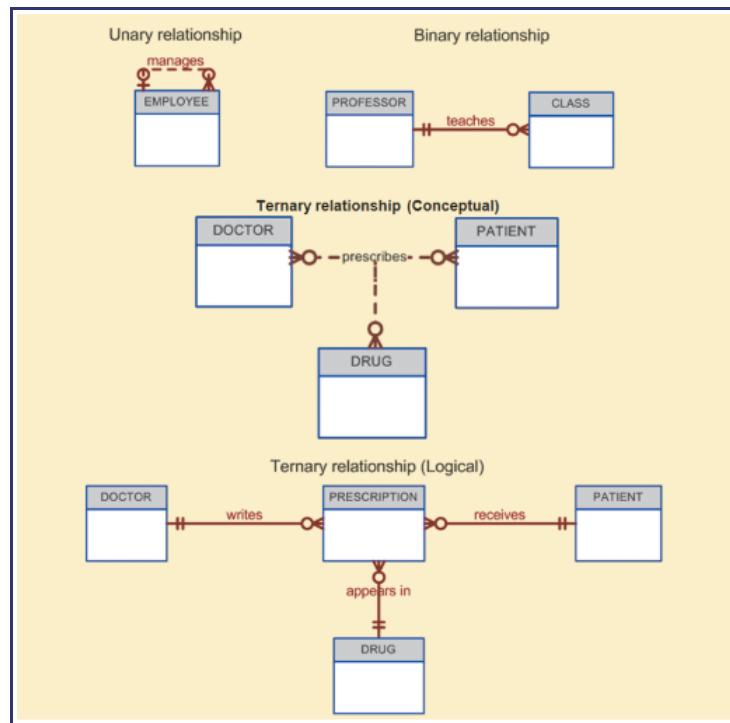


Figure 4.17 - An ER Representation of Recursive Relationships



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Bridge entities

Associative Entities

- Also known as composite or bridge entities
- Used to represent an M:N relationship between two or more entities
- Is in a 1:M relationship with the parent entities
 - Composed of the primary key attributes of each parent entity
- May also contain additional attributes that play no role in connective process

Figure 4.23 - Converting the M:N Relationship into Two 1:M Relationships

Table name: STUDENT

STU_NUM	STU_LNAME
321452	Bowsse
324257	Smithson

Database name: Ch04_CollegeTry

Table name: ENROLL

CLASS_CODE	STU_NUM	ENROLL_GRADE
10014	321452	C
10014	324257	B
10018	321452	A
10018	324257	B
10021	321452	C
10021	324257	C

Table name: CLASS

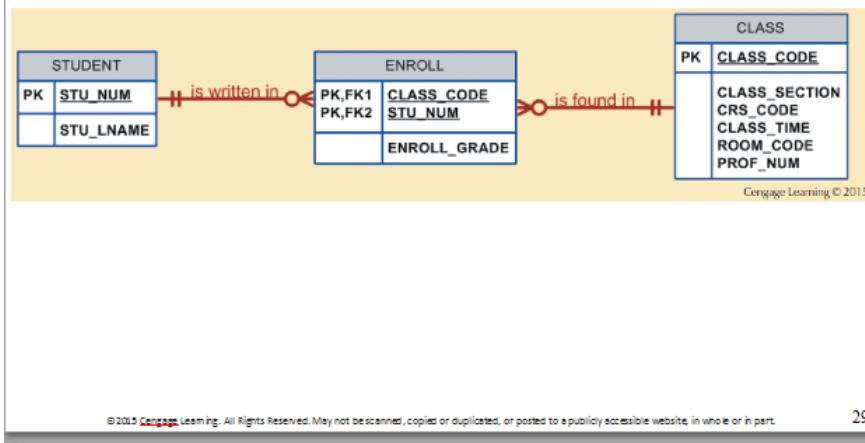
CLASS_CODE	CRS_CODE	CLASS_SECTION	CLASS_TIME	ROOM_CODE	PROF_NUM
10014	ACCT-211	3	TTh 2:30-3:45 p.m.	BUS252	342
10018	CIS-220	2	MWF 9:00-9:50 a.m.	KLR211	114
10021	QM-261	1	MWF 8:00-8:50 a.m.	KLR200	114

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Figure 4.25 - A Composite Entity in an ERD

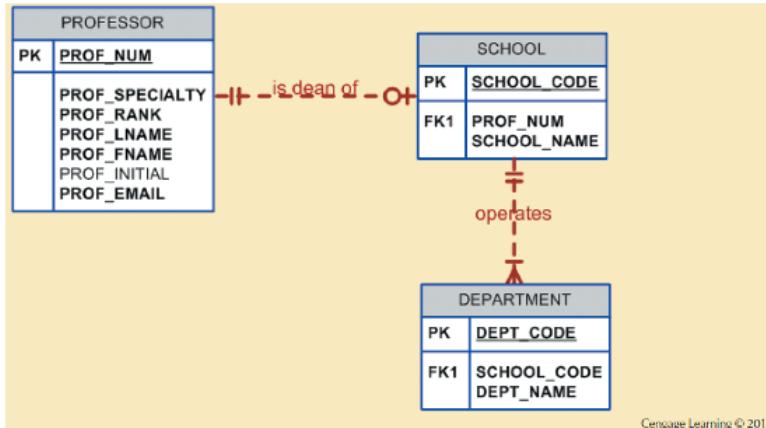


Putting together an ERD

Developing an ER Diagram

- Create a detailed narrative of the organization's description of operations
- Identify business rules based on the descriptions
- Identify main entities and relationships from the business rules
- Develop the initial ERD
- Identify the attributes and primary keys that adequately describe entities
- Revise and review ERD

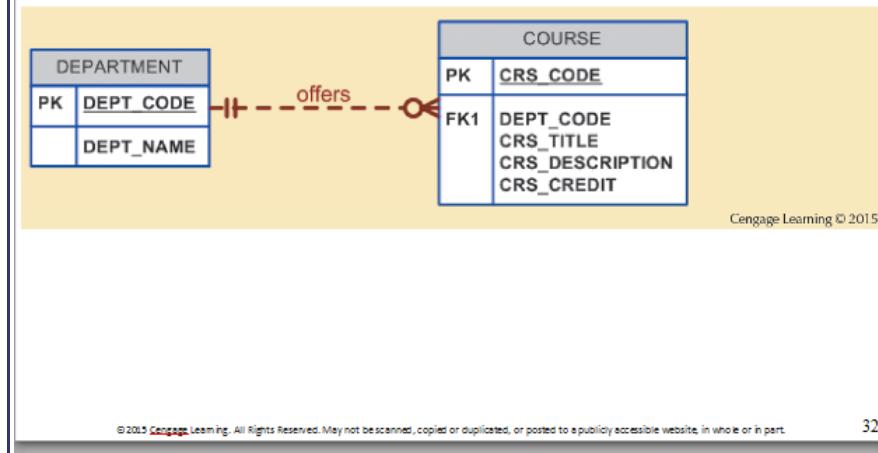
Figure 4.26 - The First Tiny College ERD Segment



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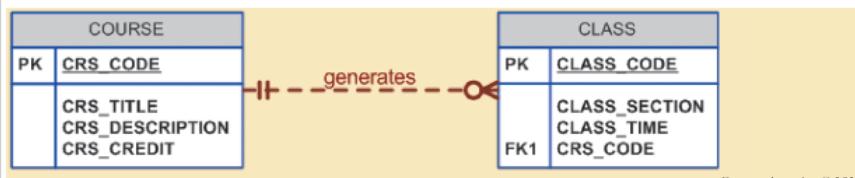
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Figure 4.27 - The Second Tiny College ERD Segment



32

Figure 4.28 - The Third Tiny College ERD Segment

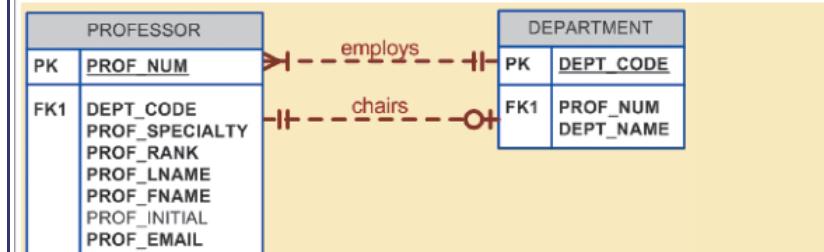


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Figure 4.29 - The Fourth Tiny College ERD Segment

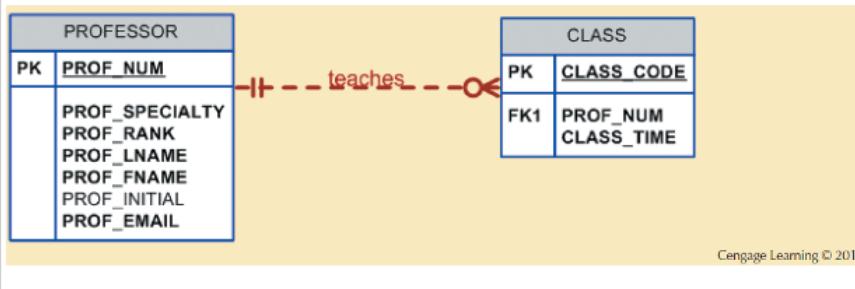


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Figure 4.30 - The Fifth Tiny College ERD Segment

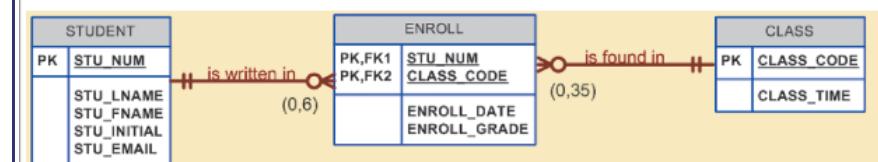


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Figure 4.31 - The Sixth Tiny College ERD Segment

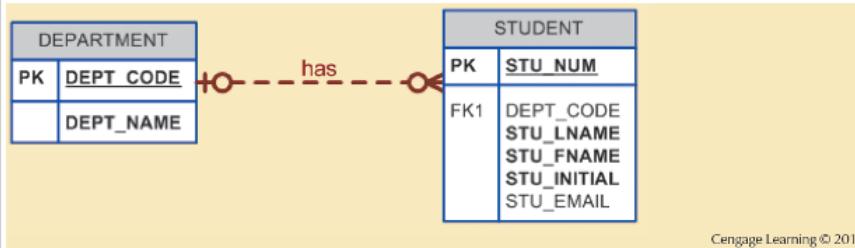


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Figure 4.32 - The Seventh Tiny College
ERD Segment

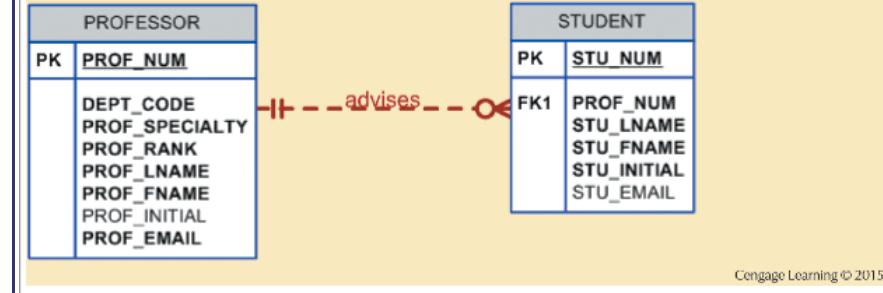


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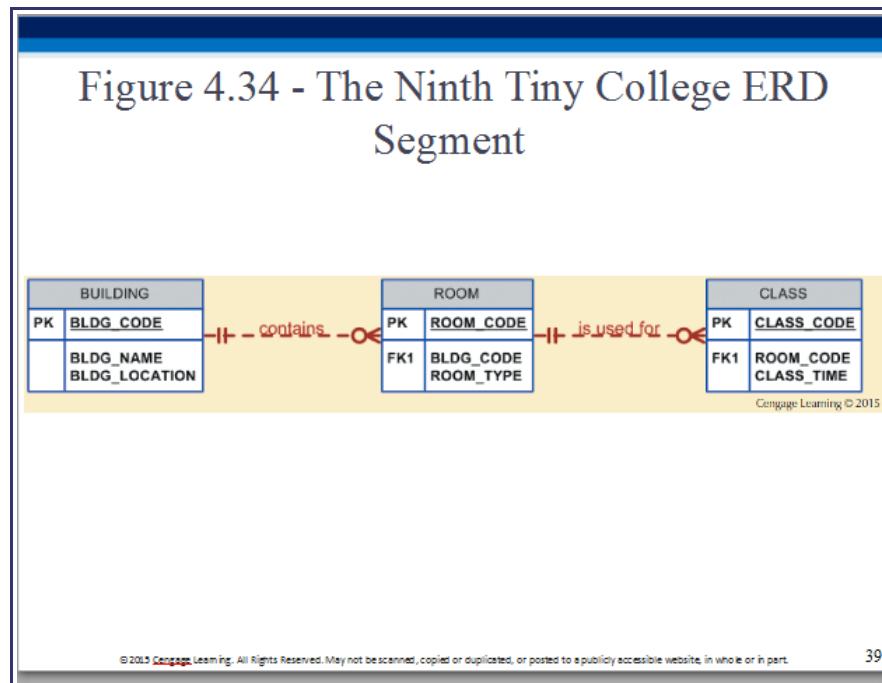
Figure 4.33 - The Eighth Tiny College ERD
Segment



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List of entities, relationships, connectivities

Table 4.4 - Components of the ERM

ENTITY	RELATIONSHIP	CONNECTIVITY	ENTITY
SCHOOL	operates	1:M	DEPARTMENT
DEPARTMENT	has	1:M	STUDENT
DEPARTMENT	employs	1:M	PROFESSOR
DEPARTMENT	offers	1:M	COURSE
COURSE	generates	1:M	CLASS
PROFESSOR	is dean of	1:1	SCHOOL
PROFESSOR	chairs	1:1	DEPARTMENT
PROFESSOR	teaches	1:M	CLASS
PROFESSOR	advises	1:M	STUDENT
STUDENT	enrolls in	M:N	CLASS
BUILDING	contains	1:M	ROOM
ROOM	is used for	1:M	CLASS

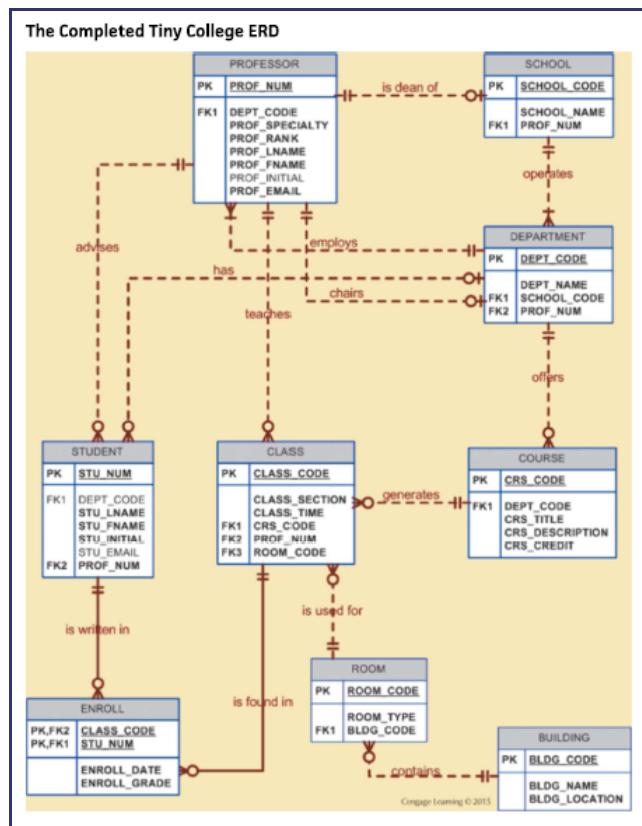
Note: ENROLL is the composite entity that implements the M:N relationship "STUDENT enrolls in CLASS."

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The full schema

"All together now!"



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← →

Extended ER ("EER")

11e

Database Systems
Design, Implementation, and Management

Coronel | Morris

Chapter 5

Advanced Data Modeling

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Extended Entity Relationship Model (EERM)

- Result of adding more semantic constructs to the original entity relationship (ER) model
- **EER diagram (EERD):** Uses the EER model

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3

Entity Supertypes and Subtypes

- **Entity supertype:** Generic entity type related to one or more entity subtypes
 - Contains common characteristics
- **Entity subtype:** Contains unique characteristics of each entity subtype
- Criteria to determine the usage
 - There must be different, identifiable kinds of the entity in the user's environment
 - The different kinds of instances should each have one or more attributes that are unique to that kind of instance

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Specialization Hierarchy

- Depicts arrangement of higher-level entity supertypes and lower-level entity subtypes
- Relationships are described in terms of “is-a” relationships
- Subtype exists within the context of a supertype
- Every subtype has one supertype to which it is directly related
- Supertype can have many subtypes

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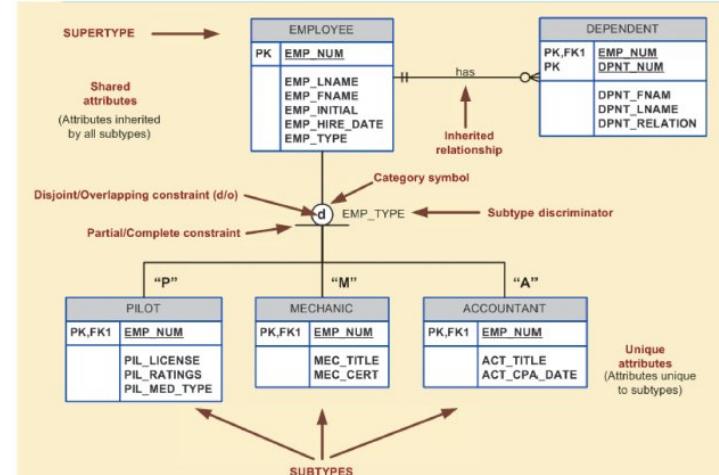
Specialization Hierarchy

- Provides the means to:
 - Support attribute inheritance
 - Define a special supertype attribute known as the subtype discriminator
 - Define disjoint/overlapping constraints and complete/partial constraints

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Figure 5.2 - Specialization Hierarchy



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Inheritance

- Enables an entity subtype to inherit attributes and relationships of the supertype
- All entity subtypes inherit their primary key attribute from their supertype
- At the implementation level, supertype and its subtype(s) maintain a 1:1 relationship
- Entity subtypes inherit all relationships in which supertype entity participates
- Lower-level subtypes inherit all attributes and relationships from its upper-level supertypes

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Subtype Discriminator

- Attribute in the supertype entity that determines to which entity subtype the supertype occurrence is related
- Default comparison condition is the equality comparison

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9

Disjoint vs overlapping subtypes

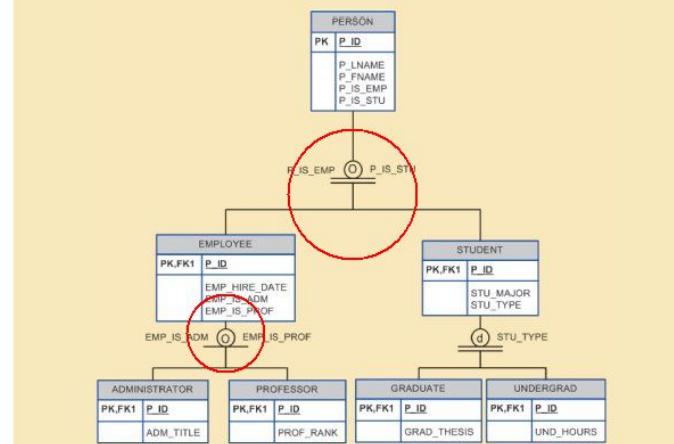
Disjoint and Overlapping Constraints

- **Disjoint subtypes:** Contain a unique subset of the supertype entity set
 - Known as **nonoverlapping subtypes**
 - Implementation is based on the value of the subtype discriminator attribute in the supertype
- **Overlapping subtypes:** Contain nonunique subsets of the supertype entity set
 - Implementation requires the use of one discriminator attribute for each subtype

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Figure 5.4 - Specialization Hierarchy with Overlapping Subtypes



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Completeness Constraint

- Specifies whether each supertype occurrence must also be a member of at least one subtype
- Types
 - **Partial completeness:** Not every supertype occurrence is a member of a subtype
 - **Total completeness:** Every supertype occurrence must be a member of any

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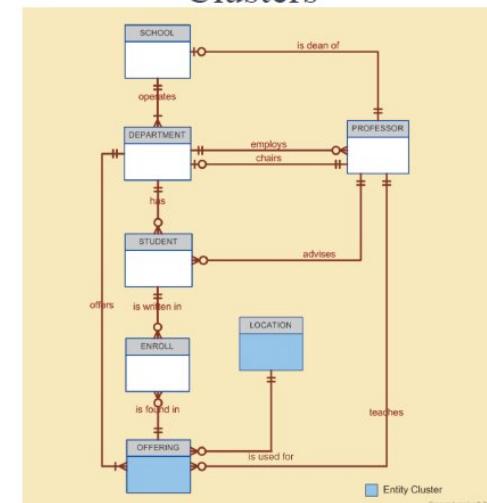
Table 5.2 - Specialization Hierarchy Constraint Scenarios

TYPE	DISJOINT CONSTRAINT	OVERLAPPING CONSTRAINT
Partial 	Supertype has optional subtypes. Subtype discriminator can be null. Subtype sets are unique.	Supertype has optional subtypes. Subtype discriminators can be null. Subtype sets are not unique.
Total 	Every supertype occurrence is a member of only one subtype. Subtype discriminator cannot be null. Subtype sets are unique.	Every supertype occurrence is a member of at least one subtype. Subtype discriminators cannot be null. Subtype sets are not unique.

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Figure 5.5 - Tiny College ERD Using Entity Clusters



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Relational Modeling

Logical view: 'relation'

A Logical View of Data

- Relational database model enables logical representation of the data and its relationships
- Logical simplicity yields simple and effective database design methodologies
- Facilitated by the creation of data relationships based on a logical construct called a relation

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3

Relational tables

Table 3.1 - Characteristics of a Relational Table

1	A table is perceived as a two-dimensional structure composed of rows and columns.
2	Each table row (tuple) represents a single entity occurrence within the entity set.
3	Each table column represents an attribute, and each column has a distinct name.
4	Each intersection of a row and column represents a single data value.
5	All values in a column must conform to the same data format.
6	Each column has a specific range of values known as the attribute domain .
7	The order of the rows and columns is immaterial to the DBMS.
8	Each table must have an attribute or combination of attributes that uniquely identifies each row.

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Keys

Keys

- Consist of one or more attributes that determine other attributes
- Used to:
 - Ensure that each row in a table is uniquely identifiable
 - Establish relationships among tables and to ensure the integrity of the data
- **Primary key (PK):** Attribute or combination of attributes that uniquely identifies any given row

5

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"determines"

Determination

- State in which knowing the value of one attribute makes it possible to determine the value of another
- Is the basis for establishing the role of a key
- Based on the relationships among the attributes

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Determinants determine dependents [via] dependencies :)

Dependencies

- **Functional dependence:** Value of one or more attributes determines the value of one or more other attributes
 - **Determinant:** Attribute whose value determines another
 - **Dependent:** Attribute whose value is determined by the other attribute
- **Full functional dependence:** Entire collection of attributes in the determinant is necessary for the relationship

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'Full' functional dependence is a "good" thing.

Functional dependency

STU_ID[determinant] ->[functionally determines]

STU_LNAME[dependent]

STU_ID,STU_LNAME -> GPA is NOT a 'full functional dependency' because the determinant contains an extra (unwanted) attr (STU_LNAME)

STU_LNAME,STU_FNAME -> GPA is a 'full functional dependency' (assuming lastname,firstname is unique)

Solemnly swear: "The key, the whole key, and nothing but the key, so help me Codd." :) :)

Composite key; entity integrity

Types of Keys

- **Composite key:** Key that is composed of more than one attribute
- **Key attribute:** Attribute that is a part of a key
- **Entity integrity:** Condition in which each row in the table has its own unique identity
 - All of the values in the primary key must be unique
 - No key attribute in the primary key can contain a null

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A table 'cannot not' have entity integrity!!

Nulls; referential integrity

Types of Keys

- **Null:** Absence of any data value that could represent:
 - An unknown attribute value
 - A known, but missing, attribute value
 - An inapplicable condition
- **Referential integrity:** Every reference to an entity instance by another entity instance is valid

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Whereas entity integrity has to do with a single table, referential integrity relates to two tables (loosely, 'don't allow invalid pointers').

Types (categories) of keys

Table 3.3 - Relational Database Keys

KEY TYPE	DEFINITION
Superkey	An attribute or combination of attributes that uniquely identifies each row in a table
Candidate key	A minimal (irreducible) superkey; a superkey that does not contain a subset of attributes that is itself a superkey
Primary key	A candidate key selected to uniquely identify all other attribute values in any given row; cannot contain null entries
Foreign key	An attribute or combination of attributes in one table whose values must either match the primary key in another table or be null
Secondary key	An attribute or combination of attributes used strictly for data retrieval purposes

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Keys: many types

- * primary (foreign) keys are a subset of candidate keys are a subset of superkeys (note - superkeys could be 'wasteful', ie. contain superfluous, non-needed attrs)
- * simple keys vs compound keys vs composite keys
- * natural keys - keys that are created from real-world entities (eg. for a US resident, their SSN could be a natural key)
- * surrogate keys (just make up brand new unique keys)
- * secondary, or 'alternate' keys

You can read a bit more keys [here](#).

Example relation

Figure 3.2 - An Example of a Simple Relational Database

Table name: PRODUCT

Primary key: PROD_CODE

Foreign key: VEND_CODE

PROD_CODE	PROD_DESCRIP	PROD_PRICE	PROD_ON_HAND	VEND_CODE
001278-AB	Claw hammer	12.95	23	232
123-21UUY	Houselite chain saw, 16-in. bar	189.99	4	235
QER-34256	Sledge hammer, 16-lb. head	18.63	6	231
SRE-657UG	Rat-tail file	2.99	15	232
ZZX/3245Q	Steel tape, 12-ft. length	6.79	8	235

Database name: Ch03_SaleCo

link

Table name: VENDOR

Primary key: VEND_CODE

Foreign key: none

VEND_CODE	VEND_CONTACT	VEND_AREACODE	VEND_PHONE
230	Shelly K. Smithson	608	555-1234
231	James Johnson	615	123-4536
232	Annelise Crystall	608	224-2134
233	Candice Wallace	904	342-6567
234	Arthur Jones	615	123-3324
235	Henry Ortozo	615	899-3425

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Nulls - avoid where possible!

Ways to Handle Nulls

- **Flags:** Special codes used to indicate the absence of some value
- NOT NULL constraint - Placed on a column to ensure that every row in the table has a value for that column
- UNIQUE constraint - Restriction placed on a column to ensure that no duplicate values exist for that column

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In RL, NULLs can't be entirely avoided (look [here](#), for 'interpreted as any of the following').

Relational 'algebra' [fun with one, two or more tables]

Relational Algebra

- Theoretical way of manipulating table contents using relational operators
- **Relvar:** Variable that holds a relation
 - Heading contains the names of the attributes and the body contains the relation
- Relational operators have the property of closure
 - **Closure:** Use of relational algebra operators on existing relations produces new relations

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What if a table were a datatype (similar to an int, Vec3D, ComplexNumber, etc)?! Specifically, what operations could be performed on them (eg. similar to addition, square root on doubles)?!

Operations on tables [table(s) in, table out, ie. "closure"]

There are (only) EIGHT 'relational set operators' (defined by Ed Codd, at IBM, in 1970), which are all used to operate ("perform relational algebra") on tables: Select, Project, Union, Intersect, Difference, Product, Join, Divide.

This is no exaggeration: these operators are the basis for SQL and the entire relational DB industry!

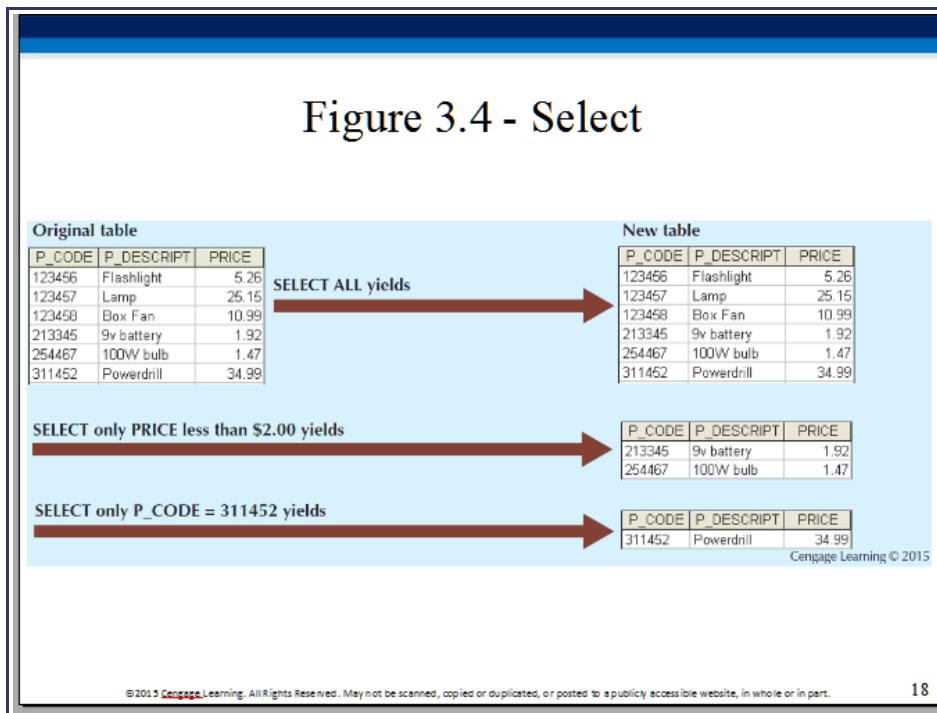
SELECT; PROJECT; UNION; INTERSECT

Relational Set Operators

- Select (Restrict)**
 - Unary operator that yields a horizontal subset of a table
- Project**
 - Unary operator that yields a vertical subset of a table
- Union**
 - Combines all rows from two tables, excluding duplicate rows
 - **Union-compatible:** Tables share the same number of columns, and their corresponding columns share compatible domains
- Intersect**
 - Yields only the rows that appear in both tables
 - Tables must be union-compatible to yield valid results

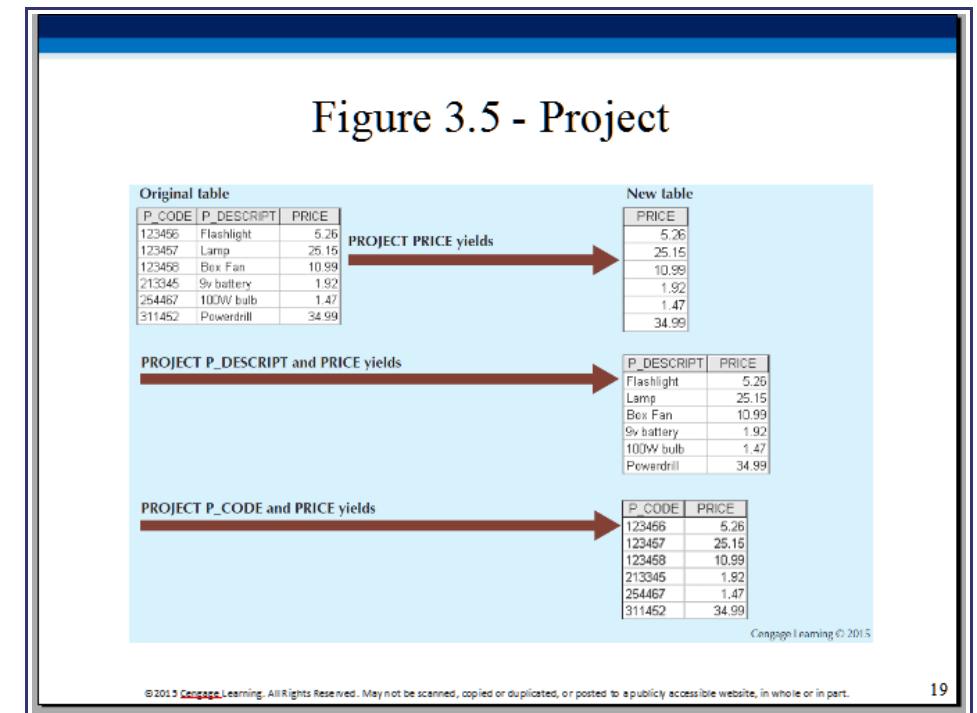
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SELECT [outputs a subset of rows]



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PROJECT [outputs a subset of cols]



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UNION [eqvt to 'cat a b > c']

Figure 3.6 - Union

UNION

P_CODE	P_DESCRPT	PRICE
123456	Flashlight	5.25
123457	Lamp	25.15
123458	Box Fan	10.99
213345	9v battery	1.92
254467	100W bulb	1.47
311452	Powerdrill	34.99

P_CODE	P_DESCRPT	PRICE
345678	Microwave	160.00
345679	Dishwasher	500.00
123450	Box Fan	10.99

yields

P_CODE	P_DESCRPT	PRICE
123456	Flashlight	5.25
123457	Lamp	25.15
123458	Box Fan	10.99
213345	9v battery	1.92
254467	100W bulb	1.47
311452	Powerdrill	34.99
345678	Microwave	160.00
345679	Dishwasher	500.00
123450	Box Fan	10.99

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INTERSECT [rows common to a and b]

Figure 3.7 - Intersect

INTERSECT

STU_FNAME	STU_LNAME
George	Jones
Jane	Smith
Peter	Robinson
Franklin	Johnson
Martin	Lopez

EMP_FNAME	EMP_LNAME
Franklin	Lopez
William	Turner
Franklin	Johnson
Susan	Rogers

yields

STU_FNAME	STU_LNAME
Franklin	Johnson

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Difference; Product

Relational Set Operators

Difference

- Yields all rows in one table that are not found in the other table
- Tables must be union-compatible to yield valid results

Product

- Yields all possible pairs of rows from two tables

Difference [a - b]

Figure 3.8 - Difference

The diagram illustrates the set difference operation. It shows three tables:

STU_FNAME	STU_LNAME
George	Jones
Jane	Smith
Peter	Robinson
Franklin	Johnson
Martin	Lopez

EMP_FNAME	EMP_LNAME
Franklin	Lopez
William	Turner
Franklin	Johnson
Susan	Rogers

STU_FNAME	STU_LNAME
George	Jones
Jane	Smith
Peter	Robinson
Martin	Lopez

Product [multiply rows, add columns]

Figure 3.9 - Product

yields

P_CODE	P_DESCRPT	PRICE			
123456	Flashlight	5.26			
123457	Lamp	25.15			
123458	Box Fan	10.99			
213345	9v battery	1.92			
254467	100W bulb	1.47			
311452	Powerdrill	34.99			

STORE	AISLE	SHELF
23	W	5
24	K	9
25	Z	6

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JOIN (several kinds); DIVIDE (?!)

Relational Set Operators

- **Join**
 - Allows information to be intelligently combined from two or more tables
- **Divide**
 - Uses one 2-column table as the dividend and one single-column table as the divisor
 - Output is a single column that contains all values from the second column of the dividend that are associated with every row in the divisor

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JOIN

Types of Joins

- **Natural join:** Links tables by selecting only the rows with common values in their common attributes
 - **Join columns:** Common columns
- **Equijoin:** Links tables on the basis of an equality condition that compares specified columns of each table
- **Theta join:** Extension of natural join, denoted by adding a theta subscript after the JOIN symbol

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JOIN [cont'd]

Types of Joins

- **Inner join:** Only returns matched records from the tables that are being joined
- **Outer join:** Matched pairs are retained and unmatched values in the other table are left null
 - **Left outer join:** Yields all of the rows in the first table, including those that do not have a matching value in the second table
 - **Right outer join:** Yields all of the rows in the second table, including those that do not have matching values in the first table

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Tables to illustrate JOIN operations

Figure 3.10 - Two Tables That Will Be Used in JOIN Illustrations

Table name: CUSTOMER			
CUS_CODE	CUS_LNAME	CUS_ZIP	AGENT_CODE
1132445	Walker	32145	231
1217782	Adares	32145	125
1312243	Rakowski	34129	167
1321242	Rodriguez	37134	125
1542311	Smithson	37134	421
1657399	Vanloo	32145	231

Table name: AGENT	
AGENT_CODE	AGENT_PHONE
125	6152439887
167	6153426778
231	6152431124
333	9041234445

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Natural join

A natural join links tables by selecting from two tables, only those rows that have common (identical) values for common attributes.

These three steps result in a natural join: create product, select, project.

Natural join: product

Cartesian product of the two tables (product of rows, juxtaposition of columns):

CUS_CODE	CUS_LNAME	CUS_ZIP	CUSTOMER_AGENT_CODE	AGENT_AGENT_CODE	AGENT_PHONE
1132445	Walker	32145	231	125	6152439987
1132445	Walker	32145	231	167	6152439987
1132445	Walker	32145	231	231	6152431124
1132445	Walker	32145	231	333	9041234445
1217782	Adares	32145	125	125	6152439987
1217782	Adares	32145	125	167	6153426778
1217782	Adares	32145	125	231	6152431124
1217782	Adares	32145	125	333	9041234445
1312243	Rakowski	34129	167	125	6152439987
1312243	Rakowski	34129	167	167	6153426778
1312243	Rakowski	34129	167	231	6152431124
1312243	Rakowski	34129	167	333	9041234445
1321242	Rodriguez	37134	125	125	6152439987
1321242	Rodriguez	37134	125	167	6153426778
1321242	Rodriguez	37134	125	231	6152431124
1321242	Rodriguez	37134	125	333	9041234445
1542311	Smithson	37134	421	125	6152439987
1542311	Smithson	37134	421	167	6153426778
1542311	Smithson	37134	421	231	6152431124
1542311	Smithson	37134	421	333	9041234445
1657399	Vanlloo	32145	231	125	6152439987
1657399	Vanlloo	32145	231	167	6153426778
1657399	Vanlloo	32145	231	231	6152431124
1657399	Vanlloo	32145	231	333	9041234445

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Natural join: select

Select only rows with identical values in the common (joining) columns:

CUS_CODE	CUS_LNAME	CUS_ZIP	CUSTOMER_AGENT_CODE	AGENT_AGENT_CODE	AGENT_PHONE
1217782	Adares	32145	125	125	6152439987
1321242	Rodriguez	37134	125	125	6152439987
1312243	Rakowski	34129	167	167	6153426778
1132445	Walker	32145	231	231	6152431124
1657399	Vanlloo	32145	231	231	6152431124

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Natural join: project

Project away, ie. remove one of the two duplicate columns:

CUS_CODE	CUS_LNAME	CUS_ZIP	AGENT_CODE	AGENT_PHONE
1217782	Adares	32145	125	6152439887
1321242	Rodriguez	37134	125	6152439887
1312243	Rakowski	34129	167	6153426778
1132445	Walker	32145	231	6152431124
1667399	Vantoo	32145	231	6152431124

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Result (the table above): natural join.

Left outer join

Output all rows of the left (CUSTOMER) table, including ones for which there are no matching values in the join column in the other (AGENT) table:

CUS_CODE	CUS_LNAME	CUS_ZIP	CUSTOMER_AGENT_CODE	AGENT_CODE	AGENT_PHONE
1217782	Adares	32145	125	125	6152439887
1321242	Rodriguez	37134	125	125	6152439887
1312243	Rakowski	34129	167	167	6153426778
1132445	Walker	32145	231	231	6152431124
1667399	Vantoo	32145	231	231	6152431124
1542311	Smithson	37194	421		

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Note that an outer join is an "inner join plus" [it is NOT an opposite of inner join].

Right outer join, full outer join

Output all rows of the right (AGENT) table, including ones for which there are no matching values in the join column in the other (CUSTOMER) table:

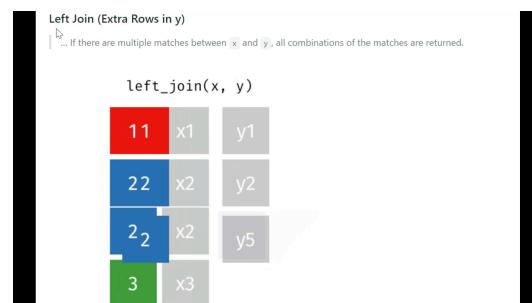
CUS_CODE	CUS_NAME	CUS_ZIP	CUSTOMER_AGENT_CODE	AGENT_AGENT_CODE	AGENT_PHONE
123456	Smith	32145	125	125	9123456789
132142	Rodriguez	32145	126	126	615239887
131243	Rakowski	34129	167	167	6153423778
113245	Walker	32145	231	231	6152431124
1657399	Vaneo	32145	231	231	6152431124
			333		9041234445

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Outer joins are useful in exposing missing information [in our example, customers who don't seem to have an agent, and, agents who don't seem to have customers].

A 'full outer join' is a union of left outer join and right outer join - output all the rows from both tables, including ones for which there are no matches in the other table - this could result in nulls on the left side of some rows, as well as nulls on the right side of others.

This clip shows the various types of joins [thanks, Yash Gupta, for sending this]:



DIVIDE

Figure 3.16 - Divide

CODE	LOC
A	5
A	9
A	4
B	5
B	3
C	6
D	7
D	8
E	8

CODE
A
B

yields

LOC
5

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We're dividing by A and B in the divisor (bottom) table. There's (A,5) and (B,5) in the dividend (top) table, so we output 5 as the result; if the dividend were to contain (A,9) and (B,9) also, then we'd output 5 and 9 as the result.

Dictionaries [hold metadata]

Data Dictionary and the System Catalog

- **Data dictionary:** Description of all tables in the database created by the user and designer
- **System catalog:** System data dictionary that describes all objects within the database
- Homonyms and synonyms must be avoided to lessen confusion
 - **Homonym:** Same name is used to label different attributes
 - **Synonym:** Different names are used to describe the same attribute

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A data dictionary is metadata about tables (only); a system catalog, that includes (is a superset of, although confusingly, the two are conflated in RL) the data dictionary, and more.

1/30 12:40:48 ***

← →

(De/)Normalization



On tap

Learning Objectives

- In this chapter, students will learn:
 - What normalization is and what role it plays in the database design process
 - About the normal forms 1NF, 2NF, 3NF, BCNF, and 4NF
 - How normal forms can be transformed from lower normal forms to higher normal forms
 - That normalization and ER modeling are used concurrently to produce a good database design
 - That some situations require denormalization to generate information efficiently

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The goal of normalization

Loosely speaking:



[<http://rovingcrafters.com/>]

Goal: reduce redundancies, anomalies

Normalization

- Evaluating and correcting table structures to minimize data redundancies
- Reduces data anomalies
- Assigns attributes to tables based on determination
- Normal forms
 - First normal form (1NF)
 - Second normal form (2NF)
 - Third normal form (3NF)

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Higher normal forms → cleaner designs

Normalization

- Structural point of view of normal forms
 - Higher normal forms are better than lower normal forms
- Properly designed 3NF structures meet the requirement of fourth normal form (4NF)
- **Denormalization:** Produces a lower normal form
 - Results in increased performance and greater data redundancy

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Normalization is a design step

Need for Normalization

- Used while designing a new database structure
 - Analyzes the relationship among the attributes within each entity
 - Determines if the structure can be improved
- Improves the existing data structure and creates an appropriate database design

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A construction company db

Employees of the construction company work on projects. Each employee has an ID, name, job title and corresponding hourly rate.

Each project has a number, name and assigned employees. An employee can be assigned to more than one project.

The company bills clients for projects, based on hours worked by employees.

PROJ_NUM	PROJ_NAME	EMP_NUM	EMP_NAME	JOB_CLASS	CHG_HOUR	HOURS
15	Evergreen	103	June E. Arbough	Elect. Engineer	84.50	23.8
		101	John G. News	Database Designer	105.00	19.4
		105	Alice K. Johnson *	Database Designer	105.00	35.7
		106	William Smithfield	Programmer	35.75	12.6
		102	David H. Senior	Systems Analyst	96.75	23.8
		114	Annelise Jones	Applications Designer	48.10	24.6
18	Amber Wave	118	James J. Frommer	General Support	18.36	45.3
		104	Anne K. Ramoras *	Systems Analyst	96.75	32.4
		112	Darlene M. Smithson	DSS Analyst	45.95	44.0
		105	Alice K. Johnson	Database Designer	105.00	64.7
		104	Anne K. Ramoras	Systems Analyst	96.75	48.4
22	Rolling Tide	113	Delbert K. Joenbrood *	Applications Designer	48.10	23.6
		111	Geoff B. Wabash	Clerical Support	26.87	22.0
		106	William Smithfield	Programmer	35.75	12.8
		107	Maria D. Alonso	Programmer	35.76	24.6
		115	Travis B. Bawangl	Systems Analyst	96.76	46.8
		101	John G. News *	Database Designer	105.00	56.3
25	Starflight	114	Annelise Jones	Applications Designer	48.10	33.1
		108	Ralph B. Washington	Systems Analyst	96.75	23.8
		118	James J. Frommer	General Support	18.36	30.5
		112	Darlene M. Smithson	DSS Analyst	45.95	41.4

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Report

The construction company periodically generates a report like so:

PROJECT NUMBER	PROJECT NAME	EMPLOYEE NUMBER	EMPLOYEE NAME	JOB CLASS	CHARGE/HOUR	HOURS BILLED	TOTAL CHARGE
15	Evergreen	103	Jane E. Arbough	Elec. Engineer	\$ 84.50	23.8	\$ 2,011.10
		101	John G. News	Database Designer	\$ 105.00	19.4	\$ 2,037.00
		105	Alice K. Johnson *	Database Designer	\$ 105.00	35.7	\$ 3,746.50
		106	William Smithfield	Programmer	\$ 35.75	12.6	\$ 450.45
		102	David H. Senior	Systems Analyst	\$ 96.75	23.8	\$ 2,302.65
				Subtotal			\$10,549.00
18	Amber Wave	114	Annelise Jones	Applications Designer	\$ 46.10	24.6	\$ 1,113.26
		118	James J. Frommer	General Support	\$ 18.26	45.3	\$ 831.71
		104	Anne K. Ramoras *	Systems Analyst	\$ 96.75	32.4	\$ 3,134.70
		112	Darlene M. Smithson	DSS Analyst	\$ 45.95	44.0	\$ 2,021.80
				Subtotal			\$ 7,171.47
22	Rolling Tide	105	Alice K. Johnson	Database Designer	\$ 105.00	64.7	\$ 6,793.50
		104	Anne K. Ramoras	Systems Analyst	\$ 96.75	48.4	\$ 4,682.70
		113	Delbert K. Jonbrood *	Applications Designer	\$ 48.10	23.6	\$ 1,135.16
		111	Geoff B. Wabash	Clerical Support	\$ 26.87	22.0	\$ 591.14
		106	William Smithfield	Programmer	\$ 35.75	12.8	\$ 457.60
				Subtotal			\$13,660.10
25	Starflight	107	Maria D. Alonso	Programmer	\$ 35.75	24.6	\$ 897.45
		115	Ralph B. Washington	Systems Analyst	\$ 96.75	45.3	\$ 4,431.75
		101	John G. News *	Database Designer	\$ 105.00	56.3	\$ 5,911.50
		114	Annelise Jones	Applications Designer	\$ 46.10	33.1	\$ 1,592.11
		108	Ralph B. Washington	Systems Analyst	\$ 96.75	23.6	\$ 2,283.30
		118	James J. Frommer	General Support	\$ 18.36	30.5	\$ 559.98
		112	Darlene M. Smithson	DSS Analyst	\$ 45.95	41.4	\$ 1,902.33
				Subtotal			\$17,559.82
				Total			\$48,941.09

Note: A * indicates the project leader.

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Issues with our db

Here is our table again:

PROJ_NUM	PROJ_NAME	EMP_NUM	EMP_NAME	JOB_CLASS	CHG_HOUR	HOURS
15	Evergreen	103	June E. Arbough	Elect. Engineer	84.50	23.8
		101	John G. News	Database Designer	105.00	19.4
		105	Alice K. Johnson *	Database Designer	105.00	35.7
		106	William Smithfield	Programmer	35.75	12.6
		102	David H. Senior	Systems Analyst	96.75	23.8
18	Amber Wave	114	Annelise Jones	Applications Designer	48.10	24.6
		118	James J. Frommer	General Support	18.36	45.3
		104	Anne K. Ramoras *	Systems Analyst	96.75	32.4
		112	Darlene M. Smithson	DSS Analyst	45.95	44.0
		105	Alice K. Johnson	Database Designer	105.00	64.7
22	Rolling Tide	104	Anne K. Ramoras	Systems Analyst	96.75	48.4
		113	Delbert K. Joenbrood *	Applications Designer	48.10	23.6
		111	Geoff B. Wabash	Ciental Support	26.87	22.0
		106	William Smithfield	Programmer	35.75	12.8
		107	Maria D. Alonso	Programmer	35.76	24.6
25	Starflight	115	Travis B. Blawangi	Systems Analyst	96.76	46.8
		101	John G. News *	Database Designer	105.00	56.3
		114	Annelise Jones	Applications Designer	48.10	33.1
		108	Ralph B. Washington	Systems Analyst	96.75	23.6
		118	James J. Frommer	General Support	18.36	30.5
		112	Darlene M. Smithson	DSS Analyst	45.95	41.4

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There are numerous issues:

- the PROJ_NUM attr could be used as a PK (or part of a PK, along with PROJ_NAME) but it contains nulls
- possibilities for data inconsistencies exist, eg. if someone's name or title is misspelled
- the redundancies that exist, could lead to insertion anomalies (eg. a new employee needs to be assigned to some project, even a fake one), update anomalies (eg. if an employee's JOB_CLASS changes, it has to be modified multiple times), deletion anomalies (eg. if a project has just one employee and that employee leaves, deleting the lone employee record would lead to the project itself getting deleted!)
- data redundancy leads to wasted storage space

We have 'repeating groups' (for each project, we list all details about each employee) - our table is un-normalized, ie. is in '0NF' :)

So, we need to clean up the design!

Objectives: what do we want?

Normalization Process

- Objective is to ensure that each table conforms to the concept of well-formed relations
 - Each table represents a single subject
 - No data item will be unnecessarily stored in more than one table
 - All nonprime attributes in a table are dependent **wholly; nothing but** on the primary key
 - Each table is void of insertion, update, and deletion anomalies

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Normal forms

Normalization is a systematic process that yields progressively higher 'normal forms' (NFs) for each entity (table) in our db. We want **at least** 3NF for each table; in RL, we stop **at** 3NF.

Table 6.2 - Normal Forms

NORMAL FORM	CHARACTERISTIC	SECTION
First normal form (1NF)	Table format, no repeating groups, and PK identified	6.3.1
Second normal form (2NF)	1NF and no partial dependencies	6.3.2
Third normal form (3NF)	2NF and no transitive dependencies	6.3.3
Boyce-Codd normal form (BCNF)	Every determinant is a candidate key (special case of 3NF)	6.6.1
Fourth normal form (4NF)	3NF and no independent multivalued dependencies	6.6.2

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The process

Normalization Process

- Ensures that all tables are in at least 3NF
- Higher forms are not likely to be encountered in business environment
- Works one relation at a time
- Starts by:
 - Identifying the dependencies of a relation (table)
 - Progressively breaking the relation into new set of relations

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Normalization how-to, in one sentence: **work on one relation (table) at a time: identify dependencies, then 'normalize' - progressively break it down into smaller relations (tables), based on the dependencies we identify in the original relation so that "only the PK, the whole PK and nothing but the PK" acts as a determinant!** But how?? Details follow..

Functional dependence, determination

Functional Dependence Concepts

Concept	Definition
Functional dependence	The attribute B is fully functionally dependent on the attribute A if each value of A determines one and only one value of B.
Functional dependence (Generalized definition)	Attribute A determines attribute B if all of the rows in the table that agree in value for attribute A also agree in value for attribute B.
Fully functional dependence (composite key)	If attribute B is functionally dependent on a composite key A but not on any Subset of that composite key, the attribute B is fully functionally dependent on A.

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Partial dependency, transitive dependency

Types of Functional Dependencies

- **Partial dependency:** Functional dependence in which the determinant is only part of the primary key
 - Assumption - One candidate key
 - Straight forward
 - Easy to identify
- **Transitive dependency:** An attribute functionally depends on another nonkey attribute

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If (A,B) is a primary key, we have **partial** dependence if $(A,B) \rightarrow (C,D)$ and $B \rightarrow C$ [C is only partially dependent on the PK, ie. we only need B to determine C]. In other words, a part of an existing PK is acting like a PK on its own.

If X is a primary key, we have a **transitive** dependency if $X \rightarrow Y$ and $Y \rightarrow Z$ [Z is transitively dependent on X , not directly so]. In other words, a non-PK (regular attr) is acting like a PK.

0NF->1NF: eliminate repeating groups

Conversion to First Normal Form

- **Repeating group:** Group of multiple entries of same type can exist for any single key attribute occurrence
 - Existence proves the presence of data redundancies
- Enable reducing data redundancies
- Steps
 - Eliminate the repeating groups
 - Identify the primary key
 - Identify all dependencies

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In other words, "fill in the blanks" so that there are no nulls. Now we have a relation (table), with a value in each cell.

Further, identify the PK! In our example, it is (PROJ_NUM,EMP_NUM).

0NF->1NF [cont'd]

Conversion to First Normal Form

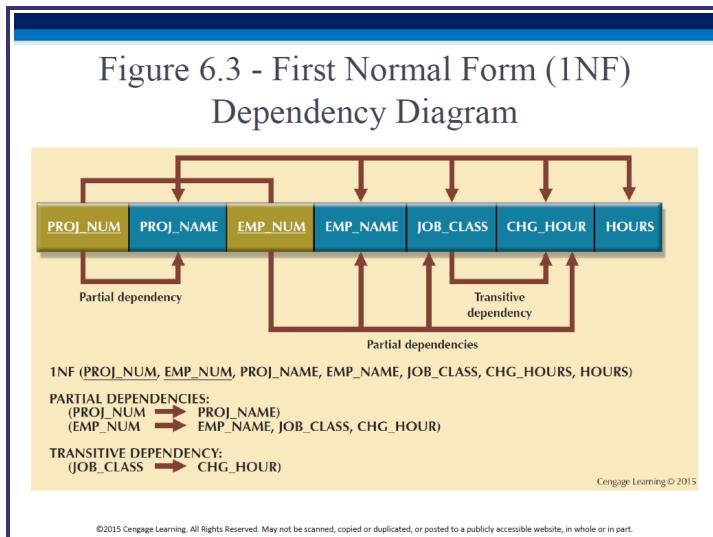
- **Dependency diagram:** Depicts all dependencies found within given table structure
 - Helps to get an overview of all relationships among table's attributes
 - Makes it less likely that an important dependency will be overlooked

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Create a **dependency diagram**, showing relationships (dependencies) between the attributes - this will help us systematically normalize the table.

Dependency diagram

Indicate full dependencies on the top, and partial and transitive dependencies on the bottom.
 "Top good, bottom bad". Also, color the PK components in a different color (and underline them).
 Result:



PROJ_NAME has only a partial dependency on the PK (since it is only dependent on PROJ_NUM, which is just a part of the PK).

CHG_HOUR is dependent on JOB_CLASS, which is a non-prime attribute that is itself dependent on EMP_NUM. So JOB_CLASS->CHG_HOUR is a signaling dependency, indicating a EMP_NUM → CHG_HOUR transitive dependency.

0NF->1NF [cont'd]

Conversion to First Normal Form

- 1NF describes tabular format in which:
 - All key attributes are defined
 - There are no repeating groups in the table
 - All attributes are dependent on the primary key
- All relational tables satisfy 1NF requirements
- Some tables contain partial dependencies
 - Subject to data redundancies and various anomalies

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1NF->2NF: remove partial dependencies

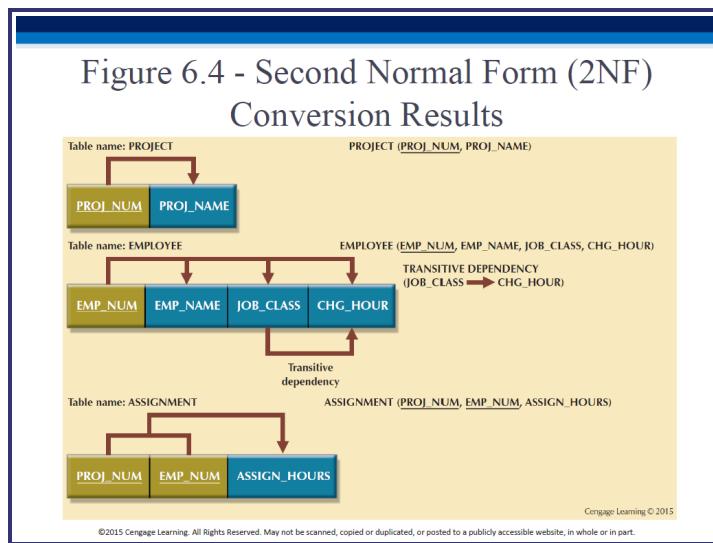
Conversion to Second Normal Form

- Steps
 - Make new tables to eliminate partial dependencies
 - Reassign corresponding dependent attributes
- Table is in 2NF when it:
 - Is in 1NF
 - Includes no partial dependencies

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1NF->2NF [cont'd]

We eliminate partial dependencies by creating separate tables of such dependencies, and removing the dependent attributes from the starter table.



2NF->3NF: remove transitive dependencies

We promote the non-prime keys that masquerade as PKs, into actual PKs (give them their own tables).

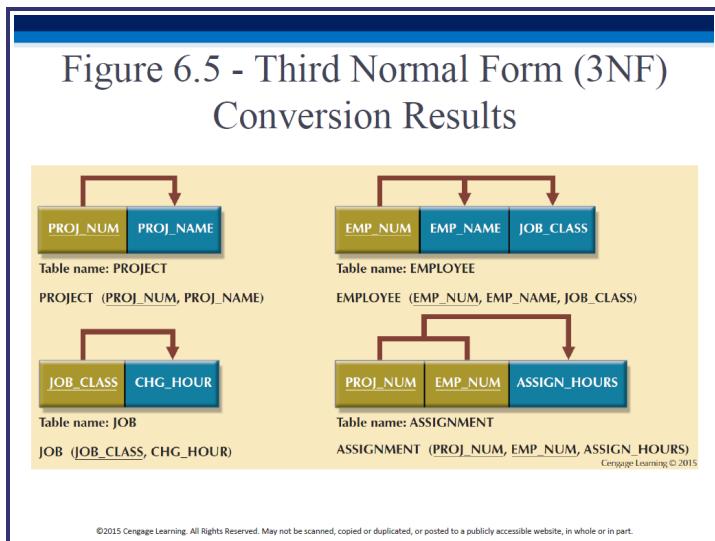
Whether we eliminate partial dependencies (to create 2NF) or transitive ones (to create 3NF), we follow the same process: create a new relation for each 'problem' dependency!

Conversion to Third Normal Form

- Steps
 - Make new tables to eliminate transitive dependencies
 - **Determinant:** Any attribute whose value determines other values within a row
 - Reassign corresponding dependent attributes
- Table is in 3NF when it:
 - Is in 2NF
 - Contains no transitive dependencies

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2NF->3NF [cont'd]



'Good' tables

We can create a better DB by doing the following augmentations, to the 3NF model we just created:

- evaluate PKs - create a JOB_CODE
- evaluate naming conventions - eg. JOB_CHG_HOUR
- refine attr atomicity, eg. EMP_NAME
- identify new attrs, eg. EMP_HIREDATE
- identify new relationships, PROJECT can have EMP_NUM as FK [to be able to record a project's (always sole) manager]
- refine PKs for data granularity, eg. ASSIGN_NUM
- maintain historical accuracy [duplicate data], eg. store JOB_CHG_HOUR in ASSIGNMENT
- evaluate derived attrs, eg. ASSIGN_CHARGE

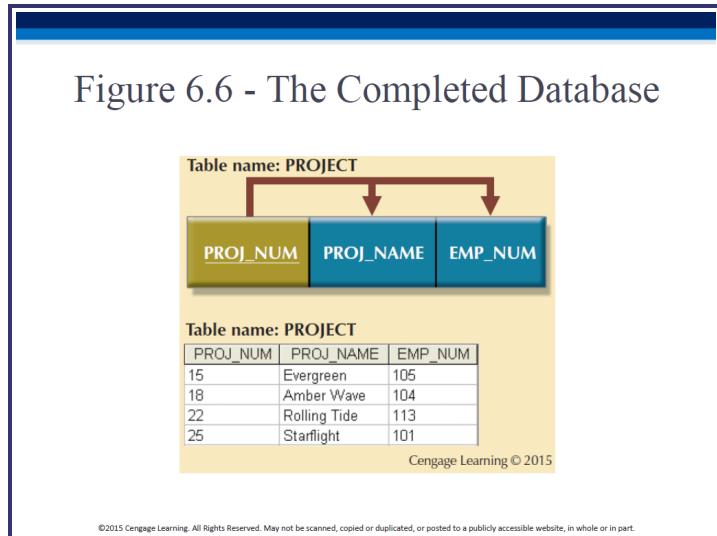
Requirements for Good Normalized Set of Tables

- Evaluate PK assignments and naming conventions
- Refine attribute atomicity
 - **Atomic attribute:** Cannot be further subdivided
 - **Atomicity:** Characteristic of an atomic attribute
- Identify new attributes and new relationships
- Refine primary keys as required for data granularity
 - **Granularity:** Level of detail represented by the values stored in a table's row
- Maintain historical accuracy and evaluate using derived attributes

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Final result

Here is the result of making the "extra" changes to our 3NF form:



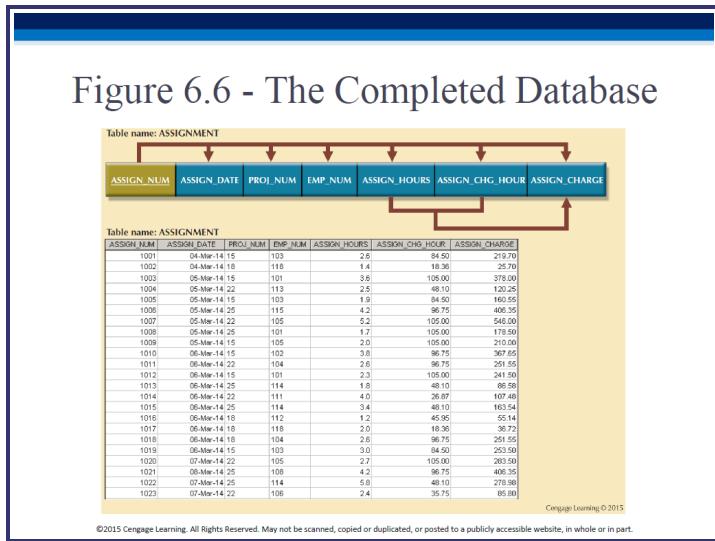
Final result [cont'd]

Figure 6.6 - The Completed Database

Table name: JOB		
JOB_CODE	JOB_DESCRIPTION	JOB_CHG_HOUR
500	Programmer	35.75
501	Systems Analyst	96.75
502	Database Designer	105.00
503	Electrical Engineer	84.50
504	Mechanical Engineer	67.90
505	Civil Engineer	55.78
506	Clerical Support	26.87
507	DSS Analyst	45.95
508	Applications Designer	48.10
509	Bio Technician	34.55
510	General Support	18.35

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Final result [cont'd]



Final result [cont'd]

Table name: EMPLOYEE						Database name: Ch06_ConstructCo
EMP_NUM	EMP_LNAME	EMP_FNAME	EMP_INITIAL	EMP_HIREDATE	JOB_CODE	
Table name: EMPLOYEE						
101	News	John	G	08-Nov-00 502		
102	Senior	David	H	12-Jul-90 501		
103	Arthough	June	E	01-Jun-97 503		
104	Rutledge	Angela	K	15-Nov-98 501		
105	Johnson	Alice	K	01-Feb-04 502		
106	Smithfield	William		22-Jun-05 500		
107	Alonzo	Maria	D	10-Oct-94 500		
108	Washington	Ralph	B	22-Aug-89 501		
109	Smith	Larry	W	18-Jul-99 501		
110	Olenko	Gerald	A	11-Dec-96 505		
111	Wabash	Geoff	B	04-Apr-89 506		
112	Smithson	Darlene	M	23-Oct-95 507		
113	Johndroot	Debbert	K	15-Jan-98 508		
114	Jones	Annette		20-Aug-91 509		
115	Brownogi	Travis	B	25-Jan-90 501		
116	Pratt	Gerald	L	05-Mar-96 510		
117	Williamson	Angie	H	19-Jun-94 509		
118	Frommier	James	J	04-Jan-06 510		

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Normalization: summary

- * 1NF: eliminate repeating groups (partial:y, transitive:y)
- * 2NF: eliminate redundant data (partial:n, transitive:y)
- * 3NF: eliminate fields not dependent on key fields (partial:n, transitive:n)

Here is more, on normalization.

Denormalization

Denormalization

- Design goals
 - Creation of normalized relations
 - Processing requirements and speed
- Number of database tables expands when tables are decomposed to conform to normalization requirements
- Joining a larger number of tables:
 - Takes additional input/output (I/O) operations and processing logic
 - Reduces system speed

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Denormalization [cont'd]

Denormalization

- Defects in unnormalized tables
 - Data updates are less efficient because tables are larger
 - Indexing is more cumbersome
 - No simple strategies for creating virtual tables known as views

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← →

SQL

Where did SQL come from?

As mentioned earlier, SQL is an implementation of Ed Codd's relational set operators:

1. **SELECT [formerly known as RESTRICT]**
2. **PROJECT**
3. **JOIN**
4. **PRODUCT**
5. **UNION**
6. **INTERSECT**
7. **DIFFERENCE**
8. **DIVIDE**

Interestingly, Ed's ideas were ignored by IBM, his employer. Only after Oracle debuted (with SQL support right off the bat!) did IBM create DB2, its first relational DB.

Structured Query Language (SQL)

- Categories of SQL function
 - Data definition language (DDL)
 - Data manipulation language (DML)
- Nonprocedural language with basic command vocabulary set of less than 100 words
- Differences in SQL dialects are minor

[show next page \(right arrow\)](#)

Table 7.1 - SQL Data Definition Command

COMMAND OR OPTION	DESCRIPTION
CREATE SCHEMA AUTHORIZATION	Creates a database schema
CREATE TABLE	Creates a new table in the user's database schema
NOT NULL	Ensures that a column will not have null values
UNIQUE	Ensures that a column will not have duplicate values
PRIMARY KEY	Defines a primary key for a table
FOREIGN KEY	Defines a foreign key for a table
DEFAULT	Defines a default value for a column (when no value is given)
CHECK	Validates data in an attribute
CREATE INDEX	Creates an index for a table
CREATE VIEW	Creates a dynamic subset of rows and columns from one or more tables (see Chapter 8, Advanced SQL)
ALTER TABLE	Modifies a table's definition (adds, modifies, or deletes attributes or constraints)
CREATE TABLE AS	Creates a new table based on a query in the user's database schema
DROP TABLE	Permanently deletes a table (and its data)
DROP INDEX	Permanently deletes an index
DROP VIEW	Permanently deletes a view

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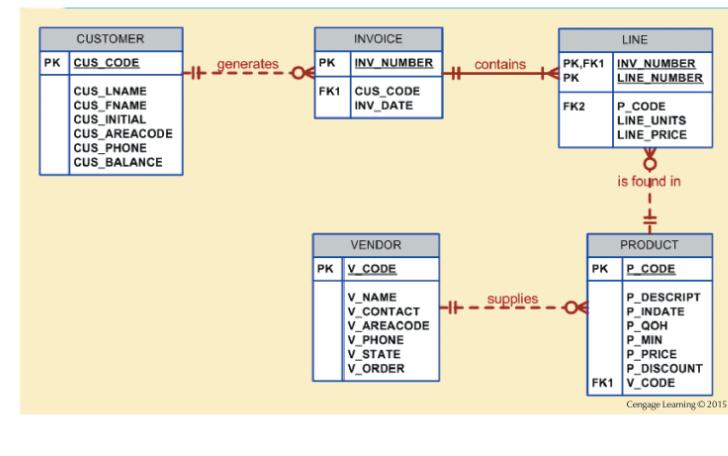
View next page (Right Arrow)

Table 7.2 - SQL Data Manipulation Commands

COMMAND OR OPTION	DESCRIPTION
INSERT	Inserts row(s) into a table
SELECT	Selects attributes from rows in one or more tables or views
WHERE	Restricts the selection of rows based on a conditional expression
GROUP BY	Groups the selected rows based on one or more attributes
HAVING	Restricts the selection of grouped rows based on a condition
ORDER BY	Orders the selected rows based on one or more attributes
UPDATE	Modifies an attribute's values in one or more table's rows
DELETE	Deletes one or more rows from a table
COMMIT	Permanently saves data changes
ROLLBACK	Restores data to their original values
Comparison operators	
=, <, >, <=, >=, <>	Used in conditional expressions
Logical operators	
AND/OR/NOT	Used in conditional expressions
Special operators	
BETWEEN	Checks whether an attribute value is within a range
IS NULL	Checks whether an attribute value is null
LIKE	Checks whether an attribute value matches a given string pattern
IN	Checks whether an attribute value matches any value within a value list
EXISTS	Checks whether a subquery returns any rows
DISTINCT	Limits values to unique values
Aggregate functions	
Used with SELECT to return mathematical summaries on columns	
COUNT	Returns the number of rows with non-null values for a given column
MIN	Returns the minimum attribute value found in a given column
MAX	Returns the maximum attribute value found in a given column
SUM	Returns the sum of all values for a given column
AVG	Returns the average of all values for a given column

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Figure 7.1 - The Database Model



Common SQL Data Types

Numeric

- NUMBER(L,D) or NUMERIC(L,D)

Character

- CHAR(L)
- VARCHAR(L) or VARCHAR2(L)

Date

- DATE

NUMBER(p,s) [or NUMERIC(p,s)] denotes a number (including negative values) with upto 'p' number of total digits, including 's' number of them after the decimal point. 'p' is referred to as precision, 's' denotes scale. Eg. NUMERIC(4,2) would range from -99.99 to 99.99, NUMERIC(3,0) would be -999 to 999.

char vs VARCHAR (reserved for future use by SQL - so don't use!) vs VARCHAR2 [versus NVARCHAR2 (for Unicode)]:

http://www.orafaq.com/faq/what_is_the_difference_between_varchar_varchar2_and_char_data_types

Creating Table Structures

- Use one line per column (attribute) definition
- Use spaces to line up attribute characteristics and constraints
- Table and attribute names are capitalized
- Features of table creating command sequence
 - NOT NULL specification
 - UNIQUE specification
- Syntax to create table
 - CREATE TABLE tablename();

Primary Key and Foreign Key

- Primary key attributes contain both a NOT NULL and a UNIQUE specification
- RDBMS will automatically enforce referential integrity for foreign keys
- Command sequence ends with semicolon
- ANSI SQL allows use of following clauses to cover CASCADE, SET NULL, or SET DEFAULT
 - ON DELETE and ON UPDATE

```
CREATE TABLE PRODUCT (
    P_CODE      VARCHAR(10)      NOT NULL      UNIQUE,
    P_DESCRPT  VARCHAR(35)      NOT NULL,
    P_INDATE   DATE            NOT NULL,
    P_QOH       SMALLINT        NOT NULL,
    P_MIN       SMALLINT        NOT NULL,
    P_PRICE     NUMBER(8,2)      NOT NULL,
    P_DISCOUNT NUMBER(5,2)      NOT NULL,
    V_CODE      INTEGER,
    PRIMARY KEY (P_CODE),
    FOREIGN KEY (V_CODE) REFERENCES VENDOR ON UPDATE
    CASCADE);
```

Plus: ON UPDATE CASCADE and ON DELETE CASCADE - both affect [change] a secondary table (that has an FK), when a change is made in the primary table (with the corresponding PK). ON UPDATE will update the values in the secondary table when corresp. values in the primary table are changed; ON DELETE will delete rows in the secondary table, when linked rows are deleted in the primary table.

SQL Constraints

NOT NULL

- Ensures that column does not accept nulls

UNIQUE

- Ensures that all values in column are unique

DEFAULT

- Assigns value to attribute when a new row is added to table

CHECK

- Validates data when attribute value is entered

Data Manipulation Commands

INSERT, SELECT, COMMIT, UPDATE, ROLLBACK, and DELETE.

INSERT: Command to insert data into table

- Syntax - `INSERT INTO tablename VALUES();`
- Used to add table rows with NULL and NOT NULL attributes

COMMIT: Command to save changes

- Syntax - `COMMIT [WORK];`
- Ensures database update integrity

```
INSERT INTO    VALUES (21225,'Bryson,  
VENDOR      Inc.);'Smithson';615';223-3234';TN';Y');  
INSERT INTO    VALUES (21226,'Superloo,  
VENDOR      Inc.);'Flushing';904';215-8995';FL';N');  
  
INSERT INTO    VALUES ('11QER/31';'Power painter, 15 psi., 3-nozzle';'03-  
PRODUCT     Nov-13';8,5,109.99,0.00,25595);  
INSERT INTO    VALUES ('13-Q2/P2';'7.25-in. pwr. saw blade';'13-Dec-13';32,15,14.99,  
PRODUCT     0.05, 21344);  
  
INSERT INTO    VALUES ('BRT-345';'Titanium drill bit';'18-Oct-13'; 75, 10,  
PRODUCT     4.50, 0.06, NULL);  
  
INSERT INTO PRODUCT(P_CODE, P_DESCRPT) VALUES ('BRT-  
345';'Titanium drill bit');
```

Vaguely similar to parameter passing/matching during a function call [where arguments need to match in position, type, count].

Data Manipulation Commands

SELECT: Command to list the contents

- Syntax - `SELECT columnlist FROM tablename;`
- **Wildcard character(*)**: Substitute for other characters/command

UPDATE: Command to modify data

- Syntax - `UPDATE tablename SET columnname = expression [, columnname = expression] [WHERE conditionlist];`

```
SELECT * FROM
PRODUCT;

SELECT P_CODE, P_DESCRIP, P_INDATE, P_QOH, P_MIN, P_PRICE, P_DISCOUNT,
V_CODE
FROM PRODUCT;

UPDATE PRODUCT
SET P_INDATE =
'18-JAN-2014'
WHERE P_CODE = '13-Q2/P2';

UPDATE PRODUCT
SET P_INDATE = '18-JAN-2014', P_PRICE = 17.99, P_MIN
= 10
WHERE P_CODE = '13-Q2/P2';
```

SELECT operates on 1 or more columns, and 0 or more rows from 1 or more tables - like many SQL commands, it is **set-oriented** and **non procedural**.

UPDATE modifies one or more columns of a table (on all rows, or on specific rows based on a condition specified by WHERE). [Here is more.](#)

Data Manipulation Commands

WHERE condition

- Specifies the rows to be selected

ROLLBACK: Command to restore the database

- Syntax - ROLLBACK;
- Undoes the changes since last COMMIT command

DELETE: Command to delete

- Syntax - DELETE FROM *tablename*
- [WHERE *conditionlist*];

```
DELETE FROM PRODUCT  
WHERE P_CODE = 'BRT-345';
```

Another ex: DELETE FROM PRODUCT WHERE P_MIN=5; (can be any condition on any attribute).

Q: what would DELETE do, if there isn't a WHERE condition?

Inserting Table Rows with a SELECT Subquery

- Syntax
 - `INSERT INTO tablename SELECT columnlist FROM tablename`
 - Used to add multiple rows using another table as source
 - SELECT command - Acts as a subquery and is executed first
 - **Subquery:** Query embedded/nested inside another query

```
INSERT INTO  
    tablename  
SELECT  
    columnlist  
FROM  
    tablename;
```

Selecting Rows Using Conditional Restrictions

- Following syntax enables to specify which rows to select
 - `SELECT columnlist`
 - `FROM tablelist`
 - `[WHERE conditionlist];`
- Used to select partial table contents by placing restrictions on the rows
- Optional WHERE clause
 - Adds conditional restrictions to the SELECT statement

```
SELECT      columnlist
FROM        tablelist
[WHERE      conditionlist
];

```

Comparison Operators

- Add conditional restrictions on selected table contents
- Used on:
 - Character attributes
 - Dates

Table 7.6 - Comparison Operators

SYMBOL	MEANING
=	Equal to
<	Less than
<=	Less than or equal to
>	Greater than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<> or !=	Not equal to

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Computed columns (an ex of 'feature engineering')

Comparison Operators: Computed Columns and Column Aliases

- SQL accepts any valid expressions/formulas in the computed columns
- **Alias:** Alternate name given to a column or table in any SQL statement to improve the readability
- Computed column, an alias, and date arithmetic can be used in a single query

```
SELECT      P_DESCRIP, P_QOH, P_PRICE, P_QOH *  
           P_PRICE  
FROM        PRODUCT
```

P_DESCRPT	P_QOH	P_PRICE	Expr1
Power painter, 15 psi., 3-nozzle	8	109.99	879.92
7.25-in. pwr. saw blade	32	14.99	479.68
9.00-in. pwr. saw blade	18	17.49	314.82
Hrd. cloth, 1/4-in., 2x50	15	39.95	599.25
Hrd. cloth, 1/2-in., 3x50	23	43.99	1011.77
B&D jigsaw, 12-in. blade	8	109.92	879.36
B&D jigsaw, 8-in. blade	6	99.87	599.22
B&D cordless drill, 1/2-in.	12	38.95	467.40
Claw hammer	23	9.95	228.85
Sledge hammer, 12 lb.	8	14.40	115.20
Rat-tail file, 1/8-in. fine	43	4.99	214.57
Hicut chain saw, 16 in.	11	256.99	2826.89
PVC pipe, 3.5-in., 8-ft	188	5.87	1103.56
1.25-in. metal screw, 25	172	6.99	1202.28
2.5-in. wd. screw, 50	237	8.45	2002.65
Steel matting, 4'x8'x1/6", .5" mesh	18	119.95	2159.10

```
SELECT      P_DESCRPT, P_QOH, P_PRICE, P_QOH * P_PRICE AS TOTVALUE
FROM        PRODUCT;
```

P_DESCRPT	P_QOH	P_PRICE	TOTVALUE
Power painter, 15 psi., 3-nozzle	8	109.99	879.92
7.25-in. pwr. saw blade	32	14.99	479.68
9.00-in. pwr. saw blade	18	17.49	314.82
Hrd. cloth, 1/4-in., 2x50	15	39.95	599.25
Hrd. cloth, 1/2-in., 3x50	23	43.99	1011.77
B&D jigsaw, 12-in. blade	8	109.92	879.36
B&D jigsaw, 8-in. blade	6	99.87	599.22
B&D cordless drill, 1/2-in.	12	38.95	467.40
Claw hammer	23	9.95	228.85
Sledge hammer, 12 lb.	8	14.40	115.20
Rat-tail file, 1/8-in. fine	43	4.99	214.57
Hicut chain saw, 16 in.	11	256.99	2826.89
PVC pipe, 3.5-in., 8-ft	188	5.87	1103.56
1.25-in. metal screw, 25	172	6.99	1202.28
2.5-in. wd. screw, 50	237	8.45	2002.65
Steel matting, 4'x8'x1/6", .5" mesh	18	119.95	2159.10

```
SELECT      P_CODE, P_INDATE, P_INDATE + 90 AS EXPDATE
FROM        PRODUCT;
```

Arithmetic operators

Arithmetic operators

- **The Rule of Precedence:** Establish the order in which computations are completed
- Perform:
 - Operations within parentheses
 - Power operations
 - Multiplications and divisions
 - Additions and subtractions

Table 7.7 - The Arithmetic Operators

ARITHMETIC OPERATOR	DESCRIPTION
+	Add
-	Subtract
*	Multiply
/	Divide
^	Raise to the power of (some applications use ** instead of ^)

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Logical (Boolean) operators

Figure 7.12 - Selected PRODUCT Table
Attributes: The logical OR

P_DESCRPT	P_INDATE	P_PRICE	V_CODE
7.25-in. pwr. saw blade	13-Dec-13	14.99	21344
9.00-in. pwr. saw blade	13-Nov-13	17.49	21344
B&D jigsaw, 12-in. blade	30-Dec-13	109.92	24288
B&D jigsaw, 8-in. blade	24-Dec-13	99.87	24288
Rat-tail file, 1/8-in. fine	15-Dec-13	4.99	21344
Hicut chain saw, 16 in.	07-Feb-14	256.99	24288

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```
SELECT P_DESCRPT, P_INDATE, P_PRICE, V_CODE  
FROM PRODUCT  
WHERE V_CODE = 21344 OR V_CODE = 24288;
```

Figure 7.13 - Selected PRODUCT Table
Attributes: The Logical AND

P_DESCRPT	P_INDATE	P_PRICE	V_CODE
B&D cordless drill, 1/2-in.	20-Jan-14	38.95	25595
Claw hammer	20-Jan-14	9.95	21225
PVC pipe, 3.5-in., 8-ft	20-Feb-14	5.87	
1.25-in. metal screw, 25	01-Mar-14	6.99	21225
2.5-in. wd. screw, 50	24-Feb-14	8.45	21231

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```
SELECT      P_DESCRPT, P_INDATE, P_PRICE, V_CODE
FROM        PRODUCT
WHERE       P_PRICE < 50
AND         P_INDATE > '15-Jan-2014';
```

Figure 7.14 - Selected PRODUCT Table
Attributes: The Logical AND and OR

P_DESCRPT	P_INDATE	P_PRICE	V_CODE
B&D jigsaw, 12-in. blade	30-Dec-13	109.92	24288
B&D jigsaw, 8-in. blade	24-Dec-13	99.87	24288
B&D cordless drill, 1/2-in.	20-Jan-14	38.95	25595
Claw hammer	20-Jan-14	9.95	21225
Hicut chain saw, 16 in.	07-Feb-14	256.99	24288
PVC pipe, 3.5-in., 8-ft	20-Feb-14	5.87	
1.25-in. metal screw, 25	01-Mar-14	6.99	21225
2.5-in. wd. screw, 50	24-Feb-14	8.45	21231

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```
SELECT      P_DESCRPT, P_INDATE, P_PRICE, V_CODE
FROM        PRODUCT
WHERE       (P_PRICE < 50 AND P_INDATE > '15-Jan-2014')
OR          V_CODE = 24288;
```

'Special' operators

Special Operators

BETWEEN

- Checks whether attribute value is within a range

IS NULL

- Checks whether attribute value is null

LIKE

- Checks whether attribute value matches given string pattern

IN

- Checks whether attribute value matches any value within a value list

EXISTS

- Checks if subquery returns any rows

BETWEEN

```
SELECT      *
FROM        PRODUCT
WHERE       P_PRICE BETWEEN 50.00 AND 100.00;
```

```
SELECT      P_CODE, P_DESCRPT, V_CODE
FROM        PRODUCT
WHERE       V_CODE IS NULL;
```

LIKE

- % means any and all *following* or *preceding* characters are eligible. For example:

'J%' includes Johnson, Jones, Jernigan, July, and J-231Q.

'Jo%' includes Johnson and Jones.

'%n' includes Johnson and Jernigan.

- _ means any *one* character may be substituted for the underscore. For example:

'_23-456-6789' includes 123-456-6789, 223-456-6789, and 323-456-6789.

'_23-56-678-' includes 123-156-6781, 123-256-6782, and 823-956-6788.

'_o_es' includes Jones, Cones, Cokes, totes, and roles.

```
SELECT V_NAME, V_CONTACT, V_AREACODE, V_PHONE  
FROM VENDOR  
WHERE V_CONTACT LIKE 'Smith%';
```

Another example for pattern-matching: load [this page](#), and enter and execute:

```
SELECT * FROM Customers WHERE CustomerName LIKE 'C%';
```

IN

```
SELECT      *
FROM        PRODUCT
WHERE       V_CODE = 21344
OR          V_CODE = 24288;

SELECT      *
FROM        PRODUCT
WHERE       V_CODE IN (21344, 24288);

SELECT      V_CODE, V_NAME
FROM        VENDOR
WHERE       V_CODE IN (SELECT V_CODE FROM PRODUCT);
```

'EXISTS'

The EXISTS clause is used with a query, and returns TRUE if the subquery results in any output (non-zero # of rows being returned), or FALSE if the subquery results in no data. The rest of the query (the 'main' query) will (or will not) run, based on EXIST's output - if EXISTS returns false, the main query will get skipped.

You can loosely think of EXISTS as "ONLY WHEN". We use it to 'defensively' update (insert, modify, delete) parts of a table (after we determine it is updatable).

You can also think of 'WHERE EXISTS' as "such that there exists". Eg. in the first example below (SELECT * FROM VENDOR..), it reads as "Find all vendors such that there exists records for them in the PRODUCT TABLE (via V_CODE) where P_QOH<=P_MIN" [in other words, we are looking for vendors we need to re-order from].

In the second example (INSERT INTO CONTACTS..), read it as "get the supplier ID and name for all suppliers such that there exists order IDs for them, then insert them into the contacts table".

Exercise: what does #3 below (the UPDATE query) do?

```
SELECT      *
FROM        VENDOR
WHERE       EXISTS (SELECT * FROM PRODUCT WHERE P_QOH <= P_MIN);
```

```
INSERT INTO contacts
(contact_id, contact_name)
SELECT supplier_id, supplier_name
FROM suppliers
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT *
              FROM orders
              WHERE suppliers.supplier_id = orders.supplier_id);
```

```
UPDATE suppliers
SET supplier_name = (SELECT customers.name
                      FROM customers
                      WHERE customers.customer_id = suppliers.supplier_id)
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT customers.name
              FROM customers
              WHERE customers.customer_id = suppliers.supplier_id);
```

```
DELETE FROM suppliers
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT *
              FROM orders
              WHERE suppliers.supplier_id = orders.supplier_id);
```

A couple more (ex of EXISTS, NOT EXISTS):

```
SELECT *
FROM suppliers
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT *
               FROM orders
              WHERE suppliers.supplier_id = orders.supplier_id);
```

This SQL EXISTS condition example will return all records from the suppliers table where there is at least one record in the orders table with the same supplier_id.

```
SELECT *
FROM suppliers
WHERE NOT EXISTS (SELECT *
                   FROM orders
                  WHERE suppliers.supplier_id = orders.supplier_id);
```

This SQL EXISTS example will return all records from the suppliers table where there are no records in the orders table for the given supplier_id.

ALTER

Advanced Data Definition Commands

- **ALTER TABLE** command: To make changes in the table structure
- Keywords use with the command
 - ADD - Adds a column
 - MODIFY - Changes column characteristics
 - DROP - Deletes a column
- Used to:
 - Add table constraints
 - Remove table constraints

Changing Column's Data Type

- ALTER can be used to change data type
- Some RDBMSs do not permit changes to data types unless column is empty
- Syntax –
 - `ALTER TABLE tablename MODIFY (columnname(datatype));`

```
ALTER TABLE PRODUCT MODIFY (V_CODE CHAR(5));
```

Changing Column's Data Characteristics

- Use ALTER to change data characteristics
- Changes in column's characteristics are permitted if changes do not alter the existing data type
- Syntax
 - `ALTER TABLE tablename MODIFY
(columnname(characterstic));`

```
ALTER TABLE PRODUCT MODIFY (P_PRICE DECIMAL(9,2));
```

Adding Column, Dropping Column

- Adding a column
 - Use ALTER and ADD
 - Do not include the NOT NULL clause for new column
- Dropping a column
 - Use ALTER and DROP
 - Some RDBMSs impose restrictions on the deletion of an attribute

```
ALTER TABLE PRODUCT ADD (P_SALECODE CHAR(1));
```

```
ALTER TABLE VENDOR DROP COLUMN V_ORDER;
```

The UPDATE command

Advanced Data Updates

- UPDATE command updates only data in existing rows
- If a relationship is established between entries and existing columns, the relationship can assign values to appropriate slots
- Arithmetic operators are useful in data updates
- In Oracle, ROLLBACK command undoes changes made by last two UPDATE statements

```
UPDATE      PRODUCT
SET         P_SALECODE = '2'
WHERE       P_CODE = '1546-QQ2';

UPDATE      PRODUCT
SET         P_SALECODE = '1'
WHERE       P_CODE IN ('2232/QWE', '2232/QTY');

UPDATE      PRODUCT
SET         P_SALECODE = '1'
WHERE       P_INDATE >= '16-Jan-2014' AND P_INDATE <='10-Feb-2014';

UPDATE      PRODUCT
SET         P_PRICE = P_PRICE * 1.10
WHERE       P_PRICE < 50.00;
```

Table update in 'bulk'

Sometimes we can update a table, by filling it with output from a query. The table to be filled in has to exist first (so we need to create it if necessary), and have type-compatible columns that can receive values from our data-fetching query.

The table creation and updating can happen in separate steps, or even be combined for compactness of expression.

Copying Parts of Tables

- SQL permits copying contents of selected table columns
 - Data need not be reentered manually into newly created table(s)
- Table structure is created
- Rows are added to new table using rows from another table

```
CREATE TABLE PART(
    PART_CODE          CHAR(8),
    PART_DESCRPT       CHAR(35),
    PART_PRICE         DECIMAL(8,2),
    V_CODE             INTEGER,
    PRIMARY KEY (PART_CODE);

    INSERT INTO PART      (PART_CODE, PART_DESCRPT, PART_PRICE, V_CODE)
    SELECT              P_CODE, P_DESCRPT, P_PRICE, V_CODE FROM PRODUCT;
```

```
CREATE TABLE PART AS
SELECT    P_CODE AS PART_CODE, P_DESCRPT AS
          PART_DESCRPT, P_PRICE AS PART_PRICE,
          V_CODE
FROM      PRODUCT;
```

Adding Primary and Foreign Key Designations

- **ALTER TABLE** command
 - Followed by a keyword that produces the specific change one wants to make
 - Options include ADD, MODIFY, and DROP
- Syntax to add or modify columns
 - **ALTER TABLE *tablename***
 - **{ADD | MODIFY} (*columnname datatype* [{ADD |
MODIFY} *columnname datatype*]) ;**
 - **ALTER TABLE *tablename***
 - **ADD *constraint* [ADD *constraint*] ;**

```
ALTER TABLE PART
    ADD PRIMARY KEY (PART_CODE);
```

```
ALTER TABLE PART
    ADD FOREIGN KEY (V_CODE) REFERENCES VENDOR;
```

Oftentimes the need to do this occurs when a table (eg. PART) is created via bulk-update, from another table (eg. PRODUCT).

Deleting a Table from the Database

- **DROP TABLE:** Deletes table from database
 - Syntax - `DROP TABLE tablename;`
 - Can drop a table only if it is not the one side of any relationship
 - RDBMS generates a foreign key integrity violation error message if the table is dropped

Ordering, unique entries, aggregate ops..

Additional SELECT Query Keywords

- Logical operators work well in the query environment
- SQL provides useful functions that:
 - Counts
 - Find minimum and maximum values
 - Calculate averages
- SQL allows user to limit queries to entries:
 - Having no duplicates
 - Whose duplicates may be grouped

ORDER BY

Ordering a Listing

- **ORDER BY** clause is useful when listing order is important
- Syntax - `SELECT columnlist
FROM tablelist
[WHERE conditionlist]
[ORDER BY columnlist [ASC | DESC]];`
- **Cascading order sequence:** Multilevel ordered sequence
 - Created by listing several attributes after the ORDER BY clause

Below is an example of ORDER BY, where by default, values are listed (sorted) in ascending order. To list the values in descending order, we'd do this: ORDER BY P_PRICE DESC;

```
SELECT P_CODE, P_DESCRPT, P_INDATE, P_PRICE
FROM PRODUCT
ORDER BY P_PRICE;
```

P_CODE	P_DESCRPT	P_INDATE	P_PRICE
54778-2T	Ret-tail file, 1/8-in. fine	15-Dec-13	4.99
PVC23DRT	PVC pipe, 3.5-in., 8-ft	20-Feb-14	5.87
SM-16277	1.25-in. metal screw, 25	01-Mar-14	6.99
SW-23118	2.5-in. wd. screw, 50	24-Feb-14	8.45
23109-HB	Claw hammer	20-Jan-14	9.95
23114-AA	Sledge hammer, 12 lb.	02-Jan-14	14.40
13-02/P2	7.25-in. pwr. saw blade	13-Dec-13	14.99
14-01/L3	9.00-in. pwr. saw blade	13-Nov-13	17.49
22360CP0	B&D cordless drill, 1/2-in.	20-Jan-14	39.95
1546-002	Hrd. cloth, 14-in., 2x50	15-Jan-14	39.95
1550-0W1	Hrd. cloth, 124-in., 3x50	15-Jan-14	43.99
2232QME	B&D jigsaw, 8-in. blade	24-Dec-13	99.87
2232QTY	B&D jigsaw, 12-in. blade	30-Dec-13	109.92
11QER/31	Power painter, 15 psi., 3-nozzle	03-Nov-13	109.99
WR3FT31	Steel meshing, 4x8x1/8", .5" mesh	17-Jan-14	119.95
89-WRE-Q	Hout chain saw, 16 in.	07-Feb-14	255.99

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```
SELECT EMP_LNAME, EMP_FNAME, EMP_INITIAL, EMP_AREACODE, EMP_PHONE
FROM EMPLOYEE
ORDER BY EMP_LNAME, EMP_FNAME, EMP_INITIAL;
```

EMP_LNAME	EMP_FNAME	EMP_INITIAL	EMP_AREACODE	EMP_PHONE
Brandon	Marie	G	901	882-0845
Diantre	Jorge	D	615	890-4567
Genkazi	Leighla	W	901	569-0093
Johnson	Edward	E	615	898-4387
Jones	Anne	M	615	898-3456
Kolmycz	George	D	615	324-5456
Lange	John	P	901	504-4430
Lewis	Rhonda	G	615	324-4472
Saranda	Hermine	R	615	324-5505
Smith	George	A	615	890-2984
Smith	George	K	901	504-3339
Smith	Jeanine	K	615	324-7883
Smythe	Melanie	P	615	324-9006
Vandam	Rhett		901	675-8993
Washington	Rupert	E	615	890-4925
Wiesenbach	Paul	R	615	897-4358
Williams	Robert	D	615	890-3220

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The sequence (listing) obtained by specifying several comma-separated attributes for ORDER BY is called a cascading order sequence.

DISTINCT

The 'DISTINCT' keyword is used to count unique/distinct occurrences of an attribute:

Listing Unique Values

- **DISTINCT** clause: Produces list of values that are unique
- Syntax - `SELECT DISTINCT columnlist
FROM tablelist;`
- Access places nulls at the top of the list
 - Oracle places it at the bottom
 - Placement of nulls does not affect list contents

Example of 'DISTINCT' usage

```
SELECT      DISTINCT V_CODE  
FROM        PRODUCT;
```

V_CODE
21225
21231
21344
23119
24288
25595

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AGGREGATE functions

COUNT, MIN, MAX, SUM, AVG are all functions that operate on a numerical attr/column, and produce a single scalar result (not a table).

Table 7.8 - Some Basic SQL Aggerate Functions

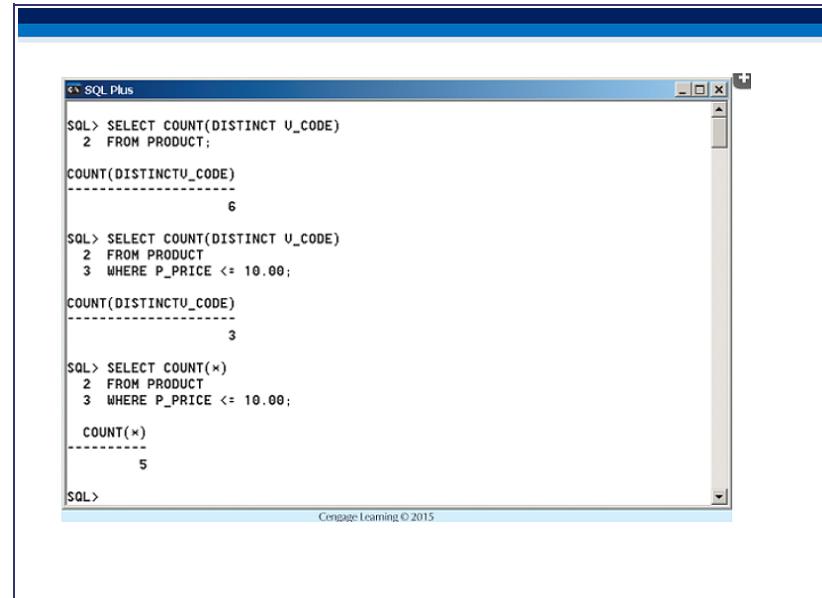
FUNCTION	OUTPUT
COUNT	The number of rows containing non-null values
MIN	The minimum attribute value encountered in a given column
MAX	The maximum attribute value encountered in a given column
SUM	The sum of all values for a given column
AVG	The arithmetic mean (average) for a specified column

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Aggregate function examples

How many different vendors supply our products? How many supply cheap (PRICE < 10) products?

Note the third query below: COUNT(*) counts the # of rows returned by a query (rows where the product costs < 10 units). In contrast, count() counts the # of non-null values of the column.



```
SQL> SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT U_CODE)
  2  FROM PRODUCT;
COUNT(DISTINCTU_CODE)
-----
6

SQL> SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT U_CODE)
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  WHERE P_PRICE <= 10.00;
COUNT(DISTINCTU_CODE)
-----
3

SQL> SELECT COUNT(*)
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  WHERE P_PRICE <= 10.00;
COUNT(*)
-----
5

SQL>
```

MAX, MIN

What is the value for the most expensive item in the product table? Least expensive?

What is the most expensive item (details)? We can't do: WHERE P_PRICE = MAX(P_PRICE). This is because MAX() can only be used in a SELECT statement.

The screenshot shows an Oracle SQL Plus window with the following content:

```
SQL> SELECT MAX(P_PRICE)
  2  FROM PRODUCT;
MAX(P_PRICE)
-----
256.99

SQL> SELECT MIN(P_PRICE)
  2  FROM PRODUCT;
MIN(P_PRICE)
-----
4.99

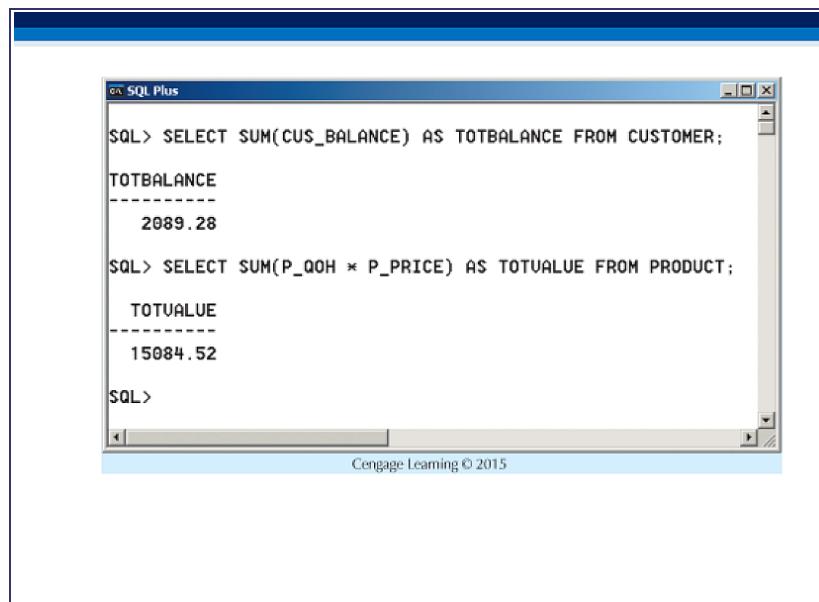
SQL> SELECT P_CODE, P_DESCRIP, P_PRICE
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  WHERE P_PRICE = (SELECT MAX(P_PRICE) FROM PRODUCT);
P_CODE          P_DESCRIP          P_PRICE
-----  -----
89-WRE-Q  Hicut chain saw, 16 in.      256.99

SQL>
```

Below the window, a separate SQL statement is shown:

```
SELECT *
FROM PRODUCT
WHERE P_QOH*P_PRICE = (SELECT MAX(P_QOH*P_PRICE) FROM PRODUCT);
```

SUM



The screenshot shows an Oracle SQL Plus window with a dark blue header bar. The title bar reads "SQL Plus". The main area contains two SQL queries and their results:

```
SQL> SELECT SUM(CUS_BALANCE) AS TOTBALANCE FROM CUSTOMER;
TOTBALANCE
-----
2089.28

SQL> SELECT SUM(P_QOH * P_PRICE) AS TOTVALUE FROM PRODUCT;
TOTVALUE
-----
15084.52

SQL>
```

At the bottom right of the window, there is a watermark that says "Cengage Learning © 2015".

AVG

The screenshot shows a Windows application window titled "SQL*Plus". Inside, two SQL queries are run. The first query is:

```
SQL> SELECT AVG(P_PRICE) FROM PRODUCT;
```

The output is:

```
AVG(P_PRICE)
-----
56.42125
```

The second query is:

```
SQL> SELECT P_CODE, P_DESCRIP, P_QOH, P_PRICE, U_CODE
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3 WHERE P_PRICE > (SELECT AVG(P_PRICE) FROM PRODUCT)
  4 ORDER BY P_PRICE DESC;
```

The output is a table:

P_CODE	P_DESCRIP	P_QOH	P_PRICE	U_CODE
89-WRE-Q	Hicut chain saw, 16 in.	11	256.99	24288
WR3/TT3	Steel matting, 4'x8'x1/6", .5" mesh	18	119.95	25595
11QER/31	Power painter, 15 psi., 3-nozzle	8	109.99	25595
2232/QTY	B&D jigsaw, 12-in. blade	8	109.92	24288
2232/QME	B&D jigsaw, 8-in. blade	6	99.87	24288

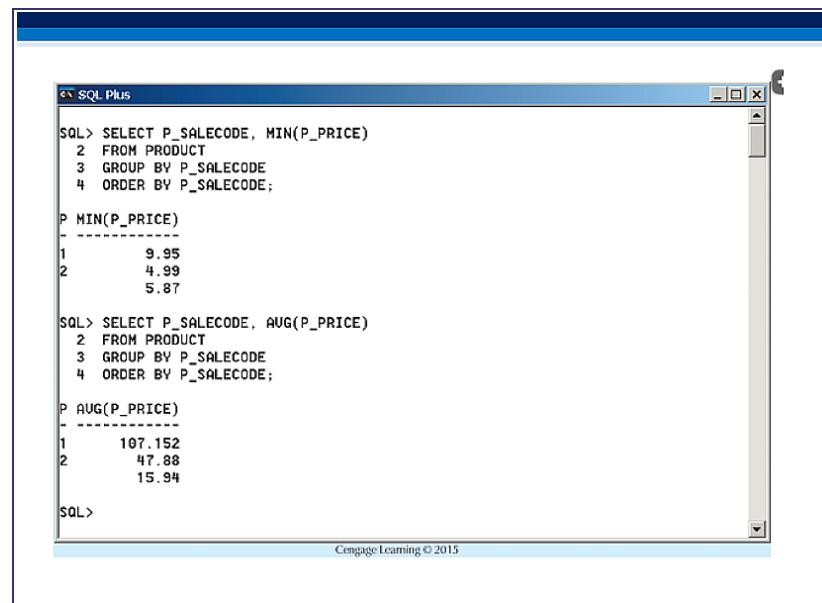
At the bottom of the window, it says "Cengage Learning © 2015".

GROUP BY (itemizing)

Grouping Data

- Frequency distributions created by **GROUP BY** clause within SELECT statement
- GROUP BY can **only** be used in concert with an aggregate function
- Syntax - `SELECT columnlist
FROM tablelist
[WHERE conditionlist]
[GROUP BY columnlist]
[HAVING conditionlist]
[ORDER BY columnlist [ASC | DESC]];``

'GROUP BY' example



The screenshot shows a window titled "SQL Plus". Inside, two SQL queries are run against a "PRODUCT" table. The first query uses MIN() to find the lowest price for each sale code, and the second uses AVG() to find the average price for each sale code.

```
SQL> SELECT P_SALECODE, MIN(P_PRICE)
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  GROUP BY P_SALECODE
  4  ORDER BY P_SALECODE;

P MIN(P_PRICE)
-----
1      9.95
2      4.99
5      5.87

SQL> SELECT P_SALECODE, AVG(P_PRICE)
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  GROUP BY P_SALECODE
  4  ORDER BY P_SALECODE;

P AVG(P_PRICE)
-----
1    107.152
2     47.88
5     15.94

SQL>
```

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You can think of 'GROUP BY' to mean "CATEGORIZE BY" or "ITEMIZE BY": rather than just a single MIN, MAX, SUM, COUNT or AVG, we're asking for a value PER OCCURRENCE of a GROUP BY value, e.g. minimum price PER VENDOR, max GPA PER DEPARTMENT, average earnings PER MAJOR, etc. Specifically, when used with SUM(), GROUP BY is used to request subtotals.

```
SQL> SELECT U_CODE, P_CODE, P_DESCRIP, P_PRICE
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  GROUP BY U_CODE;
SELECT U_CODE, P_CODE, P_DESCRIP, P_PRICE
      *
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-00979: not a GROUP BY expression

SQL> SELECT U_CODE, COUNT(DISTINCT P_CODE)
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  GROUP BY U_CODE;
U_CODE COUNT(DISTINCTP_CODE)
-----
21225          2
21231          1
21344          3
23119          2
24286          3
25595          3
                           2
7 rows selected.

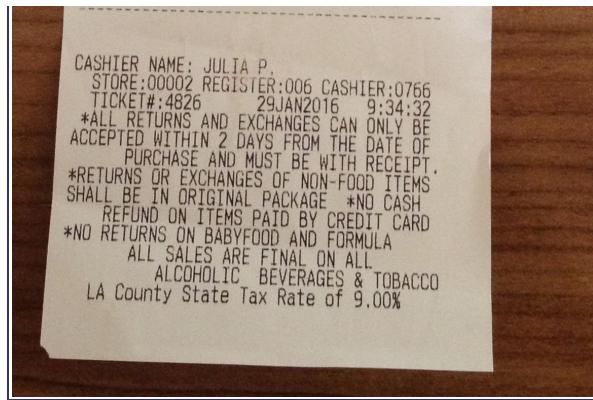
SQL>
```

'GROUP BY' used without an aggregate function is meaningless, since there is no aggregate value (MIN, COUNT etc.) to itemize.

Store receipt

Here is a grocery store receipt where subtotals are displayed itemized, aggregated by product types DELI, GROCERY, MIXED NUTS and PRODUCE (presumably using SUM(), together with GROUP BY):





While you're at it, see what other DATA you can spot in the receipt! Even a single trip to the store can generate a LOT of data.

HAVING

The HAVING clause is used to filter rows in a GROUP BY specification (only those rows HAVING met the specified condition will appear in the result).

Note that HAVING can only occur in a query that has a GROUP BY, which in turn can only occur when there is an aggregate function (MIN, MAX, SUM, COUNT or AVG).

HAVING Clause

- Extension of GROUP BY feature
- Applied to output of GROUP BY operation
- Used in conjunction with GROUP BY clause in second SQL command set
- Similar to WHERE clause in SELECT statement

The screenshot shows two SQL queries in an Oracle SQL Plus window. The first query selects U_CODE, COUNT(DISTINCT P_CODE), and AVG(P_PRICE) from the PRODUCT table, grouped by U_CODE. The results show 7 rows selected, with data for U_CODE 21225, 21231, 21344, 23119, 24288, and 25595. The second query is identical but includes a HAVING clause where AVG(P_PRICE) < 10, resulting in only 2 rows selected for U_CODE 21225 and 21231.

```

SQL> SELECT U_CODE, COUNT(DISTINCT P_CODE), AVG(P_PRICE)
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  GROUP BY U_CODE;
U_CODE COUNT(DISTINCTP_CODE) AVG(P_PRICE)
----- ----- -----
21225          2      8.47
21231          1      8.45
21344          3     12.49
23119          2     41.97
24288          3   155.593333
25595          3     89.63
2                  2    10.135

7 rows selected.

SQL> SELECT U_CODE, COUNT(DISTINCT P_CODE), AVG(P_PRICE)
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  GROUP BY U_CODE
  4  HAVING AVG(P_PRICE) < 10;
U_CODE COUNT(DISTINCTP_CODE) AVG(P_PRICE)
----- ----- -----
21225          2      8.47
21231          1      8.45

```

Table joins

Joining Database Tables

- Performed when data are retrieved from more than one table at a time
- Equality comparison between foreign key and primary key of related tables
- Tables are joined by listing tables in FROM clause of SELECT statement
- DBMS creates Cartesian product of every table in the FROM clause

Joining Tables With an Alias

- Alias identifies the source table from which data are taken
- Any legal table name can be used as alias
- Add alias after table name in FROM clause
 - FROM tablename alias, eg. 'FROM PRODUCT P'

```
SELECT      P_DESCRPT, P_PRICE, V_NAME, V_CONTACT, V_AREACODE, V_PHONE  
FROM        PRODUCT, VENDOR  
WHERE       PRODUCT.V_CODE = VENDOR.V_CODE;
```

P_DESCRPT	P_PRICE	V_NAME	V_CONTACT	V_AREACODE	V_PHONE
Claw hammer	9.95	Bryson, Inc.	Smithson	615	223-3234
1.25-in. metal screw, 25	6.99	Bryson, Inc.	Smithson	615	223-3234
2.5-in. wd. screw, 50	8.45	D&E Supply	Singh	615	228-3245
7.25-in. pwr. saw blade	14.99	Gomez Bros.	Ortega	615	889-2546
9.00-in. pwr. saw blade	17.49	Gomez Bros.	Ortega	615	889-2546
Rat-tail file, 1/8-in. fine	4.99	Gomez Bros.	Ortega	615	889-2546
Hrd. cloth, 1/4-in., 2x50	39.95	Randsets Ltd.	Anderson	901	678-3998
Hrd. cloth, 1/2-in., 3x50	43.99	Randsets Ltd.	Anderson	901	678-3998
B&D jigsaw, 12-in. blade	109.92	ORDVA, Inc.	Hakford	615	898-1234
B&D jigsaw, 8-in. blade	99.87	ORDVA, Inc.	Hakford	615	898-1234
Hicut chain saw, 16 in.	256.99	ORDVA, Inc.	Hakford	615	898-1234
Power painter, 15 psi., 3-nozzle	109.99	Rubicon Systems	Orton	904	456-0092
B&D cordless drill, 1/2-in.	38.95	Rubicon Systems	Orton	904	456-0092
Steel matting, 4'x8'x1/6", .5" mesh	119.95	Rubicon Systems	Orton	904	456-0092

ORDER BY PRODUCT.P_PRICE;

```
SELECT      CUS_LNAME, INVOICE.INV_NUMBER, INV_DATE, P_DESCRPT  
FROM        CUSTOMER, INVOICE, LINE, PRODUCT  
WHERE       CUSTOMER.CUS_CODE = INVOICE.CUS_CODE  
AND         INVOICE.INV_NUMBER = LINE.INV_NUMBER  
AND         LINE.P_CODE = PRODUCT.P_CODE  
AND         CUSTOMER.CUS_CODE = 10014  
ORDER BY    INV_NUMBER;
```

Joining n tables will need (n-1) join conditions.

'Recursive join' example

Need different aliases for the table being queried so that we can use such aliases as namespaces for attributes.

Recursive Joins

- **Recursive query:** Table is joined to itself using alias
- Use aliases to differentiate the table from itself

Table, for self-join example

EMP_NUM	EMP_TITLE	EMP_LNAME	EMP_FNAME	EMP_INITIAL	EMP_DOB	EMP_HIRE_DATE	EMP_AREA_CODE	EMP_PHONE	EMP_MGR
100 Mr.	Kolmycz	George	D		15-Jun-42	15-Mar-85 615	324-5456		
101 Ms.	Lewis	Rhonda	G		19-Mar-65	25-Apr-86 615	324-4472		100
102 Mr.	Vandana	Rhett			14-Nov-58	20-Dec-90 901	675-8993		100
103 Ms.	Jones	Anne	M		16-Oct-74	28-Aug-94 615	898-3456		100
104 Mr.	Lange	John	P		08-Nov-71	20-Oct-94 901	504-4430		105
105 Mr.	Williams	Robert	D		14-Mar-75	08-Nov-98 615	690-3220		
106 Mrs.	Smith	Jeanine	K		12-Feb-68	05-Jan-09 615	324-7003		105
107 Mr.	Dante	Jorge	D		21-Aug-74	02-Jul-94 615	690-4557		105
108 Mr.	Wiesenbach	Paul	R		14-Feb-65	18-Nov-92 615	697-4358		
109 Mr.	Smith	George	K		18-Jun-61	14-Apr-89 901	504-3339		108
110 Mrs.	Genkozi	Leighla	W		19-May-70	01-Dec-90 901	569-0093		108
111 Mr.	Washington	Rupert	E		03-Jan-66	21-Jun-93 615	690-4925		105
112 Mr.	Johnson	Edward	E		14-May-61	01-Dec-83 615	898-4387		100
113 Ms.	Smythe	Melanie	P		15-Sep-79	11-May-99 615	324-9006		105
114 Ms.	Brendon	Marie	G		02-Nov-55	15-Nov-79 901	682-0845		108
115 Mrs.	Saranda	Hermine	R		25-Jul-72	23-Apr-93 615	324-5505		105
116 Mr.	Smith	George	A		08-Nov-65	10-Dec-88 615	690-2984		108

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Self-join example

EMP_NUM	E.EMP_LNAME	EMP_MGR	M.EMP_LNAME
112	Johnson	100	Kolmycz
103	Jones	100	Kolmycz
102	Vandam	100	Kolmycz
101	Lewis	100	Kolmycz
115	Saranda	105	Williams
113	Smythe	105	Williams
111	Washington	105	Williams
107	Dante	105	Williams
106	Smith	105	Williams
104	Lange	105	Williams
116	Sith	108	Wiesenbach
114	Brandon	108	Wiesenbach
110	Gentazi	108	Wiesenbach
109	Smith	108	Wiesenbach

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Here is how the join works:

EMP_NUM	EMP_TITLE	EMP_LNAME	EMP_FNAME	EMP_INITIAL	EMP_SOB	EMP_HIRE_DATE	EMP_LEAVE_DATE	EMP_PHONE	EMP_MGR
101	Manager	George	D		05-Nov-85	12-Aug-92	12-Aug-92	555-4442	100
101 Ms.	Lead Engineer	Leone	A		19-Mar-65	25-Apr-90	100	101 Ms.	Leone
102	Analyst	Vander	Russell	E	14-Aug-55	20-Dec-90	80	102	Vander
102 Mr.	Analyst	John	P		15-Mar-65	01-Jan-95	100	102 Mr.	John
104	Analyst	Liane	John	P	03-Nov-71	20-Oct-94	100	104 Mr.	Liane
105	Analyst	Robert	D		14-Mar-75	05-Nov-99	105	105 Mr.	Robert
105 Ms.	Analyst	Seth	John	P	12-Mar-75	11-Mar-95	105	105 Ms.	Seth
107	Analyst	Osiris	Jorge	D	21-Aug-74	03-Jun-94	105	107 Mr.	Osiris
107 Ms.	Analyst	George	Jorge	D	16-Nov-92	05-Jun-95	105	107 Ms.	George
108	Analyst	Paul	R		14-Feb-85	09-Jun-95	105	108 Mr.	Paul
108 Ms.	Analyst	Dante	N		18-Mar-65	02-Jun-95	108	108 Ms.	Dante
110	Analyst	Washington	John	P	15-Mar-75	01-Jun-95	108	110 Ms.	Washington
110 Ms.	Analyst	Leisha	V		19-May-70	01-Dec-90	108	110 Ms.	Leisha
111	Analyst	Brandon	Edward	E	05-Mar-85	01-Jun-95	108	111 Ms.	Brandon
112	Analyst	Johnson	Edward	E	14-Aug-41	01-Dec-83	105	112 Ms.	Johnson
112 Ms.	Analyst	John	Edward	E	11-Mar-41	23-Apr-90	105	112 Ms.	John
113	Analyst	Seth	Marie	P	15-Sep-70	11-Mar-99	105	113 Ms.	Seth
113 Ms.	Analyst	Dante	Marie	P	03-Mar-75	02-Jun-95	105	113 Ms.	Dante
115	Analyst	Saranda	Hermione	R	25-Aug-72	23-Apr-93	105	115 Ms.	Saranda
115 Ms.	Analyst	Hermione	George	A	08-Apr-65	10-Dec-89	105	115 Ms.	George

EMP_NUM	EMP_TITLE	EMP_LNAME	EMP_FNAME	EMP_INITIAL	EMP_SOB	EMP_HIRE_DATE	EMP_LEAVE_DATE	EMP_PHONE	EMP_MGR
100	Manager	George	D		15-Nov-85	12-Aug-92	12-Aug-92	555-4442	100
101 Ms.	Lead Engineer	Leone	A		19-Mar-65	25-Apr-90	100	101 Ms.	Leone
102	Analyst	Vander	Russell	E	14-Aug-55	20-Dec-90	80	102	Vander
102 Mr.	Analyst	John	P		15-Mar-65	01-Jan-95	100	102 Mr.	John
104	Analyst	Liane	John	P	03-Nov-71	20-Oct-94	100	104 Mr.	Liane
105	Analyst	Robert	D		14-Mar-75	05-Nov-99	105	105 Mr.	Robert
105 Ms.	Analyst	Seth	John	P	12-Mar-75	11-Mar-95	105	105 Ms.	Seth
107	Analyst	Osiris	Jorge	D	21-Aug-74	03-Jun-94	105	107 Ms.	Osiris
107 Ms.	Analyst	George	Jorge	D	16-Nov-92	05-Jun-95	105	107 Ms.	George
108	Analyst	Paul	R		14-Feb-85	09-Jun-95	105	108 Mr.	Paul
108 Ms.	Analyst	Dante	N		18-Mar-65	02-Jun-95	108	108 Ms.	Dante
110	Analyst	Washington	John	P	15-Mar-75	01-Jun-95	108	110 Ms.	Washington
110 Ms.	Analyst	Leisha	V		19-May-70	01-Dec-90	108	110 Ms.	Leisha
111	Analyst	Brandon	Edward	E	05-Mar-85	01-Jun-95	105	111 Ms.	Brandon
112	Analyst	Johnson	Edward	E	14-Aug-41	01-Dec-83	105	112 Ms.	Johnson
112 Ms.	Analyst	John	Edward	E	11-Mar-41	23-Apr-90	105	112 Ms.	John
113	Analyst	Seth	Marie	P	15-Sep-70	11-Mar-99	105	113 Ms.	Seth
113 Ms.	Analyst	Dante	Marie	P	03-Mar-75	02-Jun-95	105	113 Ms.	Dante
115	Analyst	Saranda	Hermione	R	25-Aug-72	23-Apr-93	105	115 Ms.	Saranda
115 Ms.	Analyst	Hermione	George	A	08-Apr-65	10-Dec-89	105	115 Ms.	George

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Soooo... are joins 'evil'? Not really :)

SQL is declarative, not imperative

Now that you're familiar with SQL syntax, you will appreciate knowing how it compares with a regular programming language such as C++. Shown below is such a comparison, using C# which lets us write code in an imperative (command-oriented) manner as well a declarative (result-oriented) one [this is from a book on functional programming]:

Listing 1.3 Imperative data processing (C#)

```
List<string> res = new List<string>();
foreach(Product p in Products) {
    if (p.UnitPrice > 75.0M) {
        res.Add(String.Format("{0} - ${1}",
            p.ProductName, p.UnitPrice));
    }
}
return res;
```

#1 Create resulting list
#2 Iterate over products
#3 Add information to list of results

You'll probably need to read the code carefully to understand what it does, but that's not the only aspect we want to improve. The code is written as a sequence of some basic imperative commands. For example, the first statement creates new list (#1), the second iterates over all products (#2) and a later one adds element to the list (#3). However, we'd like to be able to describe the problem at a higher level. In more abstract terms, the code just filters a collection and returns some information about every returned product.

In C# 3.0, we can write the same code using query expression syntax. This version is closer to our real goal—it uses the same idea of filtering and transforming the data. You can see the code in listing 1.4.

Listing 1.4 Declarative data processing (C#)

```
var res = from p in Products
          where p.UnitPrice > 75.0M
          select string.Format("{0} - ${1}",
            p.ProductName, p.UnitPrice);
```

#1 Filter products using predicate
#2 Return information about product

The expression that calculates the result (`res`) is composed from basic operators such as `where` or `select`. These operators take other expressions as an argument, because they need to know exactly what we want to filter or select as a result.

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Ways to 'do' SQL..

SQL is a data creation+manipulation language, so it's best learned HANDS ON (not just by looking at slides and reading about the syntax) - you need access to a relational database where you can create tables, enter data in them and do queries on the data (tables ← data ← queries).

There are three ways to get your hands on a DB: use a browser page [a server runs the DB software, you simply access it from a page]; install a DB locally on your laptop/tablet/phone; use a 'cloud-based' DB [this is similar to, but more powerful than, accessing a DB via a web page].

1. Browser-based SQL IDEs

An easy way to practice running SQL queries is to use browser-based interfaces (nothing to download, no login needed) to create/query databases. Here are some sites that provide this form of access:

- * SQL Tutorial: <http://www.w3schools.com/sql/default.asp>
- * ideone: <http://www.ideone.com>
- * sqlfiddle: <http://sqlfiddle.com/>
- * Code School's Try SQL: <http://campus.codeschool.com/courses/try-sql/contents>
- * SQLZOO: <http://sqlzoo.net/> - has extensive tutorials
- * another tutorial: <http://www.sqltutorial.org/>
- * w3resource: <http://www.w3resource.com/sql-exercises/> - more tutorials
- * Khan Academy: <https://www.khanacademy.org/computer-programming/new/sql>
- * 'Online SQL interpreter': <https://sql-js.github.io/sql.js/examples/GUI/> - JavaScript-based! [here is the source: <https://cdnjs.com/libraries/sql.js> ; more info: <https://sql.js.org/#/>]
- * small, simple, fun examples: <https://sql-playground.wizardzines.com/> [to go with this delightful booklet]

Below are examples for three of the above links.

Bring up the w3schools Tryit Editor , enter and run the following pair of sql command sets one at a time (these commands run on a set of pre-installed (by w3schools.com) collection of tables called the Northwind database) :

```
SELECT City FROM Customers
WHERE Country="Germany";

SELECT City, CustomerID FROM Customers
WHERE Country="Germany" AND CustomerID>60;
```

In ideone , select SQLite (for the choice of language), then enter and run this:

```
-- warmup
create table tble(str varchar(20));
insert into tble values ('Hello world!'),('SQL is fun!!'
```

```

);
select * from table;

-- recipes
CREATE TABLE recipes (
recipe_id INT NOT NULL,
recipe_name VARCHAR(30) NOT NULL,
PRIMARY KEY (recipe_id),
UNIQUE (recipe_name)
);

INSERT INTO recipes
(recipe_id, recipe_name)
VALUES
(1,"Tacos"),
(2,"Tomato Soup"),
(3,"Grilled Cheese");

-- quick check
SELECT recipe_name
FROM recipes;

-- ingredients
CREATE TABLE ingredients (
ingredient_id INT NOT NULL,
ingredient_name VARCHAR(30) NOT NULL,
ingredient_price INT NOT NULL,
PRIMARY KEY (ingredient_id),
UNIQUE (ingredient_name)
);

INSERT INTO ingredients
(ingredient_id, ingredient_name, ingredient_price)

```

```

VALUES
(1, "Beef", 5),
(2, "Lettuce", 1),
(3, "Tomatoes", 2),
(4, "Taco Shell", 2),
(5, "Cheese", 3),
(6, "Milk", 1),
(7, "Bread", 2);

-- recipe_ingredients
CREATE TABLE recipe_ingredients (
recipe_id int NOT NULL,
ingredient_id INT NOT NULL,
amount INT NOT NULL,
PRIMARY KEY (recipe_id,ingredient_id)
);

INSERT INTO recipe_ingredients
(recipe_id, ingredient_id, amount)
VALUES
(1,1,1),
(1,2,2),
(1,3,2),
(1,4,3),
(1,5,1),
(2,3,2),
(2,6,1),
(3,5,1),
(3,7,2);

SELECT *
FROM recipes
ORDER BY recipe_id;

```

Here is the recipes db table and its queries again, this time in sqlfiddle. After the page loads (with our SQL commands above, filled in!), click 'Build Schema' on the left, then click 'Run SQL' on the right [and wait for a few seconds for the output].

2. Locally installed DBs

You can install Oracle on your machine, or install the light-weight but powerful DB Browser for SQLite, aka [SQLite Browser](#). On Windows, this offers a 'notebook' environment: <https://sqlnotebook.com/> [a mix of SQL and non-SQL commands]. It is also OK to use Postgres, or MySQL; or you could use [some other DB...](#)

Here is a quickstart guide for SQLite Browser - we create a table called CosineTable, and fill it with rows containing [angle, cos(angle)] pairs. And [here](#) is another clip that shows how to create a simple sqlite DB and query it.

The second clip above, also shows that the .db file that is created, contains data in a SQLite-native binary format [which is [public](#) and [well-documented](#)]. FYI, there are sqlite API calls in multiple languages that let you access the (binary) data using functions/methods that accept SQL commands as regular strings. This is mixed-language programming that lets us accomplish a lot, because we leverage the power of Java, Python etc., as well as that of SQL. Eg. here's how it works in Python:

```
>>> for row in c.execute('SELECT * FROM stocks ORDER BY price'):
    print row # or we could email this, put it up on
    an LED display, buy/sell the cheap/pricey stocks..

(u'2006-01-05', u'BUY', u'RHAT', 100, 35.14)
(u'2006-03-28', u'BUY', u'IBM', 1000, 45.0)
(u'2006-04-06', u'SELL', u'IBM', 500, 53.0)
(u'2006-04-05', u'BUY', u'MSFT', 1000, 72.0)
```

You could also write a binary reader+parser in C++, Java etc. and extract the sqlite-native data that way - in other words, you'd never lose your data if you store it in a sqlite .db file!

As you can see, sqlite is [very popular](#) :)

3. Cloud-based DBs

You can also work with a relational DB via the cloud, eg. using Amazon's [RDS](#) offering. RDS offers a way to create databases such as Amazon's own Aurora, Oracle, SQL Server, MariaDB, MySQL, Postgres.

The QUICKEST/EASIEST cloud solution is <https://bit.io> - give it a try! Here is a good way to get started: <https://innerjoin.bit.io/sql-snow-day-a-holiday-adventure-in-postgres-basics-with-bit-io-77f294bb9bed> Also, check out <https://bit.io/integrations> - cool!

1/50 8:18:11 * * *

← →

More SQL

Ch.8

11e

Database Systems
Design, Implementation, and Management

Coronel | Morris

Chapter 8
Advanced SQL

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Objectives

Learning Objectives

- In this chapter, the student will learn:
 - How to use the advanced SQL JOIN operator syntax
 - About the different types of subqueries and correlated queries
 - How to use SQL functions to manipulate dates, strings, and other data
 - About the relational set operators UNION, UNION ALL, INTERSECT, and MINUS

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Objectives

Learning Objectives

- In this chapter, the student will learn:
 - How to create and use views and updatable views
 - How to create and use triggers and stored procedures
 - How to create embedded SQL

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3

The 'JOIN' operation

Recall that we looked at examples of joining - entries from two tables, and entries from a single table. These joins were based on 'join conditions'.

It is also possible to join tables using the 'JOIN' keyword..

JOIN conditions

Note that JOINS can be based on != (aka <>), >, <, >= and <= as well, in addition to equality. Eg. to list all students who will be getting a 'A' (uses two inequality comparisons indirectly):

```
// http://www.comp.nus.edu.sg/~ooibc/courses/sql/dml_query_join.htm
SELECT a.name, a.score
FROM student_scores a, grade_class b
WHERE b.grade = 'A' AND a.score BETWEEN
b.low_end AND b.high_end;
```

SQL Join Operators

- Relational join operation merges rows from two tables and returns rows with one of the following
 - Natural join - Have common values in common columns
 - Equality or inequality - Meet a given join condition
 - **Outer join:** Have common values in common columns or have no matching values
- **Inner join:** Only rows that meet a given criterion are selected

Ways to specify JOIN conditions

Table 8.1 - SQL Join Expression Styles

JOIN CLASSIFICATION	JOIN TYPE	SQL SYNTAX EXAMPLE	DESCRIPTION
CROSS	CROSS JOIN	SELECT * FROM T1, T2	Returns the Cartesian product of T1 and T2 (old style)
		SELECT * FROM T1 CROSS JOIN T2	Returns the Cartesian product of T1 and T2
INNER	Old-style JOIN	SELECT * FROM T1, T2 WHERE T1.C1=T2.C1	Returns only the rows that meet the join condition in the WHERE clause (old style); only rows with matching values are selected
	NATURAL JOIN	SELECT * FROM T1 NATURAL JOIN T2	Returns only the rows with matching values in the matching columns; the matching columns must have the same names and similar data types
	JOIN USING	SELECT * FROM T1 JOIN T2 USING (C1)	Returns only the rows with matching values in the columns indicated in the USING clause
	JOIN ON	SELECT * FROM T1 JOIN T2 ON T1.C1=T2.C1	Returns only the rows that meet the join condition indicated in the ON clause

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Outer vs inner vs full ('both') JOINS

Table 8.1 - SQL Join Expression Styles

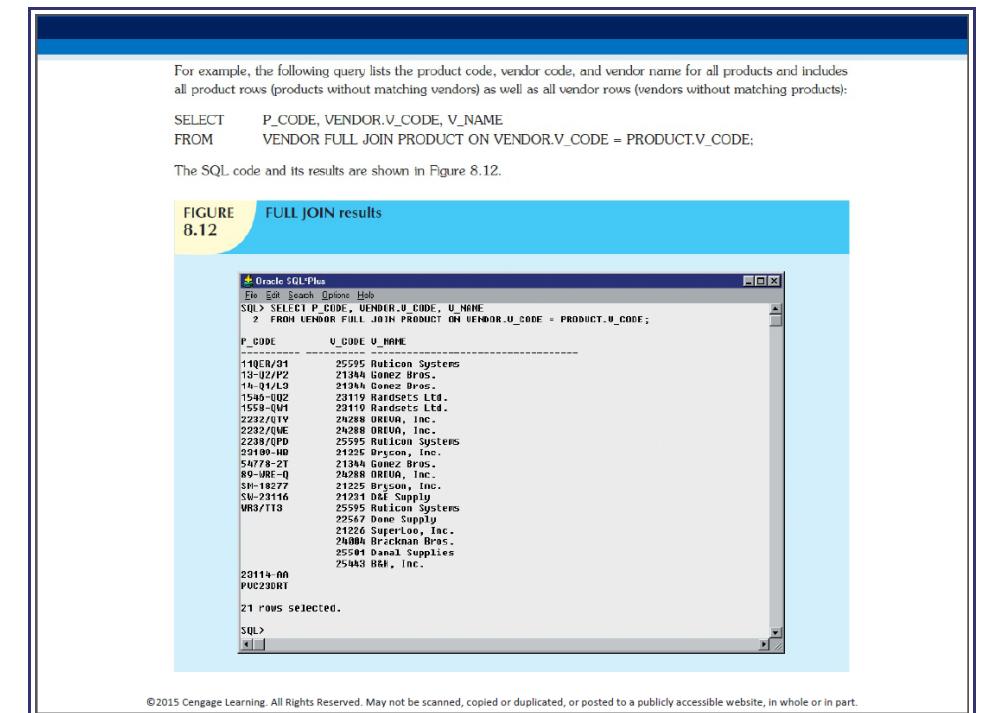
JOIN CLASSIFICATION	JOIN TYPE	SQL SYNTAX EXAMPLE	DESCRIPTION
OUTER	LEFT JOIN	<code>SELECT * FROM T1 LEFT OUTER JOIN T2 ON T1.C1=T2.C1</code>	Returns rows with matching values and includes all rows from the left table (T1) with unmatched values
	RIGHT JOIN	<code>SELECT * FROM T1 RIGHT OUTER JOIN T2 ON T1.C1=T2.C1</code>	Returns rows with matching values and includes all rows from the right table (T2) with unmatched values
	FULL JOIN	<code>SELECT * FROM T1 FULL OUTER JOIN T2 ON T1.C1=T2.C1</code>	Returns rows with matching values and includes all rows from both tables (T1 and T2) with unmatched values

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Full (left+right outer) JOIN example



'SELECT' subqueries

SELECT SUBQUERY EXAMPLES	EXPLANATION
INSERT INTO PRODUCT SELECT * FROM P;	Inserts all rows from Table P into the PRODUCT table. Both tables must have the same attributes. The subquery returns all rows from Table P.
UPDATE PRODUCT SET P_PRICE = (SELECT AVG(P_PRICE) FROM PRODUCT) WHERE V_CODE IN (SELECT V_CODE FROM VENDOR WHERE V_AREACODE = '615')	Updates the product price to the average product price, but only for products provided by vendors who have an area code equal to 615. The first subquery returns the average price; the second subquery returns the list of vendors with an area code equal to 615.
DELETE FROM PRODUCT WHERE V_CODE IN (SELECT V_CODE FROM VENDOR WHERE V_AREACODE = '615')	Deletes the PRODUCT table rows provided by vendors with an area code equal to 615. The subquery returns the list of vendor codes with an area code equal to 615.

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Subqueries and Correlated Queries

- Subquery is a query inside another query
- Subquery can return:
 - One single value - One column and one row
 - A list of values - One column and multiple rows
 - A virtual table - Multicolumn, multirow set of values
 - No value - Output of the outer query might result in an error or a null empty set

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'WHERE' subqueries

WHERE Subqueries

- Uses inner SELECT subquery on the right side of a WHERE comparison expression
- Value generated by the subquery must be of a comparable data type
- If the query returns more than a single value, the DBMS will generate an error
- Can be used in combination with joins

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WHERE subquery example

FIGURE
8.13

WHERE subquery example

```
SQL> SELECT P_CODE, P_PRICE FROM PRODUCT
  2 WHERE P_PRICE >= (SELECT AVG(P_PRICE) FROM PRODUCT);

P_CODE          P_PRICE
-----          -----
11QER/31        109.99
2232/QTV        180.92
2232/QWE        99.87
89-UQE-Q        256.99
UR3/TT3         119.95

SQL> SELECT DISTINCT CUS_CODE, CUS_LNAME, CUS_FNAME
  2 FROM CUSTOMER JOIN LINEITEM USING (CUS_CODE)
  3           JOIN LINE USING (LNU_NUMBER)
  4           JOIN PRODUCT USING (P_CODE)
  5 WHERE P_CODE IN (SELECT P_CODE FROM PRODUCT WHERE P_DESCRIFT = 'Clav hammer');

CUS_CODE CUS_LNAME      CUS_FNAME
-----  -----
10011  Dunne           Leona
10014  Orlando         Myron
```

IN, HAVING subqueries

IN and HAVING Subqueries

- IN subqueries
 - Used to compare a single attribute to a list of values
- HAVING subqueries
 - HAVING clause restricts the output of a GROUP BY query by applying conditional criteria to the grouped rows

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'IN' subqueries

Compare against a LIST of values..

FIGURE 8.14 IN subquery example

The screenshot shows an Oracle SQL*Plus window. The title bar says "Oracle SQL*Plus". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "Search", "Options", and "Help". The main area displays the following SQL code:

```
SQL> SELECT DISTINCT CUS_CODE, CUS_LNAME, CUS_FNAME
  2  FROM CUSTOMER JOIN INVOICE USING (CUS_CODE)
  3  JOIN LINE USING (INV_NUMBER)
  4  JOIN PRODUCT USING (P_CODE)
  5  WHERE P_CODE IN (SELECT P_CODE FROM PRODUCT
  6    WHERE P_DESCRIP LIKE '%hammer%' OR P_DESCRIP LIKE '%saw%');");

```

Below the code, the results are displayed in a table:

CUS_CODE	CUS_LNAME	CUS_FNAME
10011	Dunne	Leona
10012	Smith	Kathy
10014	Orlando	Myron
10015	O'Brian	Amy

The SQL prompt "SQL>" is visible at the bottom left, and there is a small input field below it.

'HAVING' subqueries

As we saw earlier, this restricts the results of a GROUP BY clause. Eg. here's how to list all products sold, whose totals are greater than the average quantity sold:

**FIGURE
8.15 HAVING subquery example**

The screenshot shows an Oracle SQL*Plus session. The command entered is:

```
SQL> SELECT P_CODE, SUM(LINE_UNITS)
  2  FROM LINE
  3  GROUP BY P_CODE
  4  HAVING SUM(LINE_UNITS) > (SELECT AVG(LINE_UNITS) FROM LINE);
```

The output displays the results of the query:

P_CODE	SUM(LINE_UNITS)
13-Q2/P2	8
23109-HB	5
5478-2T	6
PUC23DRT	17
SM-18277	3
Wn9/TT9	9

Below the table, the message "6 rows selected." is displayed. The SQL prompt "SQL>" is shown at the bottom.

ALL, ANY (inequality comparisons)

Recall that 'IN' is an equality comparison against a list. To do inequality **comparison of a value against a list of values** (eg. need to be greater than ALL, need to be less than ANY..), use ALL, ANY.

Multirow Subquery Operators: ANY and ALL

- ALL operator
 - Allows comparison of a single value with a list of values returned by the first subquery
 - Uses a comparison operator other than equals
- ANY operator
 - Allows comparison of a single value to a list of values and selects only the rows for which the value is greater than or less than any value in the list

ALL, ANY

Eg. "which products do we own [in our store], whose value is more than ALL other products's values supplied by vendors in Florida?"

FIGURE 8.16 Multirow subquery operator example

The screenshot shows an Oracle SQL*Plus window. The SQL command is:

```
SQL> SELECT P_CODE, P_QOH*P_PRICE
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3 WHERE P_QOH*P_PRICE > ALL
  4  (SELECT P_QOH*P_PRICE FROM PRODUCT
  5  WHERE V_CODE IN (SELECT V_CODE FROM VENDOR WHERE V_STATE = 'FL'));
```

The output shows one row:

P_CODE	P_QOH*P_PRICE
89-WRE-Q	2826.89

Note that 'greater than ALL' is eqvt to 'greater than the largest of'. 'ALL' is used to select rows [plural in general] that comparison-succeed against all values in a list.

Another powerful operator is the ANY multirow operator (the near cousin of the ALL multirow operator). The ANY operator allows you to compare a single value to a list of values, selecting only the rows for which the inventory cost is greater than any value of the list or less than any value of the list. You could use the equal to ANY operator, which would be the equivalent of the IN operator.

'ANY' is used to select rows [plural in general] that comparison-succeed with any value in a list.

Note that '= ANY(list of values)' is equivalent to the 'IN' operator (which is itself equivalent to multiple == conditions joined by ORs). So the following are all equivalent, for a given value of 'M':

(M==6) OR (M==8) OR (M==10)

M IN (6,8,10)

M = ANY (6,8,10)

So loosely speaking, ALL is equivalent to AND, and ANY is equivalent to OR.

'FROM' subqueries

A SELECT query that appears in FROM, creates a **virtual table** against which the main query can run.

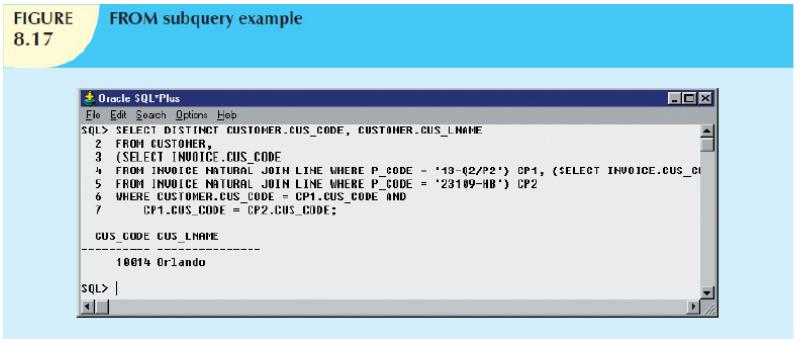
FROM Subqueries

- FROM clause:
 - Specifies the tables from which the data will be drawn
 - Can use SELECT subquery

FROM subquery example

All customers who bought both specified products

FIGURE
8.17 FROM subquery example



The screenshot shows the Oracle SQL*Plus interface. The title bar says "Oracle SQL*Plus". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "Search", "Options", and "Help". The main window displays the following SQL code and its output:

```
SQL> SELECT DISTINCT CUSTOMER.CUS_CODE, CUSTOMER.CUS_LNAME
  2  FROM CUSTOMER,
  3  (SELECT INVOICE.CUS_CODE
  4  FROM INVOICE NATURAL JOIN LINE WHERE P_CODE = '19-Q2/P2') CP1,
  5  (SELECT INVOICE.CUS_CODE
  6  FROM INVOICE NATURAL JOIN LINE WHERE P_CODE = '23109-HB') CP2
  7  WHERE CUSTOMER.CUS_CODE = CP1.CUS_CODE AND
        CP1.CUS_CODE = CP2.CUS_CODE;

 CUS_CODE CUS_LNAME
 -----
 10014 Orlando
```

Attribute list subqueries

These subqueries determine what columns get output by the main query - they can be actual (existing) columns or computed columns or results of aggregate functions.

These are also known as 'column subqueries' or 'inline subqueries'.

Attribute List Subqueries

- SELECT statement uses attribute list to indicate what columns to project in the resulting set
- Inline subquery
 - Subquery expression included in the attribute list that must return one value
- Column alias cannot be used in attribute list computation if alias is defined in the same attribute list

Attribute subquery example

FIGURE
8.18

Inline subquery example

The screenshot shows the Oracle SQL*Plus interface. The command entered is:

```
SQL> SELECT P_CODE, P_PRICE, (SELECT AVG(P_PRICE) FROM PRODUCT) AS AVGPRICE,
  2   P_PRICE-(SELECT AVG(P_PRICE) FROM PRODUCT) AS DIFF
  3   FROM PRODUCT;
```

The output displays the following data:

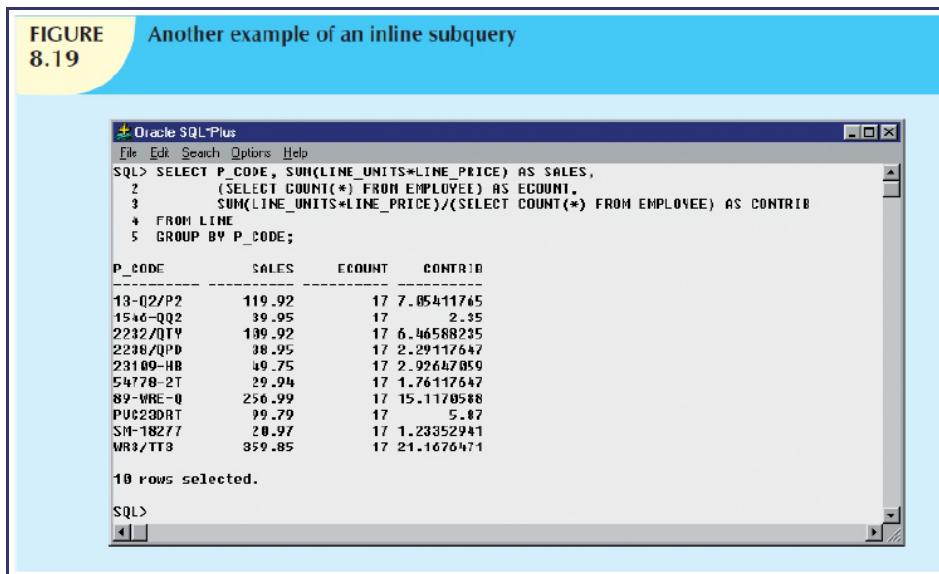
P_CODE	P_PRICE	AVGPRICE	DIFF
11QER/31	109.99	56.42125	53.56875
13-Q2/P2	14.99	56.42125	-41.43125
14-Q1/L8	17.49	56.42125	-38.93125
1546-QQ2	39.95	56.42125	-16.47125
1558-QW1	43.99	56.42125	-12.43125
2232/QTY	109.92	56.42125	53.49875
2232/QWE	99.87	56.42125	43.44875
2238/QPD	38.95	56.42125	-17.47125
23109-HB	9.95	56.42125	-46.47125
23114-AA	14.4	56.42125	-42.02125
54778-2T	4.99	56.42125	-51.43125
89-WRE-Q	256.99	56.42125	200.56875
PUC230RT	5.87	56.42125	-50.55125
SH-18Z77	6.99	56.42125	-49.43125
SV-23116	8.45	56.42125	-47.97125
VR3/T13	119.95	56.42125	63.52875

16 rows selected.

SQL>

Another attribute subquery example

FIGURE 8.19 Another example of an inline subquery



The screenshot shows the Oracle SQL*Plus interface. The command window displays the following SQL query:

```
SQL> SELECT P_CODE, SUM(LINE_UNITS*LINE_PRICE) AS SALES,
  2   (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM EMPLOYEE) AS ECOUNT,
  3   SUM(LINE_UNITS*LINE_PRICE)/(SELECT COUNT(*) FROM EMPLOYEE) AS CONTRIB
  4  FROM LINE
  5 GROUP BY P_CODE;
```

The output shows the results of the query:

P_CODE	SALES	ECOUNT	CONTRIB
13-Q2/P2	119.92	17	7.05411765
1546-QQ2	39.95	17	2.35
2232/QTV	139.92	17	6.46588235
2238/QPD	38.95	17	2.29117647
23109-HB	49.75	17	2.92667059
54778-2T	29.94	17	1.76117647
89-WRE-Q	256.99	17	15.1178588
PUC23DRT	99.79	17	5.87
SM-18277	28.97	17	1.23352941
WR3/TT3	359.85	17	21.1676471

18 rows selected.

SQL>

Correlated subqueries

Correlated Subquery

- Executes once for each row in the outer query
- Inner query references a column of the outer subquery
- Can be used with the EXISTS special operator

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In a correlated subquery, the inner (sub) query is repeatedly run, for each row of the outer query! The inner is said to be (co-)related with the outer query when it references a column in the outer query's table. This is in effect, like a double (nested) 'for' loop..

```
for each row in OUTER table
  run subquery on EACH row in INNER table, gather
  results, use in outer table's query
```

Here is the Wikipedia entry on correlated subqueries. This is the example shown there [select employees who make more than the average salary for their department]:

```
SELECT employee_number, name
FROM employees AS Bob
WHERE salary > (
    SELECT AVG(salary)
    FROM employees
    WHERE department = Bob.department)
;
```

In the above, the outer query "passes in", for each employee (each row), the employee's dept. [which the inner query refers to as Bob.department]. The inner query selects all salaries for that dept., computes the average, compares it with the passed-in employee's salary; if the test passes, the outer query selects the employee's # and name.

Correlated subqueries [cont'd]

Until now, all subqueries you have learned execute independently. That is, each subquery in a command sequence executes in a serial fashion, one after another. The inner subquery executes first; its output is used by the outer query, which then executes until the last outer query executes (the first SQL statement in the code).

In contrast, a **correlated subquery** is a subquery that executes once for each row in the outer query. That process is similar to the typical nested loop in a programming language. For example:

```
FOR X = 1 TO 2
    FOR Y = 1 TO 3
        PRINT "X = "X, "Y = "Y
    END
END
```

1. It initiates the outer query.
2. For each row of the outer query result set, it executes the inner query by passing the outer row to the inner query.

That process is the opposite of that of the subqueries as you have already seen. The query is called a *correlated subquery* because the inner query is *related* to the outer query by the fact that the inner query references a column of the outer subquery.

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Correlated subquery examples

To see the correlated subquery in action, suppose that you want to know all product sales in which the units sold value is greater than the average units sold value *for that product* (as opposed to the average for *all* products). In that case, the following procedure must be completed:

1. Compute the average units sold for a product.
2. Compare the average computed in Step 1 to the units sold in each sale row, and then select only the rows in which the number of units sold is greater.

The following correlated query completes the preceding two-step process:

```
SELECT INV_NUMBER, P_CODE, LINE_UNITS
FROM LINE LS
WHERE LS.LINE_UNITS > (SELECT AVG(LINE_UNITS)
                         FROM LINE LA
                         WHERE LA.P_CODE = LS.P_CODE);
```

```
SQL> SELECT INV_NUMBER, P_CODE, LINE_UNITS
  2  FROM LINE LS
  3  WHERE LS.LINE_UNITS > (SELECT AVG(LINE_UNITS)
  4                           FROM LINE LA
  5                           WHERE LA.P_CODE = LS.P_CODE);

INV_NUMBER P_CODE      LINE_UNITS
-----  -----
1003 13-Q2/P2          5
1004 54778-2T           3
1004 23109-HB           2
1005 PUC23DRT          12

SQL> SELECT INV_NUMBER, P_CODE, LINE_UNITS,
  2  (SELECT AVG(LINE_UNITS) FROM LINE LX WHERE LX.P_CODE = LS.P_CODE) AS AVG
  3  FROM LINE LS
  4  WHERE LS.LINE_UNITS > (SELECT AVG(LINE_UNITS)
  5                           FROM LINE LA
  6                           WHERE LA.P_CODE = LS.P_CODE);

INV_NUMBER P_CODE      LINE_UNITS      AVG
-----  -----
1003 13-Q2/P2          5  2.66666667
1004 54778-2T           3  2
1004 23109-HB           2  1.25
1005 PUC23DRT          12  8.5
```

In the top query and its result in Figure 8.14, note that the LINE table is used more than once, so you must use table aliases. In this case, the inner query computes the average units sold of the product that matches the P_CODE of the outer query P_CODE. That is, the inner query runs once, using the first product code found in the outer LINE table, and returns the average sale for that product. When the number of units sold in the outer LINE row is greater than the average computed, the row is added to the output. Then the inner query runs again, this time using the second product code found in the outer LINE table. The process repeats until the inner query has run for all rows in the outer LINE table. In this case, the inner query will be repeated as many times as there are rows in the outer query.

To verify the results and to provide an example of how you can combine subqueries, you can add a correlated inline subquery to the previous query. (See the second query and its results in Figure 8.14.) As you can see, the new query contains a correlated inline subquery that computes the average units sold for each product. You not only get an answer, you can also verify that the answer is correct.

In the second query above, we have TWO correlated subqueries (that are identical), both of which need to run for every row of the main query.

UNION, INTERSECTION, DIFFERENCE

Relational Set Operators

- SQL data manipulation commands are set-oriented
 - **Set-oriented:** Operate over entire sets of rows and columns at once
- UNION, INTERSECT, and Except (MINUS) work properly when relations are union-compatible
 - **Union-compatible:** Number of attributes are the same and their corresponding data types are alike
- UNION
 - Combines rows from two or more queries without including duplicate rows

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UNION, INTERSECTION, DIFFERENCE [cont'd]

Relational Set Operators

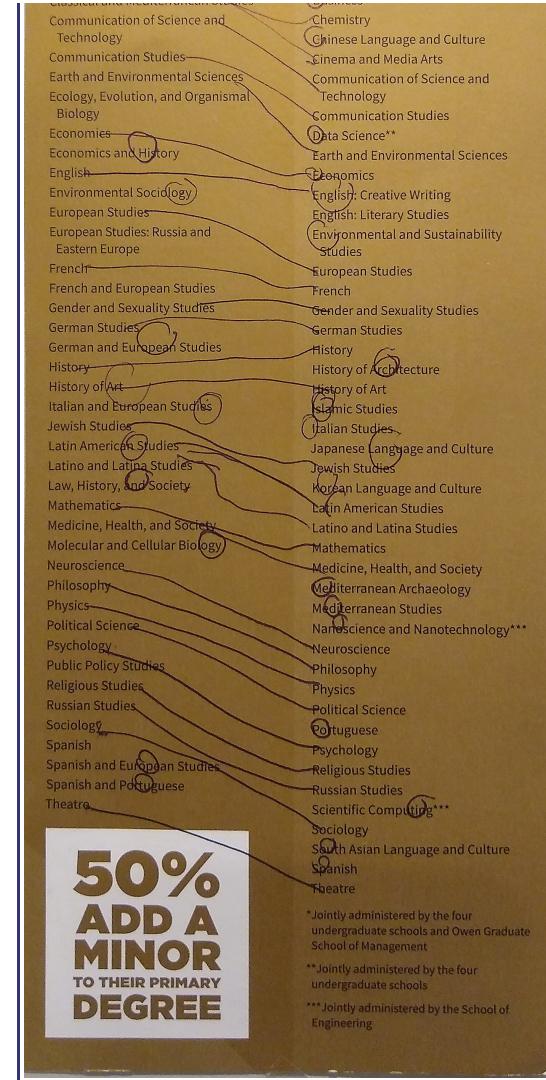
- Syntax - query UNION query
- UNION ALL
 - Produces a relation that retains duplicate rows
 - Can be used to unite more than two queries
- INTERSECT
 - Combines rows from two queries, returning only the rows that appear in both sets
 - Syntax - query INTERSECT query

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If the columns below are in two different tables, the intersection of them would list items in both (eg. History, Physics...):

MAJORS	MINORS
African American and Diaspora Studies	African American and Diaspora Studies
American Studies	American Studies
Anthropology	Anthropology
Architecture and the Built Environment	Architecture and the Built Environment
Art	Art
Asian Studies	Asian Studies
Biochemistry and Chemical Biology	Biology
Biological Sciences	Biological Sciences
Chemistry	Brazilian Studies
Cinema and Media Arts	Business*
Classical and Mediterranean Studies	



UNION, INTERSECTION, DIFFERENCE [cont'd]

Relational Set Operators

- EXCEPT (MINUS)
 - Combines rows from two queries and returns only the rows that appear in the first set
 - Syntax
 - query EXCEPT query
 - query MINUS query
 - Syntax alternatives
 - IN and NOT IN subqueries can be used in place of INTERSECT

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VIEWS

Virtual Tables: Creating a View

- **View:** Virtual table based on a SELECT query
- **Base tables:** Tables on which the view is based
- **CREATE VIEW** statement: Data definition command that stores the subquery specification in the data dictionary
 - CREATE VIEW command
 - CREATE VIEW viewname AS SELECT query

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VIEW example

Creating a Virtual Table with the CREATE VIEW Command

The screenshot shows an SQL Plus window with the title "Creating a Virtual Table with the CREATE VIEW Command". Inside the window, the following SQL commands and their results are displayed:

```
SQL> CREATE VIEW PRICEGT50 AS
  2      SELECT P_DESCRPT, P_QOH, P_PRICE
  3      FROM PRODUCT
  4     WHERE P_PRICE > 50.00;

View created.

SQL> SELECT * FROM PRICEGT50;

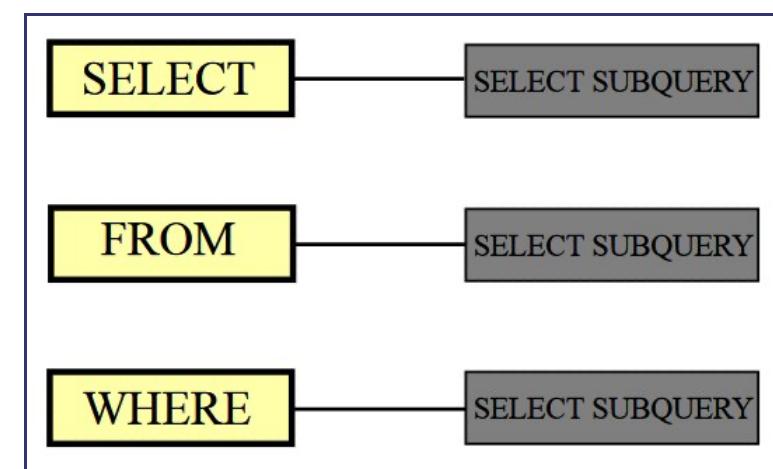
P_DESCRPT          P_QOH    P_PRICE
-----  -----
Power painter, 15 psi.. 3-nozzle      8    109.99
B\&D jigsaw, 12-in. blade            8    109.92
B\&D jigsaw, 8-in. blade             6    99.87
Hicut chain saw, 16 in.           11   256.99
Steel matting, 4'x8'x1/6", .5" mesh 18   119.95
```

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Queries: summary

We looked at several variations of queries and subqueries (SELECT, WHERE, HAVING, IN..).

Most interestingly, a SELECT subquery can appear at the top (SELECT), middle (FROM) or bottom (WHERE) of a parent query, which provides a flexible way to express **complex logic** (since such subqueries can be recursively nested):



SQL functions (built-ins)

Functions **return values...**

SQL Functions

- Functions always use a numerical, date, or string value
- Value may be part of a command or may be an attribute located in a table
- Function may appear anywhere in an SQL statement where a value or an attribute can be used

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SQL functions [cont'd]

SQL Functions

- Date and time functions
- Numeric functions
- String functions
- Conversion functions

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Sequences

Oracle Sequences

- Independent object in the database
- Have a name and can be used anywhere a value expected
- Not tied to a table or column
- Generate a numeric value that can be assigned to any column in any table
- Table attribute with an assigned value can be edited and modified
- Can be created and deleted any time

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Sequence creation example

Figure 8.27 - Oracle Sequence

The screenshot shows an Oracle SQL Plus window. The user has run three commands to create sequences:

```
SQL> CREATE SEQUENCE CUS_CODE_SEQ START WITH 20010 NOCACHE;
Sequence created.

SQL> CREATE SEQUENCE INU_NUMBER_SEQ START WITH 4010 NOCACHE;
Sequence created.

SQL> SELECT * FROM USER_SEQUENCES;
```

Then, the user runs a query to select all rows from the USER_SEQUENCES table:

SEQUENCE_NAME	MIN_VALUE	MAX_VALUE	INCREMENT_BY	CACHE_SIZE	LAST_NUMBER
CUS_CODE_SEQ	1	1.0000E+27	1	N	0
INU_NUMBER_SEQ	1	1.0000E+27	1	N	0

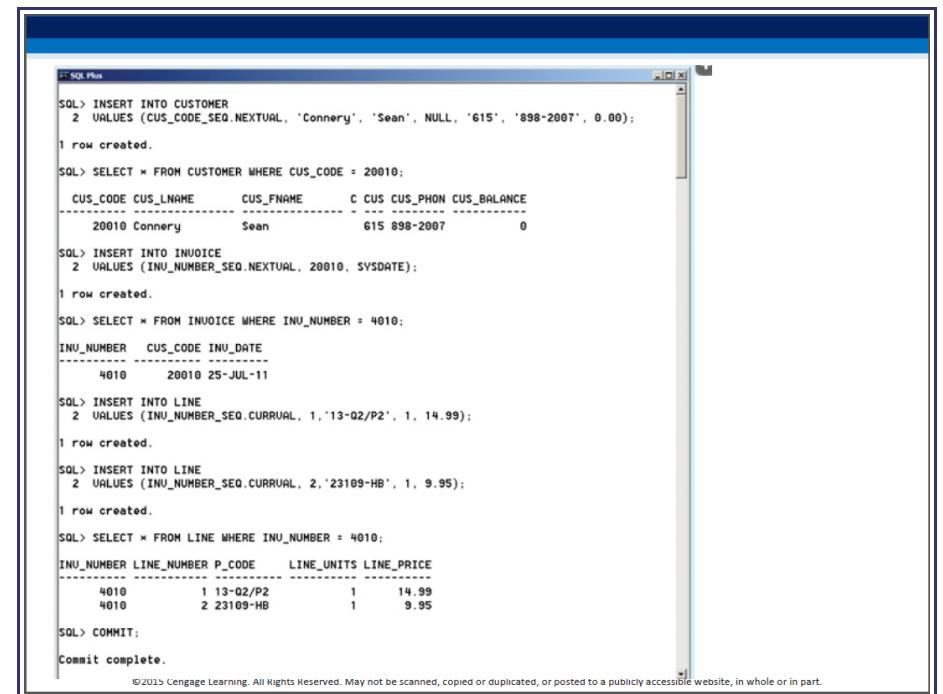
Finally, the user runs an INSERT statement into the CUSTOMER table:

```
INSERT INTO CUSTOMER
VALUES (CUS_CODE_SEQ.NEXTVAL, 'Connery', 'Sean', NULL, '615', '898-2007', 0.00);
```

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Sequence: NEXTVAL, CURRVAL

NEXTVAL returns the current value, **then** does ++ (ie. it does 'post increment', ie. C++ as opposed to ++C); CURRVAL on the other hand, just fetches the current value (does not ++ it).



```

SQL> INSERT INTO CUSTOMER
  2 VALUES (CUS_CODE_SEQ.NEXTVAL, 'Connery', 'Sean', NULL, '615', '898-2007', 0.00);
1 row created.

SQL> SELECT * FROM CUSTOMER WHERE CUS_CODE = 20010;
   CUS_CODE CUS_LNAME      CUS_FNAME      C CUS_CUS_PHON CUS_BALANCE
----- -----
        20010 Connery        Sean          615 898-2007          0

SQL> INSERT INTO INVOICE
  2 VALUES (INU_NUMBER_SEQ.NEXTVAL, 20010, SYSDATE);
1 row created.

SQL> SELECT * FROM INVOICE WHERE INU_NUMBER = 4010;
   INU_NUMBER CUS_CODE INU_DATE
----- -----
        4010     20010 25-JUL-11

SQL> INSERT INTO LINE
  2 VALUES (INU_NUMBER_SEQ.CURRVAL, 1, '13-02/P2', 1, 14.99);
1 row created.

SQL> INSERT INTO LINE
  2 VALUES (INU_NUMBER_SEQ.CURRVAL, 2, '23109-HB', 1, 9.95);
1 row created.

SQL> SELECT * FROM LINE WHERE INU_NUMBER = 4010;
   INU_NUMBER LINE_NUMBER P_CODE      LINE_UNITS LINE_PRICE
----- -----
        4010           1 13-02/P2          1       14.99
        4010           2 23109-HB          1       9.95

SQL> COMMIT;
Commit complete.

```

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Procedural Language SQL (PL/SQL)

PL/SQL involves extra (augmented) syntax that lets us do looping, branching, variable declaration and function declaration - these are of course not possible using 'plain' SQL.

PL/SQL can be used to create:

- **blocks of code** for one-time execution
- **triggers** - callbacks to invoke
- **stored procedures** - named procedures (no return values) for repeated calling
- **stored functions** - named functions (with return values) for repeated calling

Procedural SQL

- Performs a conditional or looping operation by isolating critical code and making all application programs call the shared code
 - Yields better maintenance and logic control
- **Persistent stored module (PSM):** Block of code containing:
 - Standard SQL statements
 - Procedural extensions that is stored and executed at the DBMS server

PL/SQL [cont'd]

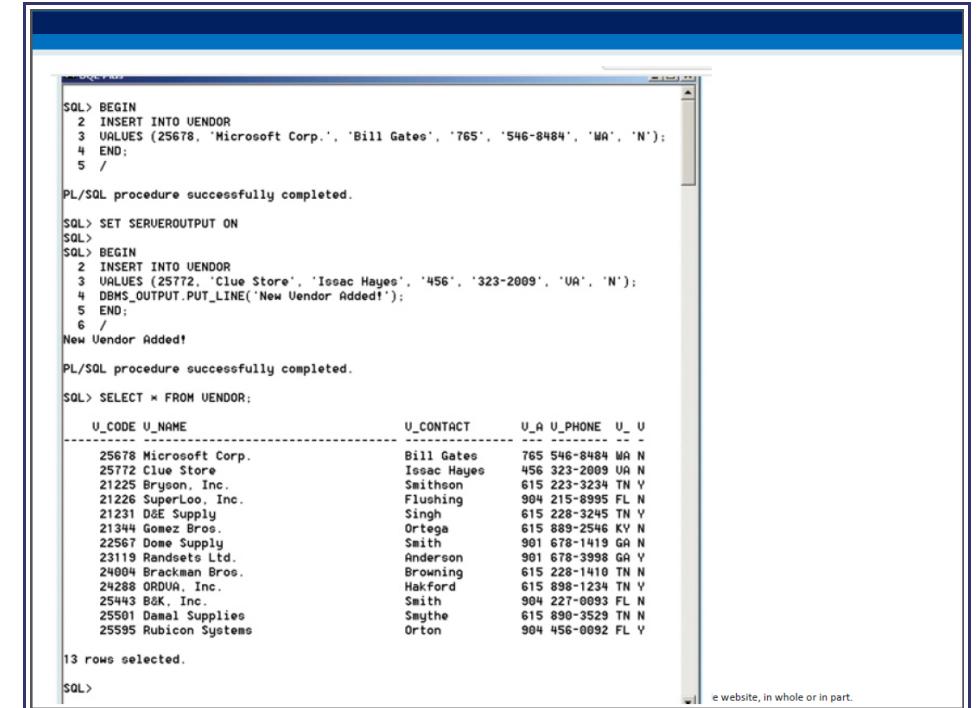
Procedural SQL

- **Procedural Language SQL (PL/SQL)**
 - Use and storage of procedural code and SQL statements within the database
 - Merging of SQL and traditional programming constructs
 - Procedural code is executed as a unit by DBMS when invoked by end user
 - End users can use PL/SQL to create:
 - Anonymous PL/SQL blocks and triggers
 - Stored procedures and PL/SQL functions

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[Unnamed] block creation example



```

SQL> BEGIN
  2  INSERT INTO UENDOR
  3  VALUES (25678, 'Microsoft Corp.', 'Bill Gates', '765', '546-8484', 'WA', 'N');
  4 END;
  5 /

PL/SQL procedure successfully completed.

SQL> SET SERVEROUTPUT ON
SQL>
SQL> BEGIN
  2  INSERT INTO UENDOR
  3  VALUES (25772, 'Clue Store', 'Issac Hayes', '456', '323-2009', 'UA', 'N');
  4 DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('New Vendor Added!');
  5 END;
  6 /

New Vendor Added!

PL/SQL procedure successfully completed.

SQL> SELECT * FROM UENDOR;
      U_CODE U_NAME          U_CONTACT      U_A U_PHONE U_ V
-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
      25678 Microsoft Corp.    Bill Gates    765 546-8484 WA N
      25772 Clue Store        Issac Hayes   456 323-2009 UA N
      21225 Bryson, Inc.      Smithson     615 223-3234 TN Y
      21226 SuperLoo, Inc.    Flushing    904 215-6995 FL N
      21231 D&E Supply       Singh        615 228-3245 TN Y
      21344 Gomez Bros.      Ortega      615 689-2546 KY N
      22567 Done Supply       Smith       901 678-1419 GA N
      23119 Randsets Ltd.    Anderson    615 678-3998 GA Y
      24004 Brackman Bros.   Browning   615 228-1410 TN N
      24288 ORDUK, Inc.       Hakford     615 898-1234 TN Y
      25443 B&K, Inc.         Smith      904 227-0093 FL N
      25501 Damel Supplies    Smythe     615 890-3529 TN N
      25595 Rubicon Systems   Orton      904 456-0092 FL Y

13 rows selected.

SQL>

```

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Triggers

Triggers

- Procedural SQL code automatically invoked by RDBMS when given data manipulation event occurs
- Parts of a trigger definition
 - Triggering timing - Indicates when trigger's PL/SQL code executes
 - Triggering event - Statement that causes the trigger to execute
 - Triggering level - **Statement- and row-level**
 - Triggering action - PL/SQL code enclosed between the BEGIN and END keywords

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Triggers [cont'd]

- *The triggering timing:* BEFORE or AFTER. This timing indicates when the trigger's PL/SQL code executes—in this case, before or after the triggering statement is completed.
- *The triggering event:* The statement that causes the trigger to execute (INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE).
- *The triggering level:* The two types of triggers are statement-level triggers and row-level triggers.
 - A **statement-level trigger** is assumed if you omit the FOR EACH ROW keywords. This type of trigger is executed once, before or after the triggering statement is completed. This is the default case.
 - A **row-level trigger** requires use of the FOR EACH ROW keywords. This type of trigger is executed once for each row affected by the triggering statement. (In other words, if you update 10 rows, the trigger executes 10 times.)
- *The triggering action:* The PL/SQL code enclosed between the BEGIN and END keywords. Each statement inside the PL/SQL code must end with a semicolon (;).

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Trigger example

```
CREATE OR REPLACE TRIGGER trigger_name
[BEFORE / AFTER] [DELETE / INSERT / UPDATE OF column_name] ON table_name
[FOR EACH ROW]
[DECLARE]
[variable_name data type[:=initial_value]]
BEGIN
PL/SQL instructions;
.....
END;
```

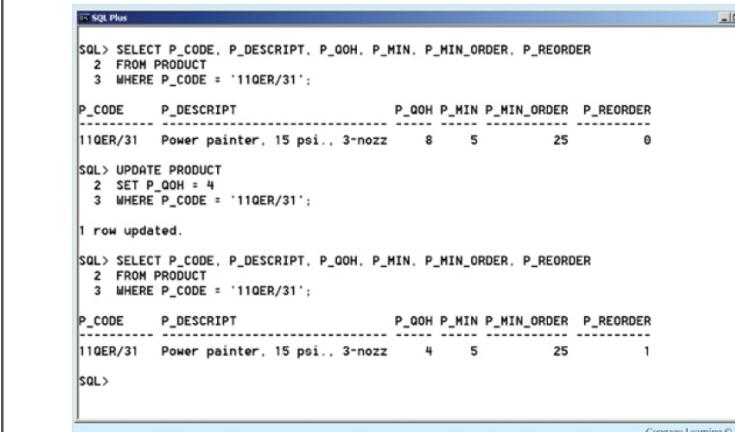
The screenshot shows an Oracle SQL Plus window titled "SQL Plus". Inside the window, the following SQL code is being run:

```
SQL> CREATE OR REPLACE TRIGGER TRG_PRODUCT_REORDER
2  AFTER INSERT OR UPDATE OF P_QOH ON PRODUCT
3  BEGIN
4      UPDATE PRODUCT
5          SET P_reordered = 1
6          WHERE P_QOH <= P_Min;
7  END;
8 /
```

After executing the code, the message "Trigger created." is displayed.

At the bottom right of the window, there is a copyright notice: "©2015 Cengage Learning. All Rights Reserved. May not be scanned, copied or duplicated, or posted to a publicly accessible website, in whole or in part."

Trigger example



The screenshot shows an SQL Plus session. The user runs a select query to view the current values for product code 11QER/31. Then, they run an update statement to set P_QOH to 4 for the same product. Finally, they run another select query to show that the P_REORDER value has been updated from 0 to 1.

```
SQL> SELECT P_CODE, P_DESCRIP, P_QOH, P_MIN, P_MIN_ORDER, P_REORDER
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  WHERE P_CODE = '11QER/31';

P_CODE          P_DESCRIP          P_QOH P_MIN P_MIN_ORDER P_REORDER
11QER/31      Power painter, 15 psi.. 3-nozz     8      5          25      0

SQL> UPDATE PRODUCT
  2  SET P_QOH = 4
  3  WHERE P_CODE = '11QER/31';

1 row updated.

SQL> SELECT P_CODE, P_DESCRIP, P_QOH, P_MIN, P_MIN_ORDER, P_REORDER
  2  FROM PRODUCT
  3  WHERE P_CODE = '11QER/31';

P_CODE          P_DESCRIP          P_QOH P_MIN P_MIN_ORDER P_REORDER
11QER/31      Power painter, 15 psi.. 3-nozz     4      5          25      1

SQL>
```

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Our trigger worked! [look at P_REORDER]

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Triggers [cont'd]

Triggers

- **DROP TRIGGER trigger_name command**
 - Deletes a trigger without deleting the table
- Trigger action based on DML predicates
 - Actions depend on the type of DML statement that fires the trigger

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Stored procedures

Stored Procedures

- Named collection of procedural and SQL statements
- Advantages
 - Reduce network traffic and increase performance
 - Reduce code duplication by means of code isolation and code sharing

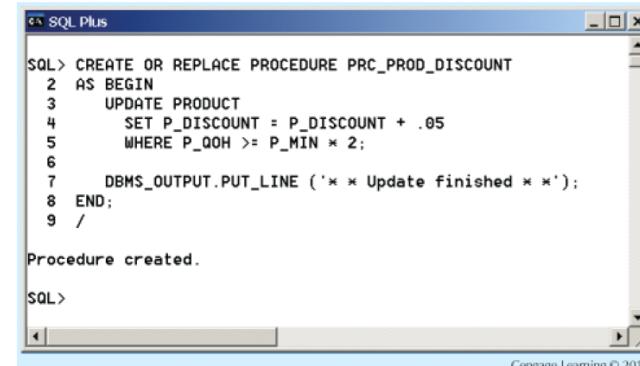
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Stored procedure example

```
CREATE OR REPLACE PROCEDURE procedure_name [[argument [IN/OUT] data-type, ...]]
[IS/AS]
[variable_name data-type[:=initial_value] ]

BEGIN
    PL/SQL or SQL statements;
    ...
END;
```



```
SQL> CREATE OR REPLACE PROCEDURE PRC_PROD_DISCOUNT
2 AS BEGIN
3     UPDATE PRODUCT
4         SET P_DISCOUNT = P_DISCOUNT + .05
5         WHERE P_QOH >= P_MIN * 2;
6
7     DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE ('* * Update finished * *');
8 END;
9 /
```

Procedure created.

SQL>

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Stored procedure example

The screenshot shows two adjacent Oracle SQL Plus windows. Both windows have a blue header bar with the text "SQL*Plus" and a close button.

Left Window:

```

SQL> SELECT P_CODE, P_DESCRIFT, P_QOH, P_MIN, P_DISCOUNT FROM PRODUCT;
P_CODE          P_DESCRIFT          P_QOH P_MIN P_DISCOUNT
11QER-31        Power painter, 15 psi., 3-nozz    29   5   0.00
13-Q2-P2        7.25-in. pur. saw blade      32  15   0.05
14-Q1-L3        9.00-in. pur. saw blade      18  12   0.00
1546-Q2        Hrd. cloth, 1/4-in., 2x59      15   8   0.00
1559-QM1       Hrd. cloth, 1/2-in., 3x59      23   5   0.00
Z222-QTY        BWD jigsaw, 12-in. blade     8   5   0.05
Z222-QME        BWD jigsaw, 8-in. blade      6   7   0.05
Z230-QP9        BWD cordless drill, 1/2-in.  12   5   0.05
Z3109-HB       Claw hammer                   23  10   0.10
Z3114-00        Sledge hammer, 12 lb.         8   10   0.05
Z4104-Q1        Rat-tail file, 1/8-in. fine    43  20   0.05
W9-ME-Q         Hrcd. chisel set, 16 in.      11   5   0.05
PUC20RT        PUC pipe, 3 5-in., 8-ft        188 75   0.00
SM-18277       1.25-in. metal screw, 25       172 75   0.00
SU-23116       2.5-in. wd. screw, 50       237 100  0.00
MR3-T13        Steel matting, 4'x8'x1/6", .5"  18   5   0.10

16 rows selected.
SQL> EXEC PRC_PROD_DISCOUNT;
* * Update finished *
PL/SQL procedure successfully completed.

SQL> SELECT P_CODE, P_DESCRIFT, P_QOH, P_MIN, P_DISCOUNT FROM PRODUCT;
P_CODE          P_DESCRIFT          P_QOH P_MIN P_DISCOUNT
11QER-31        Power painter, 15 psi., 3-nozz    29   5   0.05
13-Q2-P2        7.25-in. pur. saw blade      32  15   0.10
14-Q1-L3        9.00-in. pur. saw blade      18  12   0.00
1546-Q2        Hrd. cloth, 1/4-in., 2x59      15   8   0.00
1559-QM1       Hrd. cloth, 1/2-in., 3x59      23   5   0.05
Z222-QTY        BWD jigsaw, 12-in. blade     8   5   0.05
Z222-QME        BWD jigsaw, 8-in. blade      6   7   0.05
Z230-QP9        BWD cordless drill, 1/2-in.  12   5   0.05
Z3109-HB       Claw hammer                   23  10   0.15
Z3114-00        Sledge hammer, 12 lb.         8   10   0.05
54778-2T        Rat-tail file, 1/8-in. fine    43  20   0.05
W9-ME-Q         Hrcd. chisel set, 16 in.      11   5   0.10
PUC20RT        PUC pipe, 3 5-in., 8-ft        188 75   0.05
SM-18277       1.25-in. metal screw, 25       172 75   0.05
SU-23116       2.5-in. wd. screw, 50       237 100  0.05
MR3-T13        Steel matting, 4'x8'x1/6", .5"  18   5   0.15

16 rows selected.
SQL>
```

Right Window:

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Stored functions

Reminder - these can RETURN a value.

PL/SQL Stored Functions

- **Stored function:** Named group of procedural and SQL statements that returns a value
 - As indicated by a RETURN statement in its program code
 - Can be invoked only from within stored procedures or triggers

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Stored functions - syntax

```
CREATE FUNCTION function_name (argument IN data-type, ...) RETURN data-type [IS]
BEGIN
    PL/SQL statements;
    ...
    RETURN (value or expression);
END;
```

Once such a function is defined, it can be CALLED inside triggers or in stored procedures..

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Stored functions - example

The following is an example from
<http://www.tutorialspoint.com/plsql>.

Creating/defining a function:

```
FUNCTION findMax(x IN number, y IN number)
RETURNS number
IS
    z number;
BEGIN
    IF x > y THEN
        z := x;
    ELSE
        z := y;
    END IF;

    RETURN z;
END;
```

Calling/executing/running the function:

```
DECLARE
    a number;
    b number;
    c number;
BEGIN
    a:= 23;
    b:= 45;

    c := findMax(a, b);
    dbms_output.put_line(' Maximum of (2
3,45): ' || c);
END;
/
```

Result:

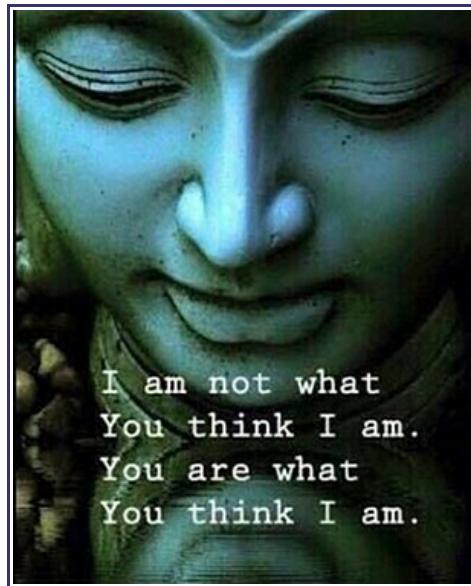
```
Maximum of (23,45): 45
```

1/30 1:11:40 ***

← →

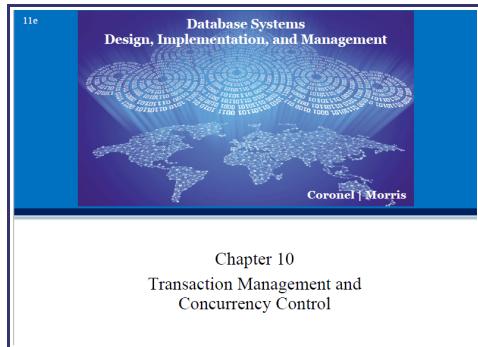
TM

[Transaction Management]



A different kind of TM :)

Ch.10



What is a 'transaction'?

Transaction

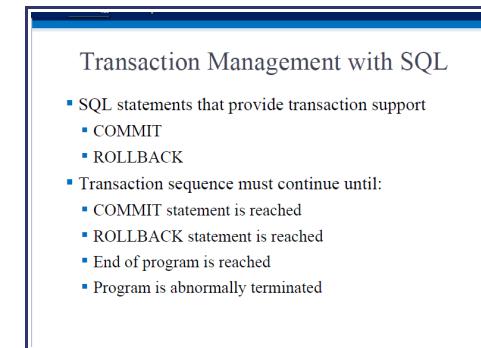
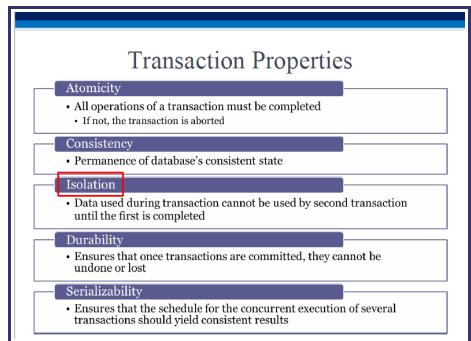
- Logical unit of work that must be entirely completed or aborted
- Consists of:
 - SELECT statement
 - Series of related UPDATE statements
 - Series of INSERT statements
 - Combination of SELECT, UPDATE, and INSERT statements

Transaction

- **Consistent database state:** All data integrity constraints are satisfied
- Must begin with the database in a known consistent state to ensure consistency
- Formed by two or more database requests
 - **Database requests:** Equivalent of a single SQL statement in an application program or transaction
- Consists of a single SQL statement or a collection of related SQL statements

'ACID'

'ACID' (+S) is an acronym to express the desirable properties of a transaction:



Tracking updates

Transaction Log

- Keeps track of all transactions that update the database
- DBMS uses the information stored in a log for:
 - Recovery requirement triggered by a ROLLBACK statement
 - A program's abnormal termination
 - A system failure

A Transaction Log									
TRL_ID	TRX_NUM	PREV_PTR	NEXT_PTR	OPERATION	TABLE	ROW_ID	ATTRIBUTE	BEFORE_VALUE	AFTER_VALUE
341	101	Null	352	START	*****Start Transaction				
352	101	341	363	UPDATE	PRODUCT	1358-QW1	PROD_QOH	25	23
363	101	352	365	UPDATE	CUSTOMER	10011	CUST_BALANCE	\$25.75	\$15.73
365	101	363	Null	COMMIT	*****End of transaction				

TRL_ID = Transaction log record ID
 TRX_NUM = Transaction number
 PTR = Pointer to a transaction log record ID
 (Note: The transaction number is automatically assigned by the DBMS.)
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Concurrency - 'many at once'

Concurrency Control

- Coordination of the simultaneous transactions execution in a multiuser database system
- Objective - Ensures serializability of transactions in a multiuser database environment

Problems in Concurrency Control

Lost update

- Occurs in two concurrent transactions when:
 - Same data element is updated
 - One of the updates is lost

Uncommitted data

- Occurs when:
 - Two transactions are executed concurrently
 - First transaction is rolled back after the second transaction has already accessed uncommitted data

Inconsistent retrievals

- Occurs when a transaction accessed data before and after one or more other transactions finish working with such data

Error #1: lost updates

Consider the following pair of transactions, starting with 35 units of an item:
purchase 100 units, then sell 30 units:

TRANSACTION	CALCULATION
T1: Purchase 100 units	PROD_QOH = PROD_QOH + 100
T2: Sell 30 units	PROD_QOH = PROD_QOH - 30

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TIME	TRANSACTION	STEP	STORED VALUE
1	T1	Read PROD_QOH	35
2	T2	Read PROD_QOH	35
3	T1	PROD_QOH = 35 + 100	
4	T2	PROD_QOH = 35 - 30	
5	T1	Write PROD_QOH (lost update)	135
6	T2	Write PROD_QOH	5

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If the transactions T1 and T2 happen one after another (not concurrently), the PROD_QOH value would/should be 105, as shown above.

Three different kinds of errors are possible, when interleaved transactions are not handled properly.

'Lost update' problem:

TIME	TRANSACTION	STEP	STORED VALUE
1	T1	Read PROD_QOH	35
2	T2	Read PROD_QOH	35
3	T1	PROD_QOH = 35 + 100	
4	T2	PROD_QOH = 35 - 30	
5	T1	Write PROD_QOH (lost update)	135
6	T2	Write PROD_QOH	5

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Here, instead of 105, our QOH comes out to be 5, which is incorrect.

Consider this rollback situation:

TRANSACTION	COMPUTATION
T1: Purchase 100 units	PROD_QOH = PROD_QOH + 100 (Rolled back)
T2: Sell 30 units	PROD_QOH = PROD_QOH - 30

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Proper rollback (with sequential transactions):

TIME	TRANSACTION	STEP	STORED VALUE
1	T1	Read PROD_QOH	35
2	T1	PROD_QOH = 35 + 100	
3	T1	Write PROD_QOH	135
4	T1	*****ROLLBACK*****	35
5	T2	Read PROD_QOH	35
6	T2	PROD_QOH = 35 - 30	
7	T2	Write PROD_QOH	5

Here the total is 5, which is correct - the QOH goes from 35 to 135, gets rolled back to 35, after which the purchase (of 30 units) happens.

Error #2: reading uncommitted data

'Uncommitted data' problem (improper rollback):

TIME	TRANSACTION	STEP	STORED VALUE
1	T1	Read PROD_QOH	35
2	T1	PROD_QOH = 35 + 100	
3	T1	Write PROD_QOH	135
4	T2	Read PROD_QOH	135
		(Read uncommitted data)	
5	T2	PROD_QOH = 135 - 30	
6	T1	***** ROLLBACK *****	35
7	T2	Write PROD_QOH	105

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Here, the total comes out to 105, when it should have been 5.

Consider the following fix (of a typo made earlier - an incorrect order of 10 units was placed for 1558-QW1 by mistake, instead of ordering 1546-QQ2; now we're fixing that error):

TRANSACTION T1	TRANSACTION T2
SELECT SUM(PROD_QOH) FROM PRODUCT	UPDATE PRODUCT SET PROD_QOH = PROD_QOH + 10 WHERE PROD_CODE = 1546-QQ2
	UPDATE PRODUCT SET PROD_QOH = PROD_QOH - 10 WHERE PROD_CODE = 1558-QW1
	COMMIT;

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In the above, T1 is a transaction that sums up QOH; T2 is the 'correction' transaction (that fixes the incorrect purchasing).

Error #3: improper [premature] retrieval

Proper retrieval of modified data:

PROD_CODE	BEFORE PROD_QOH		AFTER PROD_QOH	
	PROD_CODE	PROD_QOH	PROD_CODE	PROD_QOH
11QER/P1	8			8
13-Q2/P2	32			32
1546-QQ2	15			(15 + 10) → 25
1558-QW1	23			(23 - 10) → 13
2232-QTY	8			8
2232-QWE	6			6
Total	92			92

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The summing transaction gets proper totals for both affected products, so the total (of 92) is correct.

'Inconsistent retrievals' problem (improper ("before update") retrieval of modified data):

TIME	TRANSACTION	ACTION	VALUE	TOTAL
1	T1	Read PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '11QER/31'	8	8
2	T1	Read PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '13-Q2/P2'	32	40
3	T2	Read PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '1546-QQ2'	15	
4	T2	PROD_QOH = 15 - 10		
5	T2	Write PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '1546-QQ2'	25	
6	T1	Read PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '1546-QQ2'	25	(After) 65
7	T1	Read PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '1558-QW1'	23	(Before) 88
8	T2	Read PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '1558-QW1'	23	
9	T2	PROD_QOH = 23 - 10		
10	T2	Write PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '1558-QW1'	13	
11	T2	***** COMMIT *****		
12	T1	Read PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '2232-QTY'	8	96
13	T1	Read PROD_QOH for PROD_CODE = '2232-QWE'	6	102

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T1 should be doing $65+13$ (which would be correct), but instead does $65+23$ (which makes it incorrect) - in other words, T1 retrieves the correct value (25) for 1546-QQ2, but gets the incorrect value (23) for 1558-QW1.

Inconsistent retrieval is also called a 'dirty read'.

Look up: non-repeatable reads, phantom row reads.

Concurrent, serializable schedule

The Scheduler

- Establishes the order in which the operations are executed within concurrent transactions
 - Interleaves the execution of database operations to ensure serializability and isolation of transactions
- Based on concurrent control algorithms to determine the appropriate order
- Creates serialization schedule
 - Serializable schedule:** Interleaved execution of transactions yields the same results as the serial execution of the transactions

Concurrency Control with Locking Methods

- Locking methods - Facilitate isolation of data items used in concurrently executing transactions
- Lock:** Guarantees exclusive use of a data item to a current transaction
- Pessimistic locking:** Use of locks based on the assumption that conflict between transactions is likely
- Lock manager:** Responsible for assigning and policing the locks used by the transactions

A serializable schedule makes concurrency immaterial (non-issue).

TRL pessimistic 'lock' situations: restrooms, RCS, Robert's Rules Of Order..

Locking: granularity

Lock Granularity

- Indicates the level of lock use
- Levels of locking
 - Database-level lock
 - Table-level lock
 - Page-level lock
 - Row-level lock
 - Field-level lock

Figure 10.3 - Database-Level Locking Sequence

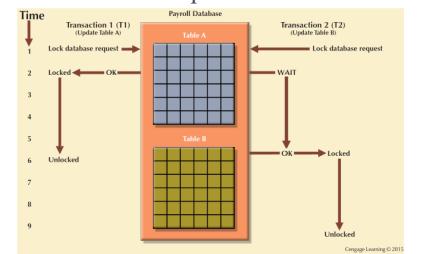


Figure 10.4 - An Example of a Table-Level Lock

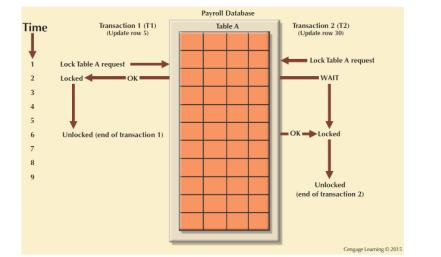


Figure 10.5 - An Example of a Page-Level Lock

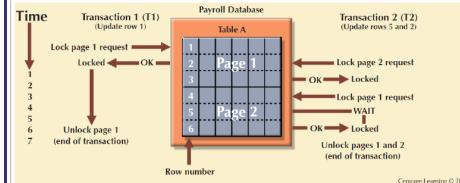
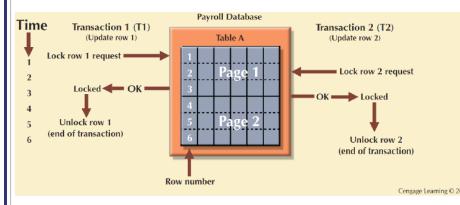


Figure 10.6 - An Example of a Row-Level Lock



Locking: types [unlocked, locked_read, locked_write]

Lock Types

- Binary lock**
 - Has two states, locked (1) and unlocked (0)
 - If an object is locked by a transaction, no other transaction can use that object
 - If an object is unlocked, any transaction can lock the object for its use
- Exclusive lock**
 - Exists when access is reserved for the transaction that locked the object
- Shared lock**
 - Exists when concurrent transactions are granted read access on the basis of a common lock

Three lock states

- Using the shared/exclusive concept, there are THREE lock states: unlocked, shared (read), exclusive (write)

Read(shared), write(exclusive) lock

Shared lock

- Issued when a transaction wants to READ data, and no exclusive lock is held (on a data item)

Exclusive lock

- Issued when a transaction wants to WRITE data, and no lock is held (on a data item)

'2PL'

Two-Phase Locking (2PL)

- Defines how transactions acquire and relinquish locks
- Guarantees serializability but does not prevent deadlocks
- Phases
 - Growing phase - Transaction acquires all required locks without unlocking any data
 - Shrinking phase - Transaction releases all locks and cannot obtain any new lock

The 2PL type that we are discussing, where a transaction acquires all the locks it needs before processing starts, is called 'Conservative' 2PL (or 'Static' 2PL).

2PL [cont'd]

Two-Phase Locking (2PL)

- Governing rules
 - Two transactions cannot have conflicting locks
 - No unlock operation can precede a lock operation in the same transaction
 - No data are affected until all locks are obtained

Once all the locks are acquired, a transaction can proceed 'smoothly', ie won't 'hang' or lead to dirty reads etc.

As for the middle point above (unlocking can't precede locking), here is a loose analogy:

OK:

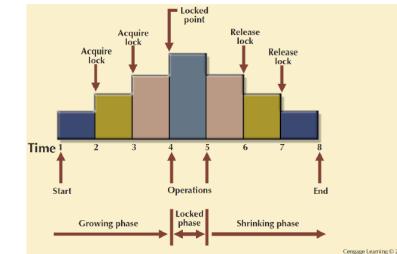
```
{
  {
    {
      {
        ...
      }
    }
  }
}
```

Not OK (OK in programming, though!):

```
{
  {
  }
  {
    {
      {
        ...
      }
    }
  }
}
```

2PL [cont'd]

Figure 10.7 - Two-Phase Locking Protocol



Deadlocks..

Deadlocks

- Occurs when two transactions wait indefinitely for each other to unlock data
- Known as **deadly embrace**
- Control techniques
 - Deadlock prevention
 - Deadlock detection
 - Deadlock avoidance
- Choice of deadlock control method depends on database environment

- **Deadlock prevention.** A transaction requesting a new lock is aborted when there is the possibility that a deadlock can occur. If the transaction is aborted, all changes made by this transaction are rolled back and all locks obtained by the transaction are released. The transaction is then rescheduled for execution. Deadlock prevention works because it avoids the conditions that lead to deadlocking.
- **Deadlock detection.** The DBMS periodically tests the database for deadlocks. If a deadlock is found, the "victim" transaction is aborted (rolled back and restarted) and the other transaction continues.
- **Deadlock avoidance.** The transaction must obtain all of the locks it needs before it can be executed. This technique avoids the rolling back of conflicting transactions by requiring that locks be obtained in succession. However, the serial lock assignment required in deadlock avoidance increases action response times.

Timestamping-based schemes prevent deadlocks; 2PL avoids deadlocks; detection is used in both.

How/why a deadlock occurs

Table 10.13 - How a Deadlock Condition is Created

TIME	TRANSACTION	REPLY	LOCK STATUS	Data X	Data Y
0				Unlocked	
1	T1:LOCK(X)	OK	Locked		Unlocked
2	T2:LOCK(Y)	OK	Locked		Unlocked
3	T1:LOCK(Y)	WAIT	Locked		Locked
4	T2:LOCK(X)	WAIT	Locked		Locked
5	T1:LOCK(Y)	WAIT	Locked		Locked
6	T2:LOCK(X)	WAIT	Locked		Locked
7	T1:LOCK(Y)	WAIT	Locked		Locked
8	T2:LOCK(X)	WAIT	Locked		Locked
9	T1:LOCK(Y)	WAIT	Locked		Locked
...
...
...

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In the above, we see that T1 locks X, T2 locks Y, then deadlock occurs because T1 wants Y and T2 wants X. Maybe you are thinking - why can't each of them release what they are holding (since they might be done with it), and grab what they want next (ie. T1 would release X, T2 would release Y)? BECAUSE THEY CAN'T - they NEED to access what the other has, BEFORE they can release what they have. Eg. T1 might need to read Y that is locked by T2, in order to update its X; T2 might need T1's X to use in an expression to compare with its Y. **They need access to each other's resources, **before** they can release their own! That is what causes deadlocking.**

Note that more than two transactions can become deadlocked as well, on account of 'circular' (cyclical) waiting.

Here's a humorous take on deadlocking that can occur in human interactions.

Deadlock occurrence in 2PL

Earlier we noted that the 2PL scheme cannot prevent deadlock creation. Here is an example of how a deadlock could occur (at the end of step 5):

An important and unfortunate property of 2PL schedulers is that they are subject to *deadlocks*. For example, suppose a 2PL scheduler is processing transactions T_1 and T_2 :

$$T_1; r_1[x] \rightarrow w_1[y] \rightarrow e_1 \quad T_2; w_2[y] \rightarrow w_2[x] \rightarrow e_2$$

and consider the following sequence of events:

1. Initially, neither transaction holds any locks.
2. The scheduler receives $r_1[x]$ from the TM. It sets $rl_1[x]$ and submits $r_1[x]$ to the DM.
3. The scheduler receives $w_2[y]$ from the TM. It sets $wl_2[y]$ and submits $w_2[y]$ to the DM.
4. The scheduler receives $w_1[x]$ from the TM. The scheduler does not set $wl_1[x]$ because it conflicts with $rl_1[x]$ which is already set. Thus $w_1[x]$ is delayed.
5. The scheduler receives $w_1[y]$ from the TM. As in (4), $w_1[y]$ must be delayed.

Time Stamping

- Assigns global, unique time stamp to each transaction
 - Produces explicit order in which transactions are submitted to DBMS
- Properties
 - **Uniqueness:** Ensures no equal time stamp values exist
 - **Monotonicity:** Ensures time stamp values always increases

Here is one way to get monotonically increasing GUIDs..

Deadlock prevention

Time Stamping

- Disadvantages
 - Each value stored in the database requires two additional stamp fields
 - Increases memory needs
 - Increases the database's processing overhead
 - Demands a lot of system resources

Wait/Die and Wound/Wait Concurrency Control Schemes

Two different schemes (Wait or Die, Wound or Wait) for requesting access.

TRANSACTION REQUESTING LOCK T1(11548789) older	TRANSACTION OWNING LOCK T2(10952545) younger	WAIT DIE SCHEME older	WOUND WAIT SCHEME younger
T2(19562545) younger	T1(11548789) older	T1 waits until T2 is completed and T2 releases its locks. 	T2 waits until T1 is completed and T1 releases its locks.  <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ T1 rolls back. ▪ T2 is rescheduled using the same timestamp.

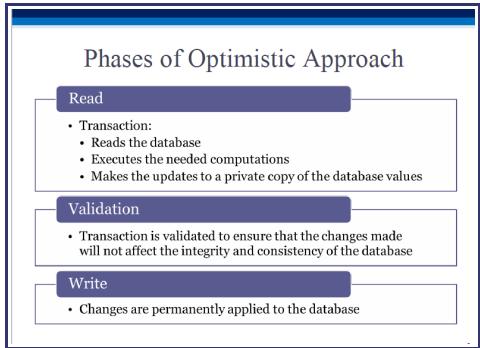
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- Top row: older transaction requests a lock
- Bottom row: newer transaction is requesting

Note that wound-wait is a preemptive deadlock prevention scheme, whereas wait-die is a non-preemptive one..

PS: Deadlock detection is periodically carried out by detecting cycles in waiting transactions.

Deadlock 'indifference' ['fix-it-later']



1/30 1:06:12 ***

← →

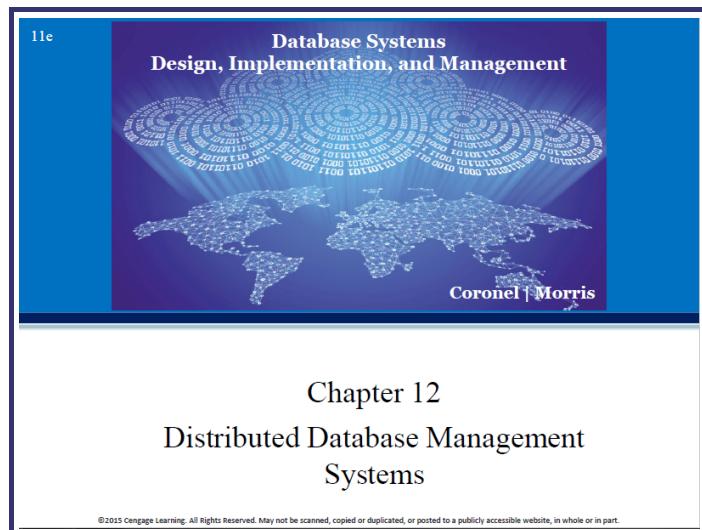
Distributed DBs

what is distributed?

how are transactions managed?

what is the architecture?

Ch.12

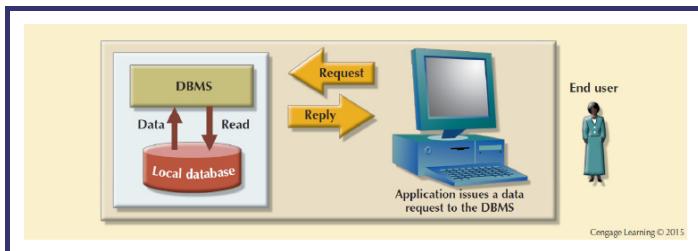


Chapter 12

Distributed Database Management Systems

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'Centralized' DBs - no longer popular/useful



Factors Affecting the Centralized Database Systems

- Globalization of business operation
- Advancement of web-based services
- Rapid growth of social and network technologies
- Digitization resulting in multiple types of data
- Innovative business intelligence through analysis of data

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Two factors in particular, necessitated change:

- rapid, ad-hoc access to data was needed ['Internet speed' decision-making]
- distributed data access was needed, to serve dispersed business units [globalization]

So now we have **DDBMSs** - **distributed DBMSs**.

Desirability of Distributed DBMS Over Centralized DBMS

Performance degradation

High costs

Reliability problems

Scalability
problems

Organizational
rigidity

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Distributed DBs - almost ALL (web-based)!

Evolution Database Management Systems

- **Distributed database management system**
(DDBMS): Governs storage and processing of logically related data over interconnected computer systems
 - Data and processing functions are distributed among several sites
- Centralized database management system
 - Required that corporate data be stored in a single central site
 - Data access provided through dumb terminals

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Factors That Aided DDBMS to Cope With Technological Advancement

- Acceptance of Internet as a platform for business
- Mobile wireless revolution
- Usage of application as a service
- Focus on mobile business intelligence

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Advantages and Disadvantages of DDBMS

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Data are located near greatest demand site• Faster data access and processing• Growth facilitation• Improved communications• Reduced operating costs• User-friendly interface• Less danger of a single-point failure• Processor independence	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Complexity of management and control• Technological difficulty• Security• Lack of standards• Increased storage and infrastructure requirements• Increased training cost• Costs incurred due to the requirement of duplicated infrastructure

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Distributed *processing* vs distributed *databases*

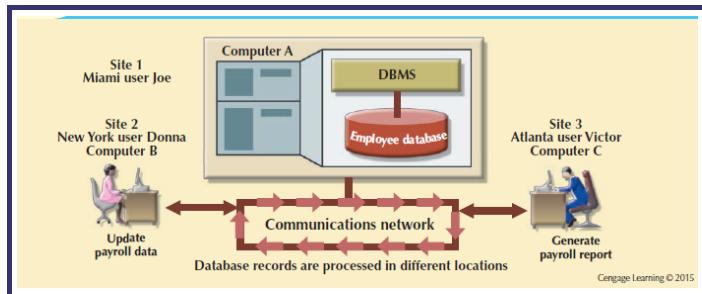
Distributed Processing and Distributed Databases

- **Distributed processing:** Database's logical processing is shared among two or more physically independent sites via network
- **Distributed database:** Stores logically related database over two or more physically independent sites via computer network
- **Database fragments:** Database composed of many parts in distributed database system

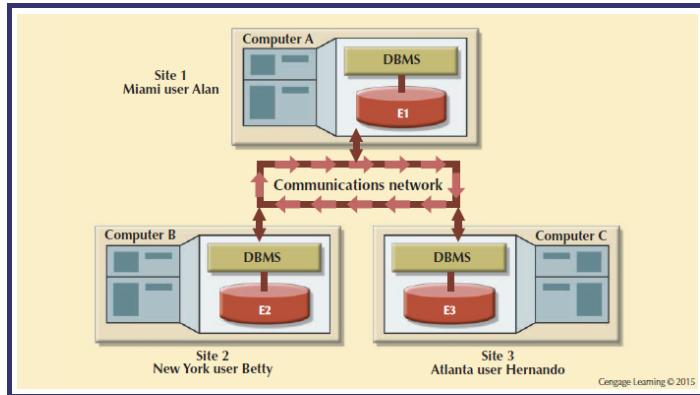
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Distributed *processing*



Distributed *databases*



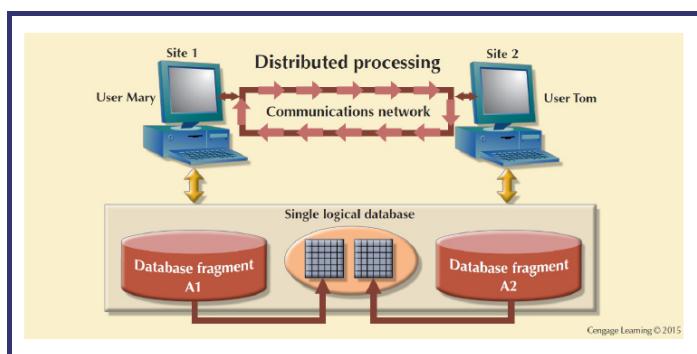
Fully distributed DBMSs: functions

Distributed processing AND data storage -> 'fully' distributed.

Functions of Distributed DBMS

- Receives the request of an application
- Validates analyzes, and decomposes the request
- Maps the request
- Decomposes request into several I/O operations
- Searches and validates data
- Ensures consistency, security, and integrity
- Validates data for specific conditions
- Presents data in required format

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Two fragments, two sites - but each user thinks they have a single (their own) local version (transparent access).

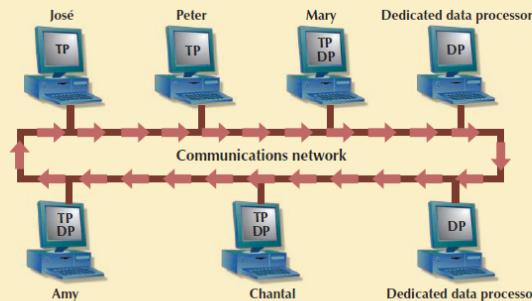
TP(TM) vs DP(DM)

DDBMS Components

- Computer workstations or remote devices
- Network hardware and software components
- Communications media
- **Transaction processor (TP):** Software component of a system that requests data
- Known as **transaction manager (TM)** or **application processor (AP)**
- **Data processor (DP)** or **data manager (DM)**
- **Software** component on a system that stores and retrieves data from its location

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Note: Each TP can access data on any DP, and each DP handles all requests for local data from any TP.

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A set of protocols is used by the DDBMS, to enable the TPs and DPs to communicate with each other.

TP: Transaction Processor - receives data requests (from an application), and requests data (from a DP); also known as AP (Application Processor) or TM (Transaction Manager). A TP is what fulfills data requests on behalf of a transaction.

DP: Data Processor - receives data requests from a TP (in general, multiple TPs can request data from a single DP), retrieves and returns the requested data; also known as DM (Data Manager).

Data and processing distribution: 3 variations

12.6 LEVELS OF DATA AND PROCESS DISTRIBUTION

Current database systems can be classified on the basis of how process distribution and data distribution are supported. For example, a DBMS may store data in a single site (using a centralized DB) or in multiple sites (using a distributed DB), and may support data processing at one or more sites. Table 12.2 uses a simple matrix to classify database systems according to data and process distribution. These types of processes are discussed in the sections that follow.

TABLE 12.2 Database Systems: Levels of Data and Process Distribution

	SINGLE-SITE DATA	MULTIPLE-SITE DATA
Single-site process	Host DBMS	Not applicable (Requires multiple processes)
Multiple-site process	File server Client/server DBMS (LAN DBMS)	Fully distributed Client/server DDBMS

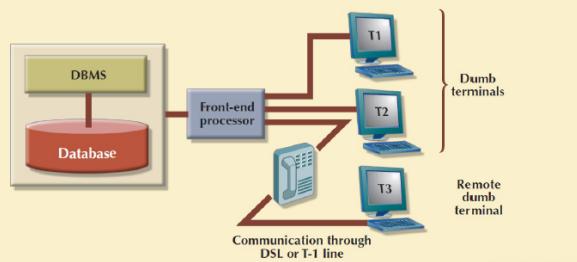
SP/SD

Single-Site Processing, Single-Site Data (SPSD)

- Processing is done on a single host computer
- Data stored on host computer's local disk
- Processing restricted on end user's side
- DBMS is accessed by dumb terminals

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MP/SD [note: no SP/MD!]

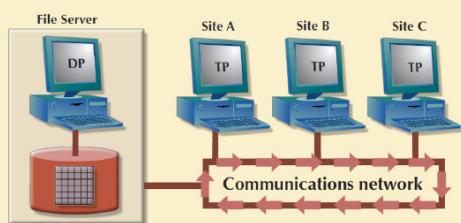
Multiple-Site Processing, Single-Site Data (MPSD)

- Multiple processes run on different computers sharing a single data repository
- Require network file server running conventional applications
 - Accessed through LAN
- **Client/server architecture**
 - Reduces network traffic
 - Processing is distributed
 - Supports data at multiple sites

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Not truly 'distributed' (data I/O is centralized).



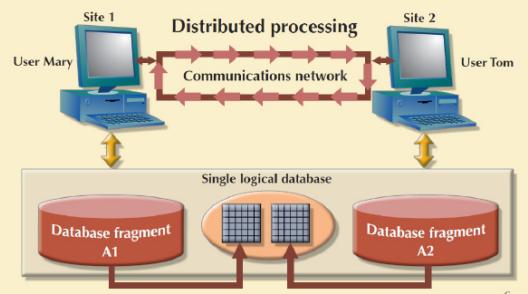
MP/MD ['fully distributed']

- Fully distributed database management system
- Support multiple data processors and transaction processors at multiple sites
- Classification of DDBMS depending on the level of support for various types of databases
 - **Homogeneous:** Integrate multiple instances of same DBMS over a network
 - **Heterogeneous:** Integrate different types of DBMSs
 - **Fully heterogeneous:** Support different DBMSs, each supporting different data model

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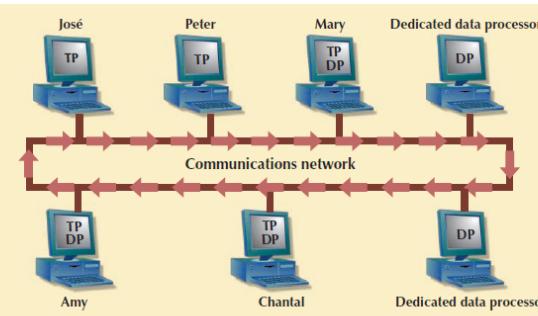
19

"The whole enchilada!".. Comes in three varieties.



The above schematic is same as the one you saw earlier..

In a fully distributed database, the TPs (that request data) are distributed, as are the DPs (that serve data), like so [you saw this in an earlier slide]:



Note: Each TP can access data on any DP, and each DP handles all requests for local data from any TP.

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The DDBMS uses protocols to transport across its network, commands as well as data, from distributed DPs and TPs: it receives data requests from multiple TPs, collects/synchronizes data (needed by multiple TPs) from multiple DPs, and intelligently routes to multiple TPs, the data (collected from multiple DPs) they requested. In other words, since transactions need data, the DDBMS acts as a switch, shuttling and routing data, from multiple DPs, to multiple TPs.

DDBMS restrictions

Restrictions of DDBMS

- Remote access is provided on a read-only basis
- Restrictions on the number of remote tables that may be accessed in a single transaction
- Restrictions on the number of distinct databases that may be accessed
- Restrictions on the database model that may be accessed

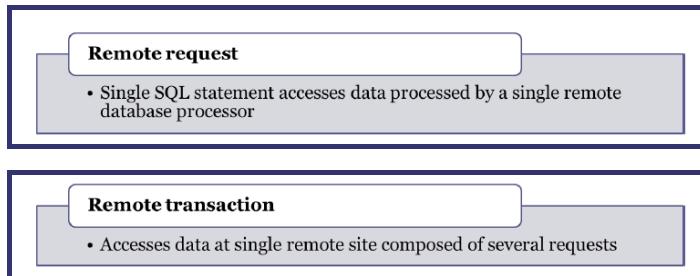
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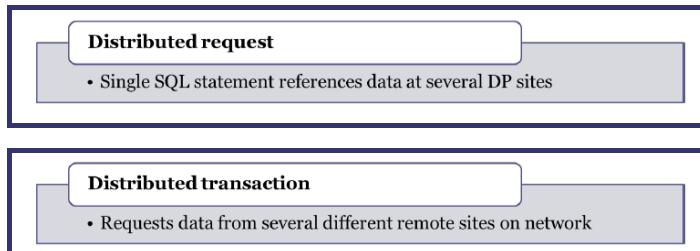
DDBMs span the spectrum from homogenous to fully heterogenous, and tend to come with restrictions.

Local/distributed requests/transactions

Remote/localized requests and transactions:



Distributed (not localized) requests and transactions:



Distributed transactions are what need to be carefully executed so as to maintain distribution transparency - the transactions have to execute 'as if' they all ran on the same machine/location. This is achieved using '2PC' [explained in upcoming slides].

Distributed concurrency control

Distributed Concurrency Control

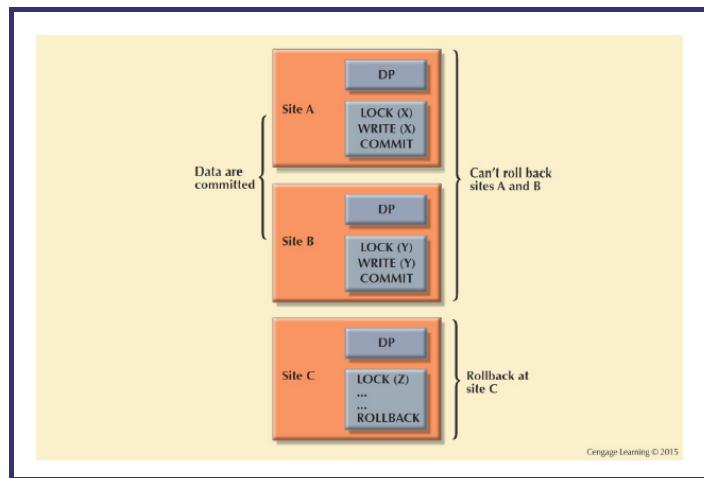
- Concurrency control is important in distributed databases environment
 - Due to multi-site multiple-process operations that create inconsistencies and deadlocked transactions

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TP must ensure that all parts of a transaction (across sites) are completed, before doing a COMMIT.

Problem!



Can't COMMIT the entire transaction, can't ROLLBACK it either!
Solution: 2PC.

Two-phase commit ("2PC") protocol

Two-Phase Commit Protocol (2PC)

- Guarantees if a portion of a transaction operation cannot be committed, all changes made at the other sites will be undone
 - To maintain a consistent database state
- Requires that each DP's transaction log entry be written before database fragment is updated
- **DO-UNDO-REDO protocol:** Roll transactions back and forward with the help of the system's transaction log entries

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Two-Phase Commit Protocol (2PC)

- **Write-ahead protocol:** Forces the log entry to be written to permanent storage before actual operation takes place
- Defines operations between **coordinator** and **subordinates**
- Phases of implementation
 - Preparation
 - The final COMMIT

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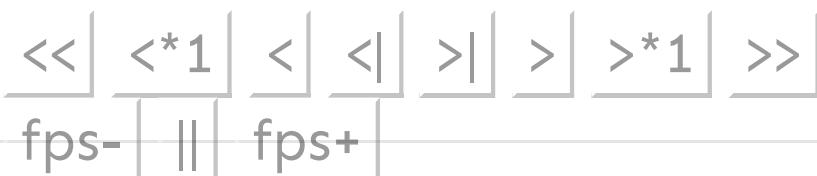
2PC: steps

The following is the sequence of steps (phase 1, phase2) that are used to effect a complete distributed transaction (keep clicking on the >| button):

Click anywhere to show/hide controls:

- * <<, >>: first/last frame
- * <*1, >*1: play once from curr, rev/fwd
- * <, >: play (loop) rev/fwd
- * <|, >|: prev/next frame
- * fps -/+: decr/incr fps
- * ???: HUD toggle
- * ||: halt

Note – fps steps: 0.125,0.25,0.5,1,5,7,10,12,15,18,20,24,28,30

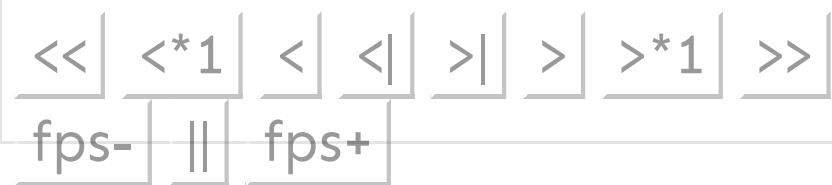


And here's how a transaction is aborted, when one of the participating nodes is unable to commit a sub-transaction:

Click anywhere to show/hide controls:

- * <<, >>: first/last frame
- * <*1, >*1: play once from curr, rev/fwd
- * <, >: play (loop) rev/fwd
- * <|, >|: prev/next frame
- * fps -/+: decr/incr fps
- * ???: HUD toggle
- * ||: halt

Note – fps steps: 0.125,0.25,0.5,1,5,7,10,12,15,18,20,24,28,30



2PC: another description

In the two phase commit protocol, as the name implies, there are two phases:

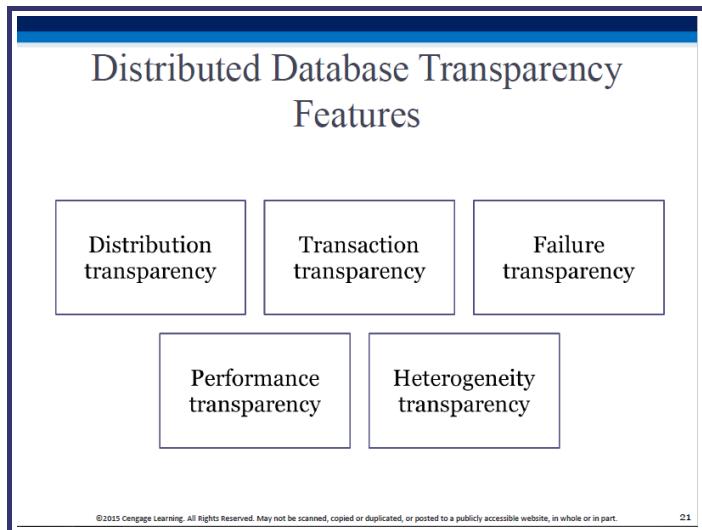
- phase 1: commit request phase, aka 'voting' phase: coordinator sends a 'commit or abort?' (aka 'query to commit' or 'prepare to commit') message to each participating transaction node; each node responds (votes), with a 'can commit' (aka 'ready') or 'need to abort' (aka 'abort') message
- phase 2: commit phase, aka 'completion' phase:
 - if in phase 1, all nodes responded with 'can commit', the coordinator sends a 'commit' phase to each node; each node commits, and sends an acknowledgment to the coordinator
 - or, if in phase 1, any node responded with 'need to abort', the coordinator sends an 'abort' message to each node; each node aborts, and sends an acknowledgment to the coordinator

The devil's in the details - all sorts of variations/refinements exist in implementations, but the above is the overall (simple, robust) idea.

It's an all-or-nothing scheme - either all nodes of a distributed transaction locally commit (in which case the overall transaction is successful), or all of them locally abort so that the DB is not left in an inconsistent state unlike in the 'Problem!' slide (in which case the overall transaction fails and needs to be redone).

FYI, this is yet another description :)

"What distribution? We have NO distribution!"



DDBMSs are designed to HIDE distribution specifics - this feature is called 'transparency', and can be classified into different kinds.

Distribution transparency

Distribution Transparency

- Allows management of physically dispersed database as if centralized
- Levels
 - **Fragmentation transparency**
 - **Location transparency**
 - **Local mapping transparency**

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Fragmentation transparency: end user does not know that the data is fragmented.

Location transparency: end user does not know where fragments are located.

Location mapping transparency: end user does not know how fragments are mapped.

Distrib. transparency is supported via a distributed data dictionary (DDD) [aka DDC], which contains the distributed global schema which local TPs use to translate user requests for processing by DPs.

Transaction transparency

Transaction Transparency

- Ensures database transactions will maintain distributed database's integrity and consistency
- Ensures transaction completed only when all database sites involved complete their part
- Distributed database systems require complex mechanisms to manage transactions

Performance transparency, failure transparency

Performance and Failure Transparency

- **Performance transparency:** Allows a DDBMS to perform as if it were a centralized database
- **Failure transparency:** Ensures the system will operate in case of network failure
- Considerations for resolving requests in a distributed data environment
 - Data distribution
 - Data replication
 - **Replica transparency:** DDBMS's ability to hide multiple copies of data from the user

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Performance and Failure Transparency

- Network and node availability
 - **Network latency:** delay imposed by the amount of time required for a data packet to make a round trip
 - **Network partitioning:** delay imposed when nodes become suddenly unavailable due to a network failure

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We also need to take into account, network delay and network failure ("partitioning") when planning for or evaluating transparency.

Distributed DB design

Distributed Database Design

- Data fragmentation**
 - How to partition database into fragments
- Data replication**
 - Which fragments to replicate
- Data allocation**
 - Where to locate those fragments and replicas

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Partition (divide), replicate (copy)? Where to store the partitions/copies?

Fragmentation (partitioning)

Data Fragmentation

- Breaks single object into many segments
 - Information is stored in distributed data catalog (DDC)
- Strategies
 - **Horizontal fragmentation:** Division of a relation into subsets (fragments) of tuples (rows)
 - **Vertical fragmentation:** Division of a relation into attribute (column) subsets
 - **Mixed fragmentation:** Combination of horizontal and vertical strategies

Replication

Data Replication

- Data copies stored at multiple sites served by a computer network
- **Mutual consistency rule:** Replicated data fragments should be identical
- Styles of replication
 - Push replication
 - Pull replication
- Helps restore lost data

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Data Replication Scenarios

Fully replicated database

- Stores multiple copies of each database fragment at multiple sites

Partially replicated database

- Stores multiple copies of some database fragments at multiple sites

Unreplicated database

- Stores each database fragment at a single site

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You can read more about replication, [here](#).

Storage of fragments/replicas

Data Allocation Strategies

- Centralized data allocation**
 - Entire database stored at one site
- Partitioned data allocation**
 - Database is divided into two or more disjointed fragments and stored at two or more sites
- Replicated data allocation**
 - Copies of one or more database fragments are stored at several sites

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The CAP 'theorem'

The CAP Theorem

- CAP stands for:
 - Consistency
 - Availability
 - Partition tolerance
- **Basically available, soft state, eventually consistent (BASE)**
 - Data changes are not immediate but propagate slowly through the system until all replicas are consistent

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Consistency: always correct data.

Availability: requests are always filled.

Partition ("outage") tolerance: continue to operate even if (some/most) nodes fail.

The CAP theorem 'used to say' that in a networked (distributed) DB system, at most 2 out of 3 of the above are achievable [PC, CA, or PA]. But CA means low P, that means that we can't even operate, which makes CA a moot point! In other words, CA doesn't exist, ie. a low P is not an option! So now we think of it differently: in the event of a network partition (P has occurred), only one of availability or consistency is achievable.

In the 'ACID' (Atomicity, Consistency, Isolation, Durability) world of older relational DBs, the CAP Theorem was a reminder that it is usually difficult to achieve C,A,P all at once, and that consistency is more important than availability.

In today's 'BASE' (Basically Available, Soft_state, Eventually_consistent) model of non-relational (eg. NoSQL) DBs, we prefer to sacrifice consistency in favor of availability.

DBMS TYPE	CONSISTENCY	AVAILABILITY	PARTITION TOLERANCE	TRANSACTION MODEL	TRADE-OFF
Centralized DBMS	High	High	N/A	ACID	No distributed data processing
Relational DDBMS	High	Relaxed	High	ACID	
(2PC)	Sacrifices availability to ensure consistency and isolation				
NoSQL DDBMS	Relaxed	High	High	BASE	Sacrifices consistency to ensure availability

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Date's '12 commandments' for distributed DBMSs

RULE NUMBER	RULE NAME	RULE EXPLANATION
1	<i>Local-site independence</i>	Each local site can act as an independent, autonomous, centralized DBMS. Each site is responsible for security, concurrency control, backup, and recovery.
2	<i>Central-site independence</i>	No site in the network relies on a central site or any other site. All sites have the same capabilities.
3	<i>Failure independence</i>	The system is not affected by node failures. The system is in continuous operation even in the case of a node failure or an expansion of the network.
4	<i>Location transparency</i>	The user does not need to know the location of data to retrieve those data.
5	<i>Fragmentation transparency</i>	Data fragmentation is transparent to the user, who sees only one logical database. The user does not need to know the name of the database fragments to retrieve them.
6	<i>Replication transparency</i>	The user sees only one logical database. The DDBMS transparently selects the database fragment to access. To the user, the DDBMS manages all fragments transparently.
7	<i>Distributed query processing</i>	A distributed query may be executed at several different DP sites. Query optimization is performed transparently by the DDBMS.
8	<i>Distributed transaction processing</i>	A transaction may update data at several different sites, and the transaction is executed transparently.
9	<i>Hardware independence</i>	The system must run on any hardware platform.
10	<i>Operating system independence</i>	The system must run on any operating system platform.
11	<i>Network independence</i>	The system must run on any network platform.
12	<i>Database independence</i>	The system must support any vendor's database product.

Think of these more as checklist items, rather than commandments.

1/30 1:12:17 ***

← →

Database connectivity

Ch.14

11e

Database Systems
Design, Implementation, and Management

Coronel | Morris

Chapter 14

Database Connectivity and Web
Technologies

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Learning Objectives

- In this chapter, students will learn:
 - About various database connectivity technologies
 - How Web-to-database middleware is used to integrate databases with the Internet
 - About Web browser plug-ins and extensions
 - What services are provided by Web application servers
 - What Extensible Markup Language (XML) is and why it is important for Web database development
 - About cloud computing and how it enables the database-as-a-service model

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Database Connectivity

- **Database middleware:** Provides an interface between the application program and the database
- Data repository/source - Data management application (eg. Oracle RDBMS) that is used to store data generated by an application program

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Various connectivity options

- Native SQL (provided by vendors)
- M'soft: ODBC, DAO+JET, RDO
- M'soft: OLE-DB
- M'soft: ADO.NET
- JDBC (from Sun)

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'UDA'

Microsoft's Universal Data Access (UDA): Collection of technologies used to access any type of data source and manage the data through a common interface

ODBC, OLE-DB and ADO.NET form the backbone of the MS UDA architecture

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Native SQL Connectivity

- Connection interface provided by database vendors, which is unique to each vendor
- Interfaces are optimized for particular vendor's DBMS
- Maintenance is a burden for the programmer

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ODBC, DAO+Jet, RDO

- **Open Database Connectivity (ODBC):** Microsoft's implementation of a superset of SQL Access Group **Call Level Interface (CLI)** standard for database access
 - Widely supported database connectivity interface
 - Allows Windows application to access relational data sources by using SQL via standard **application programming interface (API)**
 - Too much of a 'low level' API, so need something more

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JET: 'Joint Engine Technology'.

ODBC, DAO+Jet, RDO

- **Data Access Objects (DAO):** Object-oriented API used to access MS Access, MS FoxPro, and dBase databases from Visual Basic programs
 - Provides an optimized interface that expose functionality of **Jet** data engine to programmers
 - DAO interface can be used to access other relational style data sources as well

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ODBC, DAO+Jet, RDO

- **Remote Data Objects (RDO)**

- Higher-level object-oriented application interface used to access remote database servers

- **Dynamic-link libraries (DLLs)**

- Implements ODBC, DAO, and RDO as shared code that is dynamically linked to the Windows operating environment

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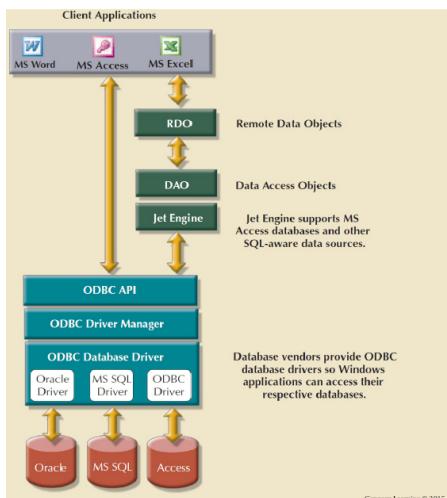
Components of ODBC Architecture

- High-level ODBC API through which application programs access ODBC functionality
- Driver manager that is in charge of managing all database connections
- ODBC driver that communicates directly to DBMS

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Figure 14.2 - Using ODBC, DAO, and RDO to access databases



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Object Linking and Embedding for Database (OLE-DB)

- Database middleware that adds object-oriented functionality for access to data
- Series of COM objects provides low-level database connectivity for applications
- Types of objects based on functionality
 - Consumers (request data)
 - Providers (produce data – from data sources)

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COM was modeled after OMG's CORBA... [Here is more...](#)

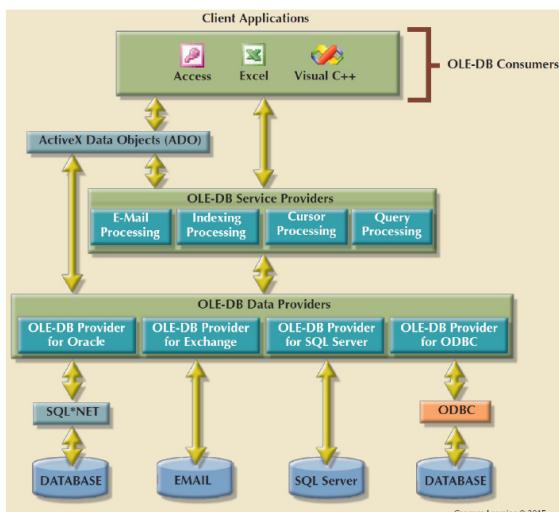
Object Linking and Embedding for Database (OLE-DB)

- Does not provide support for scripting languages
- **ActiveX Data Objects (ADO):** Provides:
 - High-level application-oriented interface to interact with OLE-DB, DAO, and RDO
 - Unified interface to access data from any programming language that uses the underlying OLE-DB objects

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Figure 14.5 - OLE-DB Architecture



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ADO.NET

- Data access component of Microsoft's .NET application development framework (improves on the ADO + OLE-DB functionality)
- **Microsoft's .NET framework**
 - Component-based platform for developing distributed, heterogeneous, interoperable applications
 - Manipulates any type of data using any combination of network, operating system, and programming language

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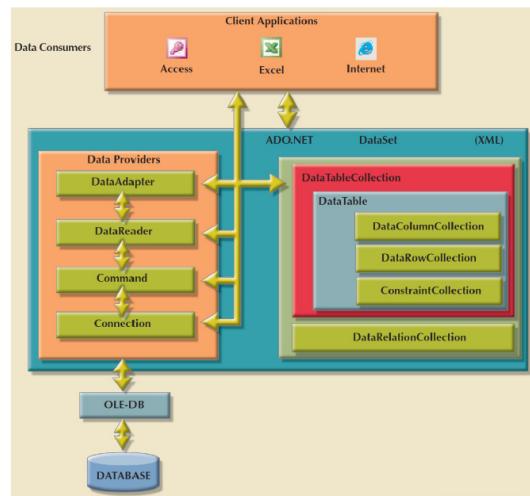
ADO.NET

- Features critical for the development of distributed applications
 - **DataSet**: Disconnected memory-resident representation of database
 - **XML support**
 - DataSet is internally stored in XML format
 - Data in DataSet could be made persistent as XML documents

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Figure 14.6 - ADO.NET Framework



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Java Database Connectivity (JDBC)

- **Java:** Object-oriented programming language that runs on top of web browser software, on smartphones, on the desktop and on servers
- **JDBC:** Application programming interface that allows a Java program to interact with a wide range of data sources – a simple URL is all is needed to connect to a db

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Advantages of JDBC

- Company can leverage existing technology and personnel training
- Allows direct access to database server or access via database middleware
- Allows programmers to use their SQL skills to manipulate the data in the company's databases
- Provides a way to connect to databases through an ODBC driver

JDBC usage example

Here is some sample code that uses the JDBC API:

```
public class HW2 {
    private Connection conn=null;
    private final String connection;
    private final String username;
    private final String password;
    private Statement stmt = null;

    HW2(String username, String password, String connection) {
        this.username = username;
        this.password = password;
        this.connection = connection;
    }

    void getDBConnection() {
        try {
            DriverManager.registerDriver(new oracle.jdbc.OracleDriver());
        } catch (SQLException ex) {
            System.out.println("Please install Oracle Driver.");
            return;
        }
        try {
            conn = DriverManager.getConnection(connection, username, password);
        } catch (SQLException e) {
            System.out.println(e);
            return;
        }
        if (conn != null) {
            System.out.println("Connection Succeeded.");
        } else {
            System.out.println("Connection failed.");
        }
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        HW2 obj = new HW2("<Username>", "<Password>", "jdbc:oracle:thin:@localhost:1522:orcl");
        obj.getDBConnection();
        System.out.println("Test Exit.");
    }
}
```

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After we create a connection, we can create a statement, execute a query, get back a result set and iterate through it:

```
// create a connection via DriverManager.getConnection()
// ...
```

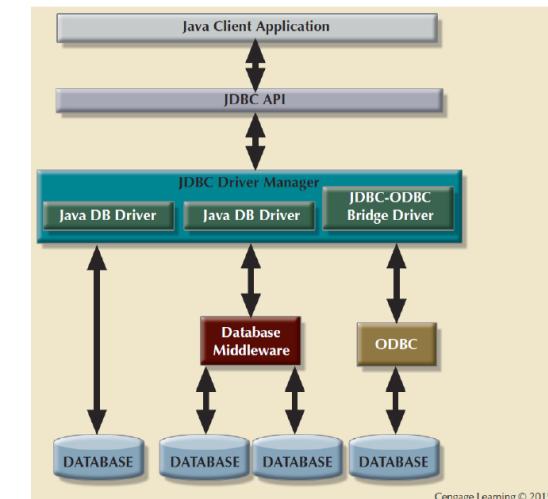
```
Statement myStmt = myConn.createStatement();
```

```
ResultSet myRslt= myStmt.executeQuery("....");
```

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Here is a complete example.

Figure 14.7 - JDBC Architecture



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Database Internet Connectivity

- Allows new innovative services that:
 - Permit rapid response by bringing new services and products to market quickly
 - Increase customer satisfaction through creation of web-based support services
 - Allow anywhere, anytime data access using mobile smart devices via the Internet
 - Yield fast and effective information dissemination through universal access

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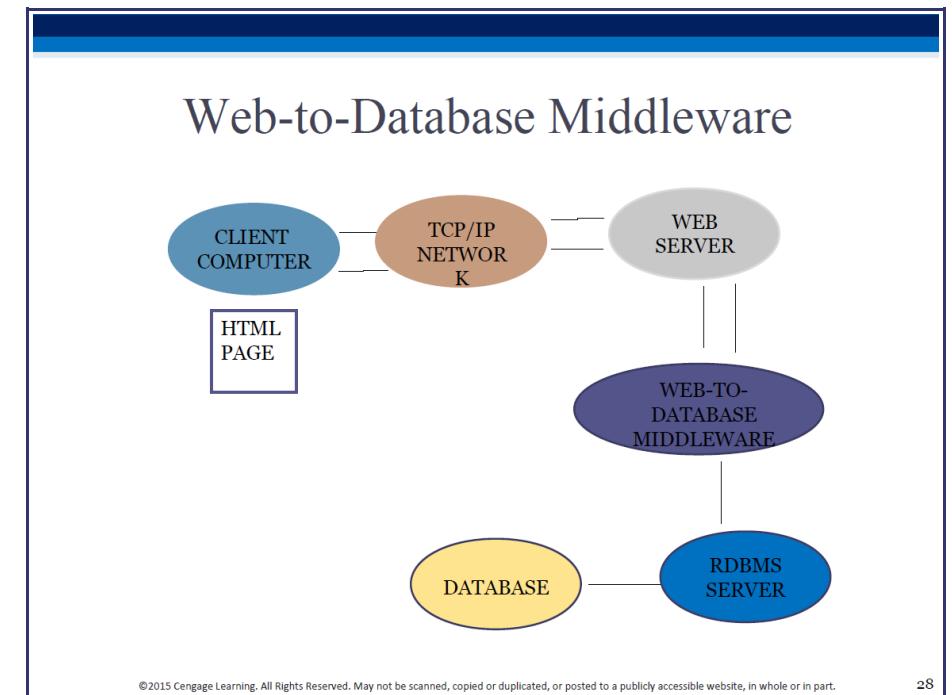
Why? One word: "e-Commerce" :)

Web-to-Database Middleware

- Web server is the main hub through which Internet services are accessed
- **Server-side extension:** Program that interacts directly with the web server
 - Also known as **web-to-database middleware**
 - Provides its services to the web server in a way that is totally transparent to the client browser

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**FIGURE
14.8**

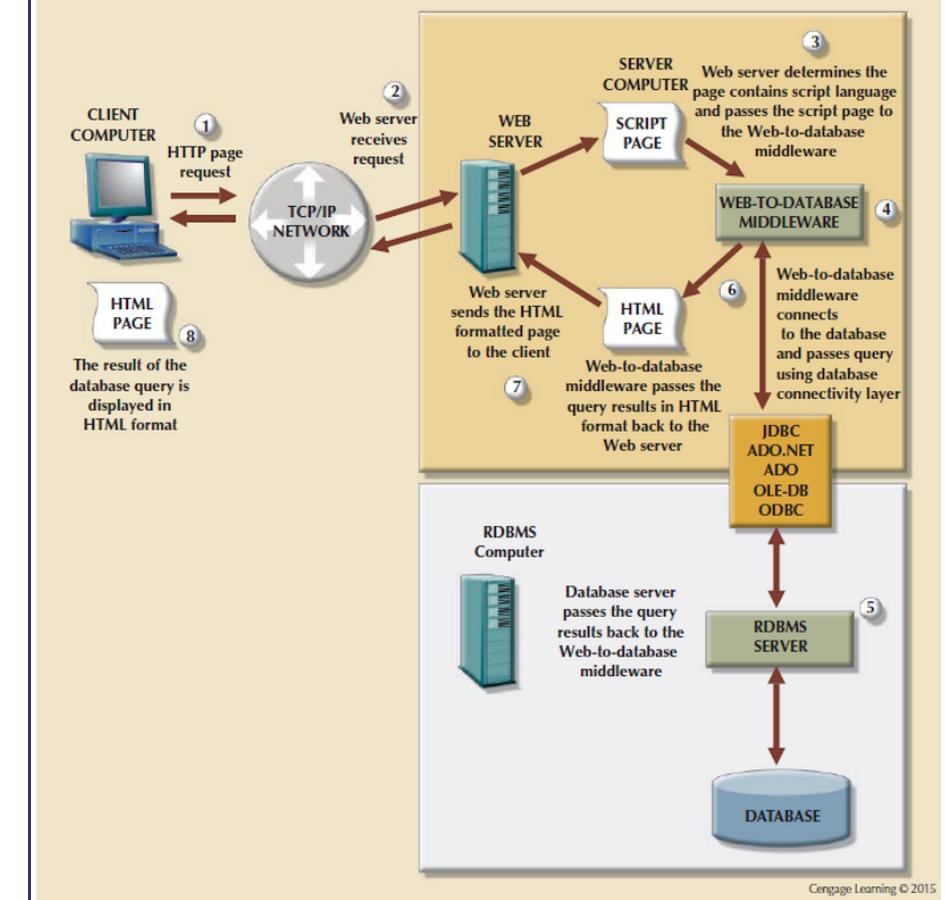
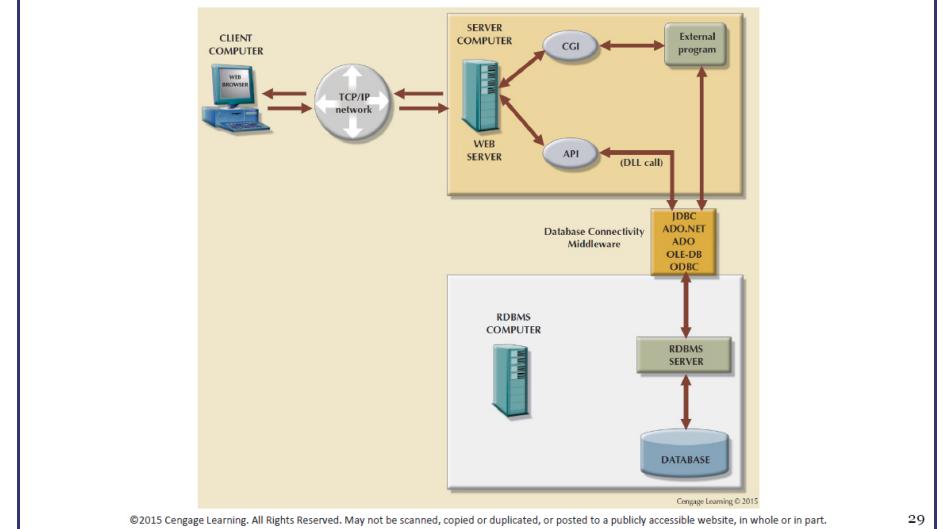


Figure 14.9 - Web Server CGI and API Interfaces



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Here is Perl 'CGI' script to interface w/ a DB.

Here are notes on using CORBA to interface a webserver with a DB.
These can also be used: JSP, ASP.

In addition to CGI scripts and APIs, server side includes (SSIs) can also be used for DB connectivity.

As an FYI note, Java provides very many ways to connect a client to a DB via a webserver: applets, sockets, servlets, RMI, CORBA, agents..

Client-Side Extensions

- Add functionality to Web browser
- Types
 - **Plug-in:** External application automatically invoked by the browser when needed
 - **Java and JavaScript:** Embedded in web page
 - Downloaded with the Web page and activated by an event
 - **ActiveX and VBScript:** Embedded in web page
 - Downloaded with page and activated by event
 - Oriented to Windows applications

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Web Application Servers

- Middleware application that expands the functionality of web servers by linking them to a wide range of services
- Uses
 - Connect to and query database from web page
 - Create dynamic web search pages
 - Enforce referential integrity

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A 'web application server' is a specialized server that interfaces with web services such as databases, search engines. The client (eg browser) can query these data sources and have results generated dynamically.

Features of Web Application Servers

- Security and user authentication
- Access to multiple services
- Integrated development environment
- Computational languages
- Automation generation of HTML pages
- Performance and fault - tolerant features
- Database access with transaction management capabilities

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Examples of web application servers: WebLogic, ColdFusion/JRun, WebSphere Application Server, WebObjects, IIS, WildFly (JBoss), Tomcat, Jetty..

Each web application server (WAS) offers its own programming environment. Eg. CFML can be used to consume web services and present results for the end user (likewise for DB result sets).

